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Kimberly A. Neuendorf

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PARENTAL KNOWLEDGE, PARENTAL MEDIATION, AND PERCEPTIONS OF TELEVISION

By

Kimberly A. Neuendorf

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ABSTRACT

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Kimberly A. Neuendorf

Parental mediation of children's television viewing behavior was examined as relating to parental knowledge concerning TV content and effects. A media intervention campaign was conducted in a small city to provide information concerning TV's content and effects.

Three hundred and eleven mother-child pairs from this community were the subjects of a five-wave survey which assessed exposure to the intervention and the relationship between parental knowledge and parental mediation.

Exposure patterns to the intervention were generally light, and only slight support was gained for the hypotheses posited. Knowledge was related to mediation behavior through perceptions of television as antisocial.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The effects that viewing of U.S. television entertainment content may have on the perceptions, attitudes and behaviors of young people have been examined often in recent years. From early treatments such as Schramm, Lyle and Parker (1961) through very recent research efforts, possible impacts of TV on children have been explored in detail. Concern over the specific effect of violent content on children's own aggressiveness gained national attention in the late 1960's, with the result being a full-scale investigation by the Surgeon General's Special Advisory Committee on Television and Social Behavior (Comstock and Rubinstein, 1972). In a two and one-half year program of research, over 50 scientists participated directly in generating over 40 scientific reports. The general conclusions made, while open to interpretation, lead one to believe that television does play a significant part for at least subsets (e.g. those "predisposed") of the child audience in determining aggressive attitudes and behaviors. Even since the conclusion of this research program, the vast bulk of research on television and children has concentrated on examining the relationship of violent television content and children's aggressive tendencies.

Other research has examined the impact of television entertainment content on children's learning and cognitive development, images of reality, pro-social behavior, social role development, consumer behavior, and other aspects of

children's mental and physical activity (Brown, 1976; Liebert, Neale and Davidson, 1973). It is well documented that television plays a significant role in establishing the social roles, attitudes and behaviors of American children (Liebert, Neale, and Davidson, 1973; Comstock and Rubinstein, 1973; Schramm, Lyle, and Parker, 1961).

The role of the parent in mediating television's effects -- enhancing positive impacts and minimizing or offsetting negative ones -- also has been closely examined (Atkin and Greenberg, 1977; Korzenny, 1977). It seems clear that parents generally do possess the power to effectively mediate TV content exposure and effects through rulemaking, verbal interpretations, co-viewing, and "good example" viewing (Chaffee, McLeod, and Atkin, 1971; Korzenny, 1977; Surlin and others, 1978). This thesis will examine the role of parental mediation in affecting children's viewing habits and perceptions of television content. It will also explore the role of parental knowledge concerning television's possible effects in determining parental mediation strategies.

In this first chapter, the research on parental mediation of television will be summarized. An overall conceptual model and set of specific hypotheses for the research will be presented. Also, some additional literature on the use of media to disseminate information will be examined as a guide in evaluating the information dissemination project undertaken for this research.

Parental Mediation of Television

Although many research efforts focus on children as receivers of mass media messages, as a naive audience or perhaps as "sitting ducks," lacking ability for interpretation of the content they are exposed to, one must not lose sight of the fact that children do not live in isolation. Most children live with at least one adult who is at least partially aware of that child's media use. And, many adults do exhibit some type of parental mediation behavior of their children's media exposure.

With regard to television, there are a variety of behaviors which may be characterized as parental mediation activities. The parent may restrict or discourage viewing of specific shows, certain show types, or TV viewing in general. The parent may require or encourage viewing of specific shows or certain show types. He/she may set TV time limits or curfews, turn off the TV when objectionable content is shown, or change channels. In a less direct fashion, the parent may co-view television with the child, verbally interpret TV content for the child, or simply discuss TV content during or after TV viewing by the child. Infinite combinations of levels of these behaviors are possible. All these parental mediation strategies may be defined as behaviors intended to maximize positive impacts on the child and/or minimize negative impacts through influencing the child's viewing behavior and attitudes toward and perceptions of television.

Some authors go so far as to state that the "family acts

as a filter to the child's experience of television" (Brown and Linne, 1976, p. 184). While one may not wish to accept this statement as valid in all circumstances, it is possible that parental mediation plays a part in influencing how children respond to TV content.

A number of studies have looked at simple frequency of parental mediation activity. Epstein and Bozler (1976) found that six out of ten children had watched TV before they reached one year of age. Eighty-three percent of the four- and five-year-olds studied were reported by their mothers to watch TV with others at times. Forty-six percent of the children usually watched with parent(s), 43% with an older sibling, and only 5% with playmates. Sixty percent of the mothers reported talking to their children about TV, and a full two-thirds reported setting rules for their children's TV viewing.

In a survey of fourth, sixth, and eighth graders and their mothers, Greenberg and Atkin (1977) found that relatively few parents actually forbade their children to watch violent TV shows, but that many did co-view these shows with their children.

Numerous authors have presented recommended parental mediation strategies for parents concerned with TV's impact on children. For example, Gilbert (1978) offers a comprehensive set of guidelines for parents regarding their children's TV viewing. The author provides avenues of action for parents already aware of and interested in coping with

possibly detrimental impacts of TV viewing, but does not trace possible reasons for parental concern or mediation.

The term "parental mediation" does not seem to enjoy standardized usage. Many investigators include measures of only selected mediation behaviors. Others attempt a very broad conceptualization and operationalization of parental mediation. Each work must be evaluated in terms of the way in which parental mediation is conceptualized.

In a conceptually broad proposal for a study of Canadian adolescents, Tierney (1977) conceptualized parental mediation as parental intervention, defined as "free statements made by the parent during the viewing of a program or immediately after the program that contain value judgments about the content and are intended to modify or reinforce what the child has perceived" (p. 3).

In a pilot study of parental influence on children's TV viewing, Barcus (1969) draws a distinction between formal and informal parental controls. Formal controls consist of rules and regulations, while informal controls include such activities as discussions and viewing with children. A second distinction of positive vs. negative controls is also made. Barcus found formal-negative controls to be the most frequently reported type.

This formal-informal categorization seems important in the sense of intentionality. Formal controls on viewing, both negative (e.g. forbidden shows) and positive (e.g. recommended shows), are purposive and planned by the parent. Informal

controls (e.g., discussions during watching) are much more often ad hoc. It is felt that formal and informal control behavior on the part of the parent may be derived from different causes: Formal controls are more likely to be a result of knowledge and awareness of TV's possible impacts on children, while informal controls may be more a result of general attitudes and perceptions concerning TV content and behavior in general.

For this reason, this thesis makes an operational distinction between purposive or formal mediation and spur-of-the-moment or informal mediation. Formal mediation, consisting in this thesis of several types of rulemaking, requires some conscious thought about mediation on the part of the parent. Informal mediation, consisting in this thesis of parent-child verbal interaction regarding TV content, is seen as a separate but also important activity. In some cases, it may actually consist of ad hoc changes in formal rule-making.

This formal/informal distinction may be considered a situation-free/situation-specific distinction. Stated rules are pan-situational, articulated in advance of many possible situations. Verbal interpretation and discussion emerge within a specific instance to deal with the situation at hand. Thus, the two types of mediation may be different behavioral results of some type of parental concern.

A possible explanation for different mediation strategies sets the formal and informal types of mediation at opposite ends of an "effort" continuum. Rulemaking is seen as a be-

havior exhibited more often by parents willing to make concerted advance efforts in dealing with their child's media behavior, while verbal interaction is seen as a behavior exhibited more often by parents unwilling to make such advance efforts and preferring to deal with events as they occur.

Another way of interpreting the possible cause of a formal/informal mediation distinction is in terms of overall parenting strategies, such as the ones articulated by Chaffee, McLeod, and Atkin (1971) -- socio-orientation and concept-orientation. Such parenting practices will be examined later.

The role of parental mediation of many types in several areas of TV effects has been examined. The main areas of concern have been antisocial learning or modeling, and advertising effects. To a lesser extent, the role of parental mediation in the process of children's learning of information from TV content has been examined, the general conclusion being that children learn significantly more when adult interpretation of the content is provided (Walling, 1976; O'Bryant and Corder-Bolz, 1978).

Parental Mediation and Antisocial Learning from Television

The most often investigated role of parental mediation is the function it serves to mitigate children's learning of antisocial attitudes and behaviors from TV.

In a laboratory experiment, Hicks (1968) investigated

the influence of an adult co-viewer's sanction or disapproval of filmed aggressive behavior. Each subject was shown a film of an adult acting aggressively toward a "Bobo doll." One experimental group also received positive approval statements from an adult male co-viewer, a second experimental group received negative, disapproval statements from an adult male co-viewer, and the control group received no comments from the co-viewer. Unobtrusive observation in a playroom was used to measure imitative and nonimitative behavior of the child.

Positive and negative comments by the co-viewer did produce corresponding high and low levels of imitative aggressive behavior. This held, however, only in the case where the co-viewer accompanied the child into the playroom. The presence of the co-viewer in the playroom also seemed to influence what type of aggression the child exhibited. Children who were accompanied by the adult were less likely to imitate the filmed behavior; non-imitative aggression was more common.

Dominick and Greenberg (1972) examined the variables of social class, family attitudes toward aggression, and children's TV exposure. Fourth, fifth, and sixth graders in Michigan were the subjects, and four dependent measures of attitudes toward aggression (approval of aggression, willingness to use violence, use of violence in conflict situations, and perceived effectiveness of violence) were assessed. For all four of these measures, the child's

reported family attitudes toward aggression showed the most consistent relationship with aggressive attitudes. Exposure to TV violence was also found to be related to attitudes about aggression: The greater the reported exposure to TV violence, the greater the willingness to use violence, the more suggesting of violent solutions in conflict situations, and the greater the perceived effectiveness of violence. There were no social class differences in attitudes toward aggression (p. 329).

Atkin and Greenberg (1977) examined children's learning of pro- and anti-social behaviors from television and how such learning is influenced by parental mediation strategies. Operationalizing parental mediation as verbal interpretation by the parent of TV content as reported by the child, Atkin and Greenberg used three separate measures of mediation: Mediation of physical aggression content, mediation of verbal aggression content, and mediation of pro-social content.

Their results with fourth, sixth, and eighth graders indicate that mediation (verbal interpretation) of verbal aggression and pro-social behavior seem to be clearly successful: Higher levels of mediation attempts are associated with greater reported pro-social behavior and less reported verbally aggressive behavior. Also, in comparing exposure-behavior or "effects" relationships for high vs. low levels of mediations, they found that:

> children who hear parental disapproval and warnings about the unacceptability of verbal aggression seem to be uninfluenced by TV, while viewing is related to verbal aggressiveness for the other children. Moreover, if parents approve and recommend the altruistic and affectionate activities on TV, there is a stronger exposure-behavior relationship than if such commentary is infrequent. (p. 18)

Mediation for physical aggression showed inconsistent results: High levels of this type of mediation were associated with a higher exposure-behavior correlation than were low levels of mediation. This reverse trend was found mainly in the older age groups, and a "backlash" against numerous lectures over the years is offered as an explanation.

Additionally, joint parent-child viewing was examined, and found to be a more significant factor in mitigating negative impacts and enhancing positive impacts of TV than amount of verbal interpretation. The study offers no data to show what might cause or lead to differential levels of verbal interpretation and co-viewing, but the authors speculate that "talking to children about television and watching with them may be symptomatic of a more basic style of child-rearing that also includes patterns of affection, punishment, and example" (p. 20).

McLeod, Atkin, and Chaffee (1972a) conducted a study of adolescent aggression, television viewing behavior, and structural attributes of family social environment. Over 600 seventh and tenth graders in Maryland and Wisconsin comprised the sample. Self-report measures of aggressive behavior and approval of aggression, viewing time of various show

types, parental influences (control over TV, emphasis on nonaggression, interpretation of television violence, punishment, affection, and family structural aspects), and cognitive reactions to TV (perceived learning of aggression, perceived reality of TV aggression, involvement in TV violence, identification with violent characters, and perceived efficacy of violent characters) were gathered.

Their results included the finding that "parental attempts to influence the child's violence viewing behavior and aggressive behavior are not associated with lower levels of adolescent aggression" (p. 189). A multiple regression with reported violent behavior as the dependent variable and violence viewing, parental punishment, and parental affection as independent variables was conducted. The violence viewing index proved to be the strongest predictor, and parental affection did not predict violent behavior significantly overall.

Using the same Wisconsin sample and collecting a second wave of data one year later, McLeod, Atkin, and Chaffee (1972b) additionally measured mothers' reports of aggression, mothers' television viewing habits, family communication patterns, socioeconomic status, and peer, teacher, and mother reports of adolescent aggression. Their results did show a pattern of modeling for aggression and television behavior; that is, parents' reports of their own aggressive behavior and television exposure by show type were correlated with children's reports of their own behaviors.

The relationship between family environment and violence viewing was also examined. "Attempts to control the adolescent's television viewing and to interpret violent content are associated with generally higher levels of violence viewing. While this suggests the ineffectiveness of such measures, a more likely explanation is that parents whose children are 'addicted' to violent fare are likely to take measures to modify that addiction" (p. 253).

Chaffee, McLeod, and Atkin (1971) conducted a field study of 1,300 families examining parental control and general parental influence (e.g., verbal communication) with regard to adolescents' media use. Parental example or modeling was also examined, but parent media use was not found to be highly related to child media use, and it was concluded that parent media use does not act as an important example or source of modeling for children overall.

In this study, a typology was used to describe general family communication patterns. Two types of family orientations were defined: The socio-oriented family stresses harmonious intrafamily relations, avoids controversy, and represses discussion of extrapersonal topics, while the concept-oriented family promotes expression of ideas and embraces active discussion and controversy. A four-category typology of family communication patterns was set up using these orientations: Laissez faire (low socio-oriented, low concept-oriented), protective (high socio-oriented, low concept-oriented), pluralistic (low socio-oriented,

high concept-oriented), and consensual (high socio-oriented, high concept-oriented).

A relationship between family communication patterns and children's media use was found.

> Adolescents in pluralistic homes give considerable attention to media news reports and spend relatively little time with television; the protective adolescent is a heavy television user but shows little interest in news. . . . Neither the laissez faire nor the consensual adolescents differ much from the norm in general television use. But in media news consumption, they behave very much in accordance with the concept orientation in the home. That is, the laissez faire group is about as low as the protectives in news use, and the consensuals are at least as high as the pluralistics. (p. 335)

Parent-child media use correlations were also compared across the four groups. Modeling was found to be most prevalent in high socio-oriented families (both the protectives and consensuals).

Abel (1976) also examined the question of whether family interpersonal communication patterns influence children's TV viewing habits. Utilizing the two dimensions of family interaction earlier used by Chaffee, McLeod, and Atkin -- the socio-oriented dimension and the idea-oriented (or concept-oriented) dimension -- he tested the general hypothesis that modeling would be strongest in those families with a socio-orientation.

In a field study of 781 children and their mothers, Abel found that children from higher socio-oriented families, where there is greater emphasis on interpersonal relations, had TV viewing preferences more similar to what they perceived

their parents would wish them to watch than did children from lower socio-oriented families. And, in these high socio-oriented families, the child's TV viewing preferences and the mother's indication of what the child should watch were more highly correlated than in the low socio-oriented families. Also, children from the high idea-oriented families were better predictors of their mothers' TV viewing preferences than those children from low idea-oriented families (p. 334).

Finally, with regard to "TV family" preferences, it was found that children in families with extreme orientations (high socio-low idea and high idea-low socio) preferred TV families with similar orientations. Abel states that "the results of this study suggest that parents and the interpersonal patterns of communication in the home are useful antecedent variables in identifying the effects of TV on children" (p. 335).

In a somewhat similar study of disciplinary practices and their effect on children's modeling of antisocial TV content, Korzenny, Greenberg, and Atkin (1979) used a conceptualization, originated by Aronfreed, of disciplinary interaction as having two overall types: Induction, which attempts to use reasoning, explanation, and explication of consequences to discipline a child, and sensitization, which uses power assertion, including physical and verbal threat, to discipline.

Median splits on the measures of induction and sensitization practices created four cells: Low sensitizing-low inductive families, low sensitizing-high inductive families,

etc. Contingent correlations were computed between the child's exposure to specific TV content and the corresponding antisocial behavior of the child as reported by the mother. These correlations were computed for physical aggression, verbal aggression, and deceit.

The results indicated that children in low sensitizing-high inductive families are least affected by physically and verbally aggressive TV content. Children in high sensitizing-low inductive families were found to be most affected by physically aggressive TV content.

In general, then, parental mediation practices do seem to influence children's acquisition of reported antisocial behaviors from television. The bulk of the evidence indicates that verbalizations -- interpretation of TV content, family communication patterns, and family disciplinary practices -- result in lower levels of aggressive attitudes and behaviors and modeling of antisocial TV content. Direct attempts at control over the child's viewing behavior are associated with higher levels of aggressive behavior. The explanation is offered, however, that the control attempts by the parent are a response to aggressive tendencies by the child, and not visa versa.

From this, hypotheses may be generated which tie parental mediation to children's attitudes and behaviors with regard to antisocial TV content. At the end of this chapter, specific hypotheses are articulated.

Parental Mediation of Television Advertising

The impact of parental mediation in the area of advertising is especially important, for as Robertson (1976) points out, "almost all of children's [consumption] behavior is mediated by parents, since the child must normally request products and the parent acts as the purchasing agent" (p. 1).

Robertson conceptualizes this type of parental mediation as reactive -- as a response to active requests by the child. In a review of research in this area, Robertson concluded that viewing rules are more often made by parents of higher education, that exposure to TV advertising is related to children's requesting of toys and cereals, and that disappointment, conflict, and anger seem to be outcomes of parental request denial.

In a laboratory experiment, Prasad et al. (1977) examined the relative influences of TV commercials and parents' counter-commercial advocacy on children's consumption behavior. Sixty-four eight to ten-year-old boys were the subjects. Two different styles of parental advocacy were identified and operationalized, resulting in three treatment conditions: (1) no counter-commercial advocacy (control), (2) counter-commercial advocacy with a power-assertive style, and (3) counter-commercial advocacy with a reasoning-type style. Mothers were instructed in how to communicate in their particular advocacy style, while children watched a videotape which included three repetitions of an ad for a certain toy.

The mothers were reunited with their sons, at which time they performed their advocacy. Subsequently, the children were allowed to choose a toy from a "store" including the advertised toy.

The presence of either style of parental counter-commercial advocacy was associated with a significantly longer deliberation time than that for the control group. It was also found that when the product as portrayed by the TV commercial was perceived by the children as only "moderately" attractive (as opposed to "highly" attractive), the reasoning style resulted in significantly greater compliant behavior than the power-assertive style. When the product was highly attractive, neither style resulted in significantly high compliance.

Using a symbolic interactionist perspective, Reid (1979) attempted to discover if parental concern and rulemaking concerning TV serve as mediating factors of children's responses to commercials and parents' handling of those responses. Families in which there existed implicit or explicit rules which precluded granting of advertising-initiated product requests had less conflict over advertising content than families where no prohibitive rules existed.

Using the projective Story Completion Method, Shiekh and Moleski (1977) interviewed 144 children in the first, third, and fifth grades. They were asked to complete a story describing a boy who watches TV and views several commercials for a wonderful toy. The children were asked what would happen if the child in the story asked his parents to buy

the toy and they said no. Expected unpleasant affect, or "bad feelings," decreased from the third grade to the fifth grade, and expected aggressive responses increased from the first to the third grade. About 55% of the children gave one of these two negative results, indicating some belief among children that viewing of commercials and subsequent parental mediation or refusal of requests may result in family conflict.

Overall, then, there is some evidence that parental mediation practices do influence children's behavioral responses to advertising. Both verbal interpretation and rulemaking are associated with lower demand levels by the child for advertised products.

Antecedents and Alternative Explanations for Parental Mediation

Antecedents or possible causes of parental mediation efforts have not been studied as often as have the effects of parental mediation. Generally, studies investigating antecedents of mediation have focused on demographic characteristics such as socioeconomic status and race.

Using a sample of white sixth graders and their parents in Omaha in 1966-67, Martin and Benson (1970) examined parents' perceptions of the role of TV in their children's lives. The authors looked at the relationships between "social status" and education, and parental rules for TV watching, parents' estimates of children's watching time,

and parental use of TV as an educational aid. It was hypothesized that social status, operationalized by categorizing the father's occupation as upper class, middle class, working class, or lower class, would be (H_1) negatively related to parents' estimates of time children spent watching TV, and (H_2) positively related to parents' reports of rulemaking with regard to TV viewing and (H_3) discussion of TV with the children in terms of its educational value. Only the final of these three hypotheses was supported. Three additional hypotheses tested whether educational levels of the parents were related to the same three variables. With regard to parents' estimates of time children spent watching TV, education seemed to differentiate among fathers but not among mothers -- the more education the father had, the less he reported his children watched TV.

Evidence was found that the more education parents had completed, the more they discussed TV with their children in terms of its educational value. No relationship was found between parents' education and likelihood of rulemaking for children's TV watching.

In a large-scale survey of fourth through ninth graders and their parents, Mohr (1979) looked at methods of guidance for TV viewing, parent-child consensus of guidance, and demographic antecedents of parental guidance. Positive guidance was operationalized as parental commanding or urging children to watch certain shows or types of shows. Negative guidance was operationalized as forbidding or

discouraging children to watch certain shows or types of shows. Mohr found little parental guidance of either type, but significant correspondence of children's reports with parents' reports for both positive and negative guidance.

Guidance behavior did seem to be influenced by demographic characteristics. Black parents reported significantly more positive guidance ("must or should" watch) and less negative guidance ("must not or should not" watch) than white parents for nearly all program types. Parents with at least some college education reported less positive guidance and more negative guidance than parents with less education. Parents of younger children (fourth through sixth grades) reported more positive and more negative guidance than parents of older children (seventh through ninth grades). Only parents' age did not prove to be systematically related to guidance behavior.

In reporting findings of a three-state survey of first through tenth graders, Atkin (1972) indicated that he found no relationship between control over viewing and social class. He did find a mild positive relationship between parental affection displayed and restrictiveness over viewing.

Some researchers do not readily accept the thesis that parents are capable of easily influencing children's viewing habits and TV's effects on them. Some hold that the child's media use has an impact on the media use of the parents, rather than visa versa. Surlin (1978) found support

for this "reverse modeling" proposition in a telephone survey of parents and non-parents, but only for individuals with low levels of education. The presence of children in the home was associated with significantly more viewing by low educated adults. However, the data are cross-sectional, allowing for alternative explanations for the relationships found.

Some authors do not view TV as entirely negative or as something parents even need to mediate. In a study which looked at how adolescents perceived TV parents compared to their own parents, Miller and Beck (1976) found that TV parents were seen as behaving much as a perceived "good parent" would. However, the respondents saw their own parents as making better choices than the TV parents. Thus, the perception of TV parents does not seem to be a source of unfavorable comparisons for real-life parents.

Televison content has even been used to try to promote positive parent-child interaction. Williams, Smart, and Epstein (1979) conducted a field experiment with 15 three- to five-year-olds to see if induced co-viewing could serve as a basis for parent-child conversation. They concluded that television could indeed be incorporated easily into parent and child interaction, and that parent-child discussions may be affected somewhat by earlier discussions which had TV as a topic -- the children elaborated more and were less egocentric in their play activity. So, the idea that TV content is "bad" and parental mediation needs to be a

restrictive force should be recognized as only one possible viewpoint.

Actual measurement of parental mediation seems a simple task, yet in fact it may be fraught with bias. In examining parent-child consensus of parental control over children's TV viewing, Rossiter and Robertson (1975) found that in the aggregate, parents "claim much lower viewing by children, stricter household rules governing viewing, more co-viewing with children, greater parent-child interaction, greater capability by children to detect persuasiveness in commercials, and lower motivational responsiveness to them than the children themselves report" (p. 323). And, upper class parents tended to exaggerate most. Thus, it seems desirable to obtain child estimates of parental mediation as well as estimates made by parents.

Greenberg, Ericson, and Vlahos (1972) examined consensus of parents and children across a wide range of behaviors concerning TV. Surveying fourth and fifth graders and their mothers, the researchers found that amount of parent-child interaction was unrelated overall to the discrepancy found between mothers' and children's TV behavioral estimates. They also found generally significant but small correlations between mothers' reports and children's reports of the children's TV viewing behavior. "There was relatively strong agreement on only three aspects of the child's TV habits -- the nonviolent shows he watched and his frequency of watching with either his parents or his friends" (p. 401). This

finding of disparity between reports leads the researchers to ask, "Who is right?" This question is not answerable from the research conducted to date.

In sum, the antecedent variables of education and race have been found to significantly predict parental mediation, and should be considered in any study of mediation. Also, both parents' and children's reports of parental mediation should be collected when possible, and comparisons of these possibly discrepant reports should be made.

Parental Knowledge and Parental Mediation

There has been a surprising dearth of research concerned with the relationship of parental knowledge of TV effects to parental mediation and to subsequent TV effects on children. As we have seen, amount and style of parental mediation have been studied as a function of social class, and as leading to increased knowledge gain and decreased antisocial behavior acquisition on the part of the child. But nowhere is the clear, logical idea that sheer knowledge of TV's possible effects on children may be a foremost determinant of parental mediation explored.

The need for such study is recognized by several authors. In a fairly early (1969) treatise on children's use of TV and the role of parents in determining and mediating such use, Young points out an important paradox of parental mediation: "The individual parent is the person who has the greatest interest and ability to deal with

the child's use of television, but it is generally the parent who is least informed of the real issues at stake, and even if informed, is often least capable of coping with the situation" (p. 37).

Lemon (1976) has apparently sensed a great need for the education of both children and parents conerning TV content and effects. While, unfortunately, she gives no evidence that such education will reduce or override TV's negative impacts, she outlines the evaluative skills needed by children to become critical consumers of TV. These skills include explicit and spontaneous reasoning about the reality of TV content, readiness to compare TV content to sources of information outside TV, readiness to refer to knowledge about the industry in reasoning about TV reality, the tendency to find TV content fabricated and inaccurate, and a critical general evaluation of TV (p. 3).

Lemon also points out a possibly very useful tack for teaching children critical skills.

> Since we found that people to a large extent see portrayals of their own sex and ethnicity group as inaccurate, this might be a good place to begin to teach children to compare what is on television to their own experience . . . as well as to develop a broader skepticism of television in general. (p. 4)

In perhaps the only study which even peripherally examines knowledge of parents as a predictor variable, Fontes, Barwis, and Reagan (1977) conducted a survey on the awareness of and perceptions of Family Viewing Time by adults. A total of 612 telephone interviews were completed in two

Michigan cities. The survey found that less than half of those interviewed were even aware of FVT.

> Those aware of FVT were more likely to have some college education, children aged 4 to 13 and were more likely to be between 18 and 39 years of age. . . . Using awareness as a predictor variable, we found that those aware were likely to perceive less violence and less sex before than after 9 p.m. They also perceived less violence and less crime from 7 to 9 p.m. in the post-FVT season. Yet they did not find post-FVT programming more suitable for family audiences. (p. 288)

Thus, those adults possessing greater "knowledge" (i.e. awareness of FVT) did hold different perceptions of TV content.

The issue of knowledge is critical, for parental knowledge is a theoretically manipulable predictor variable. Understanding the impact of parental knowledge is interesting in a practical, highly applicable sense that is not relevant to other predictor variables such as education or income. Should knowledge be found to be an important predictor variable for effective parental mediation, formal and informal training programs, information campaigns, and the like could be utilized to help disseminate information concerning television's possible effects on children. Information dissemination and mass education could quite possibly help change the face of children's TV use in the U.S.

Literature on information campaigns indicates that the general public is educable via the mass media. Citing prime examples of successful information campaigns, Mendelsohn (1973) concludes that these formal plans to disseminate

non-commercial information to the public via mass media can be effective, and that social science research can aid significantly in determining

> appropriate targets, themes, appeals, and media vehicles. Without such prior research, it becomes impossible to evaluate information efforts realistically, and thus we learn very little from either our successes or our failures. (p. 8).

Mendelsohn has set down several guidelines for successful information campaigns based on empirical research. He holds that information campaigns have the greatest chance for success if they assume disinterest on the part of the public, if middle-range goals are set, and if analysis of specific targets is conducted prior to the campaign (p. 2). It is also generally acknowledged that information campaigns should incorporate content which is both entertaining and relevant to the audience.

On the other hand, Hyman and Sheatsley (1971) take a more pessimistic view of information dissemination attempts on the large scale, and have delineated a number of reasons why information campaigns fail: (1) interested people acquire the most information, (2) people seek information congenial to prior attitudes, (3) people interpret the same information differently, (4) information does not necessarily change attitudes, and (5) there exists a hard core of chronic "know-nothings."

In a broader vein, Zaltman and Duncan (1976) have articulated various strategies for planned social change. Two types of strategies seem particularly suited to the use of

information campaigns to inform. Facilitative strategies "make easier the implementation of changes by and/or among the target group. The use of facilitative strategies assumes that the target group (1) already recognizes a problem, (2) is in general agreement that remedial action is necessary, and (3) is open to external assistance and willing to engage in self-help" (p. 90). Reeducative strategies are seen as quite neutral. This approach "does not present biased information or information not clearly rooted in objective fact. Unlike facilitative strategies, reeducative strategies do not always point to a particular means or channel for implementating intentions to engage in a new or different behavior" (p. 111). It is generally acknowledged that any campaign for planned social change will be most effective when accompanied by interpersonal support systems (e.g., radio forums or listening groups).

The use of media, including television, radio, and print, for educating the public at large is well documented (Ingle, 1974; Schramm, 1977; Jamison and McAnany, 1978). Radio in particular has enjoyed wide usage in numerous countries to educate the public.

Hypotheses

With such possibilities in mind, a study was designed in early 1978 which attempted both to disseminate such TV effects information on a small scale and to estimate the impact of parental knowledge on parental mediation, and on

children's attitudes and behaviors in regard to television.

A general conceptual model has been posited which includes previously supported relationships among variables, incorporating the key variable of parental knowledge as an antecedent to the amount of parental mediation exhibited. Figure 1 shows the basic conceptual model, the arrows indicating hypothesized paths.

Following through the model step-wise, a number of specific hypotheses are articulated. First, as indicated by the information campaign literature, exposure to sources of information regarding TV effects is seen as leading to knowledge.

H_1: The greater one's exposure to mass media sources of information concerning TV content and its effects, the greater one's knowledge of TV content and effects.

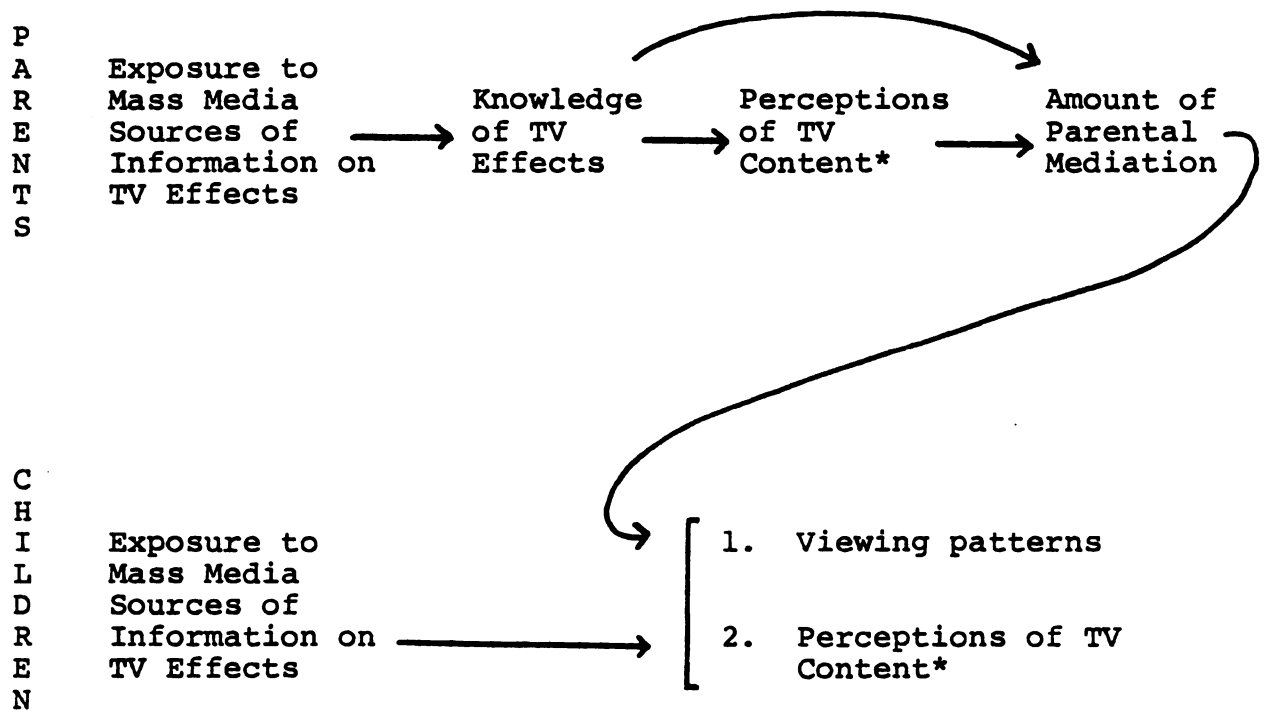
Second, knowledge is seen as leading to specific perceptions of TV content. These hypotheses are in correspondence with often-emphasized areas of TV content effects on children. It is hypothesized that knowledge works through these particular perceptions to result in a motivation to act with regard to mediating one's child's TV viewing. The fact that these areas are often the topic of discussion in the media makes them especially salient to parents.

H_2: The greater one's knowledge of TV content and effects, the less one's perceived reality of TV content.

H_3: The greater one's knowledge of TV content and effects, the greater one's perceived level of antisocial TV content.

Figure 1

Conceptual Model



* - Perceived reality, perceived level of antisocial content, perceived efficacy of public in changing TV content.

H_4: The greater one's knowledge of TV content and effects, the greater one's perception of the audience as possessing the power to change TV content.

These three perceptions are seen as leading to parental mediation activity. This activity may consist of both formal rulemaking mediation or more informal discussion with the child.

H_5: The less one's perceived reality of TV content, the more parental mediation behavior will be exhibited regarding children's TV watching.

H_6: The greater one's perceived level of antisocial TV content, the more parental mediation behavior will be exhibited.

H_7: The greater one's perception of the viewership as possessing the power to change TV content, the more parental mediation behavior will be exhibited.

Knowledge is also seen as leading directly to parental mediation activity. This is the crux of the main original idea presented in this thesis: That parental knowledge concerning TV content and effects can lead to enlightened perceptions of TV and to increased parental mediation activity. This new proposition has been only peripherally examined and supported by prior research, as indicated earlier.

H_8: The greater one's knowledge of TV content and effects, the more parental mediation behavior one will exhibit regarding children's TV watching.

Parental mediation behavior on the part of the parent is seen as leading to certain TV viewing patterns and perceptions of TV content on the part of the child, the ultimate dependent variables in the model. With regard to perceptions of TV content as antisocial, prior research supports

such a hypothesis. With regard to perceptions of TV content as real and perceptions of the efficacy of the viewing public, prior research has not directly examined such possible relationships. Since parental mediation has been shown to affect attitudes and perceptions, such new hypotheses logically follow. The child's own exposure to sources of information on TV content and effects is seen as acting in the same manner, or in correspondence with, the parent's mediation behavior in determining these viewing patterns and perceptions. Once again, this is in correspondence with previous research which indicated that information campaigns can change knowledge and attitudes.

H_9: The more parental mediation behavior a child's parent exhibits, the less TV a child watches overall (specifically, the less crime, the less action-adventure, the less situation comedy, and the more family drama content a child views).

H_{10}: The more parental mediation behavior a child's parent exhibits, the less the child's perceived reality of TV content.

H_{11}: The more parental mediation behavior a child's parent exhibits, the greater the child's perceived level of antisocial TV content.

H_{12}: The more parental mediation behavior a child's parent exhibits, the greater the child's perception of the viewership as possessing the power to change TV content.

H_{13}: The more a child is exposed to mass media sources of information concerning TV content and effects, the less TV a child watches overall (specifically, the less crime, the less action-adventure, the less situation comedy, and the more family drama content a child views).

H_{14}: The more a child is exposed to mass media sources of information concerning TV content and effects, the less the child's perceived reality of TV content.

H_{15}: The more a child is exposed to mass media sources of information concerning TV content and effects, the greater the child's perceived level of anti-social TV content.

H_{16}: The more a child is exposed to mass media sources of information concerning TV content and effects, the greater the child's perception of the viewership as possessing the power to change TV content.

To test these hypotheses, a study is required which examines both parents and children. The following chapters describe one such study.

CHAPTER 2
METHODS

In the spring of 1978, a study was conducted which was two-fold. First, an effort was made via radio and newspapers to disseminate information to a small midwestern community concerning the possible effects of TV content on children and the role of parental mediation in such effects processes. Second, an examination was made of the type and amount of TV viewing done by children in this community, as well as a measurement of their various attitudes and perceptions concerning TV content. Parents also were included in this investigation in an effort to gauge their awareness and knowledge of possible effects of TV on children, their basic perceptions regarding TV content, and their reported parental mediation strategies.

In order to provide input material which might increase awareness and knowledge on the part of parents within the community, an information campaign consisting of a series of five radio shows and five newspaper articles was conducted. Each Tuesday during the late morning, one radio program, approximately 10 minutes in length, was aired on the one local AM radio station. Each Wednesday, a newspaper article of approximately 800 words in length was printed in the editorial section of the sole local newspaper. These two media are the only existing local mass media serving this community. Air time and space in the paper were provided free by the managements of these insti-

tutions.

In what may be considered a reeducative strategy, the radio show and the newspaper story dealt with the same topic, adapted in a somewhat different manner for the particular medium. The section below outlines the five basic topics dealt with over the five-week period, and provides excerpts from each weekly radio show and newspaper article.

Radio and Newspaper Content

Week 1 (week of May 8, 1978): Children's perceived reality of TV content.

Radio excerpt:

> The fact is that a lot of people, especially children, believe in TV as a representation of the way things are in the real world. They may believe that the Bionic Man really exists. And white children watching a show like "Good Times" may believe that most, if not all, black families live under such conditions, existing on welfare. The best example, though, is the way toys are advertised on television. Children will see a toy that looks big, and colorful, and does amazing things on TV, but when they get it home, it just isn't the same.

Newspaper excerpt:

> The problem is that many TV viewers, and especially the young ones, tend to believe that what they see on TV is actually the way things are in the real world. For example, have you ever bought your child a toy which was asked for because it was advertised on TV? Was your child disappointed? When they get the real thing, they often realize that it's not like they thought it would be -- the real thing is smaller, or harder to do or stops working.

Week 2 (week of May 15, 1978): Pro- and anti-social TV content.

Radio excerpt:

> Of the antisocial behaviors shown on TV, physical aggression shows a definite impact upon children's attitudes and behaviors. Young people who watch a lot of televised physical aggression tend to think differently about the use of violence, and they also behave somewhat differently. They tend to think that acting violently is an acceptable way of behaving. They think violence is more effective in solving problems. And they are more tolerant of the use of violence by others. Young people who watch a lot of TV violence are also more likely to be more aggressive themselves -- in their play with other children, in their behaviors toward brothers and sisters, and in their behaviors with adults.

Newspaper excerpt:

> Most of the studies done in the past 15 years have shown that heavy viewing of TV violence is likely to lead to more aggressive, antisocial behaviors in children. This is particularly so when the child believes that that kind of behavior will be successful in getting what is wanted, and that getting caught or getting punished is not likely. Of course, not all children react the same way, but the general tendency toward negative behavior exists. Sometimes it happens soon after such shows are seen, and sometimes the aggressive tendency can persist over several years, influenced by the amount of television violence viewed as a youngster on a steady, regular, daily basis.

Week 3 (week of May 22, 1978): Sex roles on TV.

Radio excerpt:

> From these examples it is seen that not just women on TV are stereotyped; men are also given a fixed image. These images, or sex roles, are generally reinforced on television. For instance, males are rewarded for being dominant by having their orders carried out. Females are reinforced by being submissive, by being ordered by males, and by not having their own orders carried out. In the old "Brady Bunch" series, the Brady girls were regularly praised for achievements in cooking and sewing, while the Brady boys were rewarded for activities such as baseball, carpentry work, and science projects. Young people seeing such reinforcement on TV will be likely to identify with characters of their own sex, and may model, or copy, what these characters do.

Newspaper excerpt:

> The stereotyped and limited personality traits and jobs of men and women on television are reinforced by other TV characters. For example, the girls in "The Brady Bunch" are regularly praised for achievements in cooking and sewing. The Brady boys are rewarded for engaging in such activities as baseball, carpentry and science projects. Mrs. Brady and the maid, Alice, are often commended on the care of the house and children, while Mr. Brady is acknowledged and appreciated as the reliable breadwinner and concerned citizen. . . . Viewers may develop values and beliefs based on the limited scope of occupations and personalities men and women have on television.

Week 4 (week of May 29, 1978): Family roles on TV.

Radio excerpt:

> Not all TV families, however, get along so well. Situation comedies, which often have families as central units, consist mainly of adults and tend to contain a high degree of verbal aggression -- yelling, insults, verbal attacks and the like. "All in the Family," "Maude," and "The Jeffersons" are particularly high in verbal aggression. Regular viewing of such situation comedies could lead children to believe that family members are loud, rude, and sarcastic.

Newspaper excerpt:

> Situation-comedies show a great amount of conflict and disagreement between family members. There is often much verbal aggression (yelling, teasing, sarcasm) on these type of shows. Although presented in jest, young children may not be able to understand the humor and, as a result, expect normal family activity to include much that is loud, rude and sarcastic. Verbally aggressive shows include "All in the Family," "Maude" and "The Jeffersons." Conflict in families appears to be increasing on TV, especially between parents and pre-teens and has doubled in the past two years.

Week 5 (week of June 5, 1978): What parents can do to react to and/or influence TV content effects.

Radio excerpt:

> So far, we have discussed various ways the public may influence what goes on TV. One final effort to become even more involved is to work with, or join, a citizens' group concerned with TV and children. Local PTAs and PTOs often take a stand with regard to certain TV programming, and make their influence known on a wide scale. Action for Children's Television is an organization which works for better programming for children. A.C.T. operates out of Newtonville, Massachusetts, but its members include residents of all 50 states.

Newspaper excerpt:

> Two organizations, the PTA (Parents and Teachers Association) and ACT (Action for Children's Television) are very active in trying to influence what is shown on TV. Both the PTA and ACT are primarily made up of concerned citizens who want to have input as to what TV presents to its young viewers. Both groups direct their activities toward the major networks, federal agencies and advertisers. By demonstrating that there is public concern for what is shown on TV, these groups are being heard.

The scripts and articles were written in a factual, but non-technical manner, emphasizing research findings of the Project CASTLE (Children and Social Television Learning, at Michigan State University) content analyses and social surveys. The radio shows contained the additional content of tape-recorded interview segments with local children. For example, spontaneous, ad lib responses to the following questions were included in one show: Could the things you see on TV happen in real life? Can you think of any TV characters who are real? When you were younger, did you think all of TV was real? Do you know any young children who think TV is real? Some of these off-the-cuff responses were quite amusing. Others were rather mature and thoughtful,

such as the eight-year-old girl who was concerned about her three-year-old brother's perceived reality of TV: He had to be restrained from running in front of cars, as he wished to be injured seriously so he could be like the "Bionic Man." These excerpts lent interest and variety to the radio programs, as well as providing examples for the scripted material.

The articles and scripts are found, in toto, in Appendix A.

The Survey

Concurrent with the radio shows and newspaper articles, a five-wave survey was conducted. Approximately 600 children and their mothers in the small midwestern city (Owosso, Michigan) were surveyed through the cooperation of the local school district. Permission from the superintendent of this school district was obtained for purposes of data collection. Ten fourth grade and ten sixth grade classrooms from the six elementary schools within the city limits were randomly selected. Approximately two weeks before the first radio show and newspaper article appeared, a short baseline questionnaire was administered in class to all children in the 20 classrooms. This questionnaire asked for basic demographic information, which TV shows were the child's favorites (from a list of 36 prime-time shows and write-in endorsements), and whether the children ever talked with their parents about TV shows. Four hundred and seventy-two children completed the baseline survey. A copy of the

questionnaire is in Appendix B.

A longer, more complex questionnaire was administered in class to these same children in five waves -- four randomly selected classrooms (two fourth grade and two sixth grade) were surveyed on Wednesday of each week during the five-week run of the radio/newspaper series. The questionnaire used each week was essentially the same. The sole difference was a one-page insert that varied with the content of the media intervention that week. This insert attempted to measure awareness of and exposure to the specially prepared radio shows and newspaper articles.

Every week, this main survey included items intended to measure six general concepts:

1. The type and amount of parental mediation exercised by parents (e.g., "On a school night, how late can you stay up to watch TV?");
2. The child's perceived reality of TV content (e.g., "How often are the women you see on TV like women in real life? All the time, most of the time, some of the time, once in a while, or never");
3. The child's perceived level of pro- and anti-social content on TV (e.g., "How many TV shows have violence in them? All, many, some, a few, or none");
4. The child's perceived power of the TV viewership to affect TV content (e.g., "How often do TV shows get changed because people don't like what they

see? Very often, often, sometimes, almost never, or never");

5. Exposure to interpersonal and media sources of concern for the acceptability or suitability of TV content (e.g., "Do you ever read things about what should or shouldn't be on TV?");
6. Contact with parents concerning TV content "last night" (e.g., "Did you watch TV last night? If you said yes, did you talk with your parents about what you saw?").

Four hundred and seventy-one children completed this main survey. Three hundred and sixty-six of these 471 had completed the prior baseline survey. The complete "kids' wave" questionnaire, including all five inserts, may be found in Appendix C.

On the final page of this questionnaire, the children were asked for their phone numbers. They were assured that they were not obligated to divulge this information if they did not wish to. They were also assured that their parents would not be given any information as to their responses on the survey. Phone numbers had also been solicited from the baseline questionnaire.

Using these phone numbers, mothers of the children were contacted by telephone on the following evening (Thursday) during each week of the study. Mothers rather than fathers were chosen as more representative of a parenting influence on the children as far as television was concerned; the

baseline survey had shown many more homes without a father than without a mother, and it was desirable to remain consistent as to the sex of the parent interviewed. Thus, it should be kept in mind that although measures were obtained of reported parental mediation efforts, these measures are as reported by the mother only.

The mothers' questionnaire, like the main children's questionnaire, was administered in five forms corresponding to the five waves of the media intervention. Again, an insert varied with the content of the radio show and newspaper article that week, attempting to measure awareness of and exposure to these media. The insert also measured basic knowledge of the content presented that week, whether the mother had been exposed or not.

Every week, this main survey also included items intended to measure five general concepts:

1. The type and amount of parental mediation exercised by parents (e.g., "How late do you let your 4th/6th grader stay up on a school night to watch TV?");
2. The mother's perceived reality of TV content (e.g., "How often are female television characters like actual women? All the time, most of the time, some of the time, once in a while, or never");
3. The mother's perceived level of pro- and anti-social content on TV (e.g., "How many TV programs show violent behavior? Would you say: All, some, a few, or none");

4. The mother's perceived power of the TV viewership to affect TV content (e.g., "How often do television producers make changes in their programs because people like you don't like what they see? Would you say: Very often, often, sometimes, rarely, or never");
5. Exposure to interpersonal and media sources of concern for the acceptability or suitability of TV content (e.g., "Have you ever read about what is or isn't suitable content for television?").

You will note that these five sets of variables correspond to five of the six concepts measured in the kids' wave survey. This mothers' wave survey also included demographic data: Number of children, occupations of both parents, education, and age. The moms' wave questionnaire is found in Appendix D. As an additional summary, Table 1 itemizes the contents of the three survey instruments.

Unfortunately, not all mom-kid pairs completed all three parts of the study (baseline, kids' wave, and moms' wave) due to absence from school, and no-answers and refusals for the phone interviews. Table 2 breaks down the kids' and moms' sample sizes by wave. The data base used throughout the data analysis consisted of the total 311 completed moms' data sets, and their corresponding children's data. This children's data set was comprised of a baseline only in 26 cases, a wave questionnaire only in 29 cases, and both baseline and wave in the remaining 256 cases.

Before making a decision on the inclusion or exclusion

Table 1

Summary of the Contents of the Three Survey Instruments

KIDS' BASELINE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Shows kids watch
2. Contact with parents about TV (general)
3. Demographics: Number of brothers/sister; residence with mother, father, sisters, brothers or other; sex; grade

KIDS' WAVE QUESTIONNAIRE

*1. Parental rules regarding TV viewing
*2. Perceived reality of TV content
*3. Perceived amount of pro- and anti-social TV content
*4. Perceived power of viewership to affect TV content
*5. Exposure to interpersonal and media sources of concern about TV content
6. Contact with parents about TV ("last night")
7. Wave data: Radio and newspaper awareness; readership/ listenership
8. Demographics: Sex; grade

MOMS' WAVE QUESTIONNAIRE

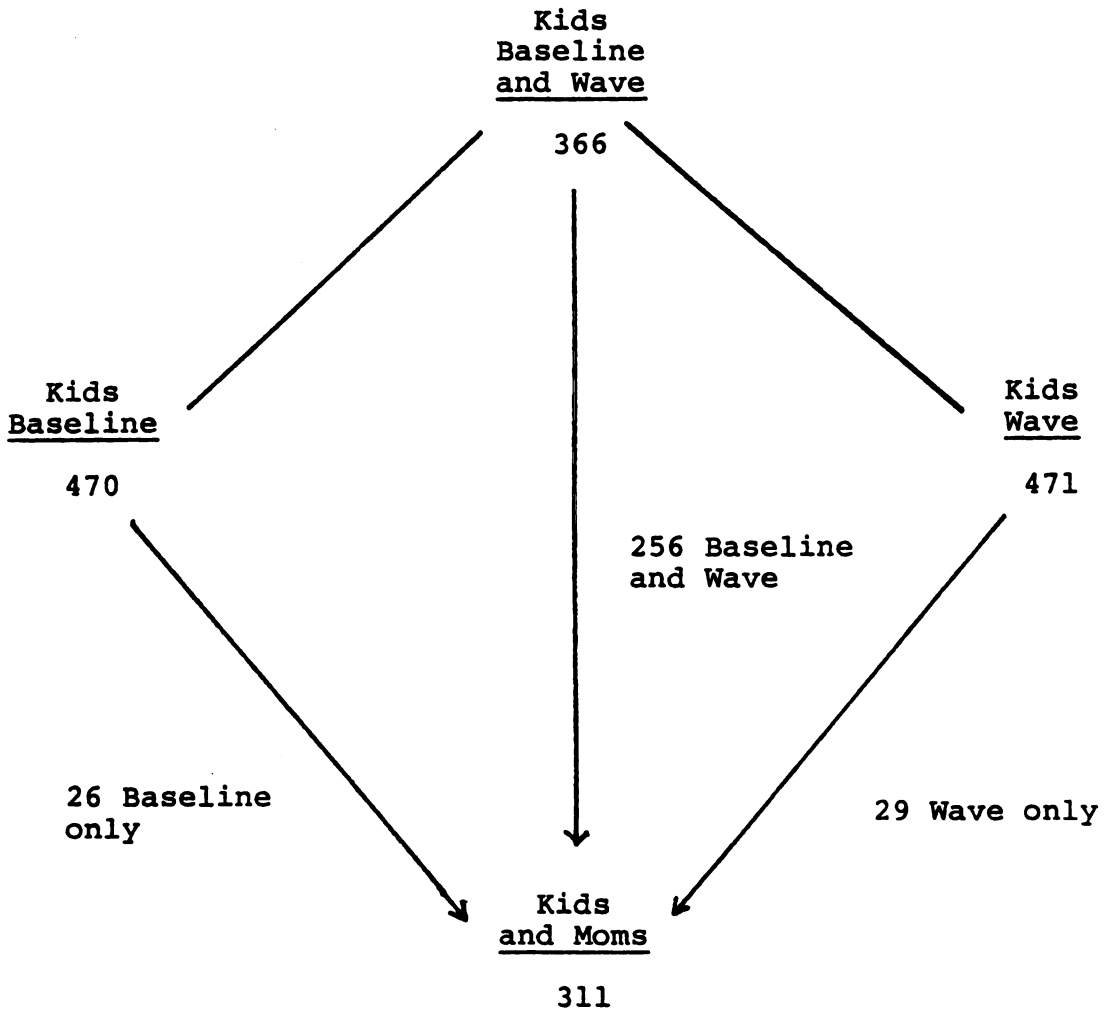
*1. Parental rules regarding TV viewing of children
*2. Perceived reality of TV content
*3. Perceived amount of pro- and anti-social TV content
*4. Perceived power of viewership to affect TV content
*5. Exposure to interpersonal and media sources of concern about TV content
6. Wave data: Radio and newspaper awareness; readership/ listenership; knowledge of weekly content
7. Demographics: Number of children; occupations of both parents; education; age

* - Comparable items on kids' and moms' wave questionnaires.

Table 2

N's by Wave and by Questionnaire

	Baseline	Wave 1	Wave 2	Wave 3	Wave 4	Wave 5	Total Wave
Kids	470	96	94	94	97	90	471
Moms	---	57	68	64	69	53	311



of the kids' data sets which had no corresponding moms' data (N=265; 78 with baseline only, 76 with kids' wave only, 101 with baseline and kids' wave), a comparison was made between kids-with-moms and kids-without-moms on a number of key demographics, and attitudinal and behavioral measures. Using analysis of variance to compare the two groups, no significant differences were found, and it was therefore deemed an unbiased move to exclude kids-without-moms data from the data set analyzed. This exclusion was done in order to maintain a consistent set of cases for all data analyses, including tests of relationships between moms' and kids' variables and tests of the proposed model as a whole.

Inasmuch as numerous measures of the pertinent conceptual variables were attempted, data reduction techniques were utilized to provide more managable sets of measures. Eleven indices were created for the moms' data, and sixteen kids' indices were formed. The construction of these indices was basically additive in nature: Conceptually congruent items were added in an unweighted fashion. While factor analysis was initially conducted on a few sets of variables, notably the 36-item checklist for shows kids watched, emergent factors were neither conceptually meaningful nor useful, and the less analytically complex but more conceptually consistent indices that were created reflect the decision not to utilize factor analysis for index construction.

The following sections outline the creation of the indices used in the data analysis.

Moms' Indices

Four indices of formal parental mediation, as reported by the mothers, were created. First, an index of lateness of children's TV watching (LATEPAR) was formed by adding school night TV curfew and weekend TV curfew (items 1 and 2, Appendix D). These two items were scaled in half-hour increments, 8:00 p.m. being assigned a value of 1 and 11:00 p.m. or later being assigned a value of 7. The second parental mediation index was an index of amount of rulemaking for children concerning TV viewing (RULESPAR). Two items were added: One item asked how many rules about watching TV the respondent felt children need, scaled from 0 for "none" to 4 for "very many," and one item asked whether the respondent made more (coded as 2), the same (1), or fewer (0) TV rules than other parents (items 3 and 4, Appendix D). Two additional parental mediation indices measured the number of TV shows prohibited for the respondent's child (NOPAR) and the number of TV shows the respondent encouraged her child to watch (YESPAR) (items 5 and 6, Appendix D). All four parental mediation indices were subsequently standardized and added (LATEPAR having been reversed) to form an overall index of level of formal parental mediation (MEDPAR).

An index of the respondent's perceived reality of television content (REALPAR) was created by adding five different reality items (items 7, 8, 9, 10, and 13, Appendix D). The individual questions asked how much TV characters, plots, and families are like reality on a scale from "not like real" (coded as 0) to "just like real" (coded as 4), and how often female and male characters are like real people on a scale from "never" (coded as 0) to "all the time" (coded as 4).

Similar items were included in an index of perceived antisocial TV content. Two individual items (11 and 12, Appendix D) asked how many TV programs show violent behavior and how many TV programs show helpful and sharing behavior, utilizing a scale from 0 for "none" to 4 for "all." The index (ANTIPAR) was created by subtracting the latter item from the former, thus creating a sort of "excess violent behavior" measure (i.e., a measure of how much one perceives violent content on TV as exceeding prosocial content on TV in terms of volume).

Perceived power of the viewership to change TV content was measured by two items: One asked how often the respondent could influence TV content and one asked how often TV producers make changes due to people's opinions (items 14 and 15, Appendix D). Both items were scaled from never (0) to very often (4), and the resultant index (CHANGPAR) was a summation of the two items.

The key variable of knowledge was measured in a set of

quiz-type items included in the moms' weekly insert. Each week of the five-wave survey, the inserted knowledge items attempted to tap knowledge of that week's radio program and newspaper article content (items 16 through 19, Appendix D). In Week 1, the insert contained six individual questions about the reality of television content. The insert in Week 2 contained four questions about antisocial and prosocial content on TV. Week 3's insert asked sixteen individual questions about sex roles on television. Week 4's insert included four items asking about family roles on TV, and Week 5's insert contained four separate knowledge items relating to means of public influence on TV content. Table 3 presents all knowledge items and the responses deemed correct for each, based on the material presented in the radio shows and newspaper articles, which in turn was based on Project CASTLE research findings.

The total knowledge scores for each week were standardized to make scores comparable across weeks. This standardized knowledge index was entitled KNOW.

An index of exposure to general mass media sources regarding the suitability of TV content (MMPAR) was created by adding affirmative responses to questions which asked the respondent if she had ever seen or heard "anything about what is or isn't suitable content for television," on TV, on the radio, or through reading (items 21, 22, and 23, Appendix D).

Awareness of and exposure to the specific media interventions (i.e., the radio shows and newspaper articles)

Table 3

Moms' Knowledge Items with Correct Responses

Week 1: Perceived Reality of TV

1. What is the percentage of characters on TV who are male? (more than 60%)

2-4. How often are these people seen on TV?
Scale: very often often sometimes almost never never
blacks (sometimes or almost never)
the elderly (almost never or never)
the handicapped (almost never or never)

5. How much of a child's free time is spent in front of TV? (3-5 hrs./day or more than 40% of his/her free time)

6. True or False: Television is seldom typical, natural, or realistic. (True)

Week 2: Anti-social and Pro-social TV Content

1. True or False: Young people who watch a lot of TV violence tend to be more aggressive. (True)

2. True or False: Young people who watch a lot of TV pro-social behavior are more likely to be positive in their relationships with other people. (True)

3. What kind of TV shows have the most violence in them? (Saturday morning shows or cartoons)

4. What does it mean to modify a child's TV diet of violence? (limit/restrict viewing, select shows for them, or set up rules)

Week 3: Sex Roles on TV

1-7. Which of the following characteristics describe the typical woman on TV?
youthful (yes)
attractive (yes)
unmarried (yes)
mature (no)
intelligent (no)
passive (yes)
stereotyped (yes)

Table 3 (cont'd.)

8-14. Which of the following characteristics describe the typical man on TV?

youthful	(no)
attractive	(yes)
unmarried	(no)
mature	(yes)
intelligent	(yes)
passive	(no)
stereotyped	(yes)

15. Can you think of an example of a woman on TV who is a counterstereotype (different from most TV women)? (correct counterstereotype, e.g., Ann Romano from One Day at a Time)

16. In the real world, what is the percentage of women in the labor or working force? (30% through 50%)

Week 4: Family Roles on TV

1. What is the percentage of females in TV shows that feature families? (50% through 65%)

2. Which description is more accurate for the way families are typically shown on TV? Families are small, featuring the "central" members, like the mother, father, and children (NUCLEAR) or families are large, featuring central members as well as extended family members such as grandparents, aunts, uncles, or cousins (EXTENDED). (Nuclear)

3. On what TV shows are families shown as being loud, rude, or sarcastic? (situation comedies)

4. On what TV shows are families shown as being patient, understanding, or loving? (family dramas)

Week 5: Means of Public Influence on TV Content

1. What is the most direct way a parent can influence what children might learn from TV? (control viewing or turn off the TV)

2. Do you know of any organizations that are active in trying to influence what is shown on TV? Can you name some of them? (number of correct organizations named, e.g., NEA, ACT)

Table 3 (cont'd.)

3. Do television stations and networks read their mail? (yes)

4. What percentage of people watching a TV show is considered a good rating? (30 through 40)

were also measured (items 22 and 23, Appendix D). An awareness index (AWARENESS) was created by combining those respondents who answered affirmatively to either of the two questions asking whether the respondent had heard of the radio show or of the newspaper article. An exposure index (EXPOPAR) was created by combining affirmative responses to either of the two items which asked if the respondent had listened to the radio show or read the newspaper article.

Descriptive statistics for the components of all moms' indices, including means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations, can be found in Appendix E. Cronbach's alpha and the standardized item alpha for reliability were computed for each set of items constituting an index. These alpha coefficients were found to range from .069 to .773, with those sets of items attempting to measure the same concept (e.g., perceived reality) generally achieving a higher reliability than those attempting to tap somewhat different concepts (e.g., exposure to radio, TV, and print sources of information concerning TV content and effects). The correlations obtained show validity for the method in which the indices were constructed.

Kids' Indices

A number of TV viewing preference indices were created from the kids' baseline questionnaire show list. Children were asked to circle the names of any TV shows which were their favorites, the ones they liked the best. They could also write in additional favorites. The 36-show checklist (page 1, Appendix B) of popular prime-time TV

shows was supplemented by four frequently written in shows: Fantasy Island, Little House on the Prairie, The Brady Bunch, and Soap.

A situation comedy viewing preference index (SCSHOW) was created by counting the number of endorsements for the 22 situation comedies listed or written in. An action-adventure viewing preference index (AASHOW) was created similarly by adding endorsements for the nine action-adventure shows. Endorsements for the five crime drama shows listed were added to form a third viewing preference index (CSHOW), and endorsements for the three family drama shows were added in a fourth index (FDSHOW). Endorsements for all shows were added to create a total viewing index (TOTSHOW), which included all shows comprising the four specific viewing indices as well as three endorsement possibilities not classified in any of the four: World of Disney, Other - specific title, and Other - general title.

An index of parent-child interaction (or informal mediation) regarding TV (TALK1KID) was formed by adding affirmative responses to three baseline questionnaire items (page 2, Appendix B) which asked if the child talked with the parents, if the parents asked the child questions about TV, or if the child asked the parents questions about TV while the child and the parents co-viewed.

As indicated in Table 1, many of the kids' wave and moms' wave questionnaire items were identical. Correspondingly, many of the kids' wave indices created were sim-

ilar or identical to the moms' indices. Four indices of formal parental mediation as reported by the children were created. An index of lateness of children's TV watching (LATEKID) was formed by adding school night TV curfew and weekend TV curfew (items 1 and 2, Appendix C). As with the moms' indices, these two items were scaled in half-hour increments, with 8:00 p.m. being given a score of 1 and 11:00 p.m. or later being given a score of 7. Amount of parental rulemaking as reported by the child (RULEPAR) was measured by only one item (item 3, Appendix C), which asked how many rules the child thought his/her parents made about what the child watched on TV. The item was scaled from 0 for "none" to 4 for "very many." Two additional parental mediation indices measured the number of TV shows the child was prohibited to watch (NOKID) and the number of TV shows the child was encouraged to watch (YESKID) (items 4 and 5, Appendix C). All four parental mediation indices were standardized and added (LATEKID having been reversed) to form an overall index of level of formal parental mediation as reported by the child (MEDKID).

An index of the child's perceived reality of television content (REALKID) was created in an identical manner to the moms' index REALPAR. Five reality items (items 6, 7, 8, 9, and 12, Appendix C) were used. An index of the child's perceived level of antisocial TV content (ANTIKID) was also created in an identical manner to the moms' index

ANTIPAR. Two items (items 10 and 11, Appendix C) were used.

The child's perceived power of the viewership to change TV content (CHANGKID) was measured by the addition of two items: One asked how often the child's parents could change what is shown on TV, and the other asked how often TV shows get changed because people don't like what they see (items 13 and 14, Appendix C). Both items were scaled from 0 for "never" to 4 for "very often."

An index of general exposure to mass media sources of information relating to the suitability of TV content (MMKID) was created by adding affirmative responses to questions which asked the child if he/she had ever seen or heard things about "what should or shouldn't be on TV" through reading, on TV, or on the radio (items 15, 17, and 18, Appendix C).

As with the moms, awareness of and exposure to the specific media interventions (i.e., the radio programs and newspaper articles) were also measured (items 20 and 21, Appendix C). The awareness index (AWAREKID) was created by combining affirmative responses to two questions which asked if the child knew that there was a "special radio show" and a "special story on Wednesdays" in the local paper about TV and children. The reported exposure index (EXPOKID) was created by combining affirmative responses to two questions asking the child if he/she had listened to the show or read the story.

One additional parental mediation index was derived from the information collected in the kids' wave questionnaire. This second index of parent-child interaction regarding TV attempted to measure such interaction as occurring "last night." Two questions were asked of children who had watched TV "last night": "Did you talk with your parents about what you saw?" and "Did your parents ask you questions about what you saw?" (items 19a and 19b, Appendix C) This "last night" interaction index (TALK2KID) was created by adding affirmative responses to these two questions.

Descriptive statistics for the components of all kids' indices, including means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations, can be found in Appendix E. In general, the correlations obtained show validity for the way in which the indices were constructed. The major exception is the index ANTIKID. The correlation between the two component items was only -.02, and the reliability coefficient was also quite small. This casts doubt upon this index as a measure of one dimension of perceived antisocial TV content.

A number of demographics were also measured. Mother's age was retained as originally measured in years. Number of children was also unrecoded, as was child's grade in school (4th or 6th). Mother's education was coded by level achieved: "Less than high school" was coded as 1, "high school grad" was coded as 2, "some college" as 3, "college grad" as 4, "some grad school" as 5, and "advanced degree"

as 6. Both mother's and father's occupations were coded into one of three socioeconomic categories: Professional/ management (e.g., doctor, lawyer, business manager) coded as highest with a 3, white collar (e.g., office worker, electrician, nurse's aide) coded as a 2, and blue collar (e.g., factory worker, waitress) coded as a 1. This scheme excluded such reported occupations as housewife, government worker, farmer, and unemployed.

Tables 4 and 5 provide enumerations of the moms' and kids' indices. Index names at the right appear also in Figure 2 and throughout the Results chapter. Figure 2 graphically depicts the model in terms of the actual indices. This figure may be compared directly with Figure 1 in Chapter 1; Figure 2 may be considered the operational version of Figure 1's conceptual model. Appendix E provides means and standard deviations for all indices.

Note that the operational model includes measures of parental mediation for both moms and kids. It is felt that parental mediation will impact on kids' viewing behavior and perceptions of TV only as it is perceived by the child. Parental mediation behaviors perceived by the child are the ones which operate on or impinge on the child. For example, if the parent reports that several TV shows are forbidden to the child, but the child reports that no shows are forbidden, the child may actually be unaware of any prohibitive rules and will behave and react accordingly. Thus, an additional step in the model -- the possible relationship between parental mediation as reported by the

Table 4

Indices, Moms' Questionnaire

Parental mediation regarding TV use (30 items, 5 indices*, items 1-6, Appendix D)	MEDPAR RULESPAR LATEPAR NOPAR YESPAR
Perceived reality of TV (5 items, items 7-10, 13, Appendix D)	REALPAR
Perceived anti-social content (2 items, items 11 and 12, Appendix D)	ANTIPAR
Perceived power of viewership to change TV content (2 items, items 14 and 15, Appendix D)	CHANGPAR
Knowledge of TV content and effects (4 to 16 items, depending on wave, items 16-19, Appendix D)	KNOW
Mass media exposure re suitability of TV content (3 items, items 21, 22, 23, Appendix D)	MMPAR
Awareness of radio show/newspaper article (2 items, items 22 and 23, Appendix D)	AWAREPAR
Exposure to radio show/newspaper article (2 items, items 22 and 23, Appendix D)	EXPOPAR
Demographics:	
number of kids	KIDS
does mother work	WORK
does mother work full or part time	FULL
mother's occupation	OCC
father's occupation	HUSOCC
education of mother	EDUC
age of mother	AGE

* - These five indices are: Number of rules, children's bedtime, shows prohibited, shows recommended, and total parental mediation.

Table 5

Indices, Kids' Questionnaires

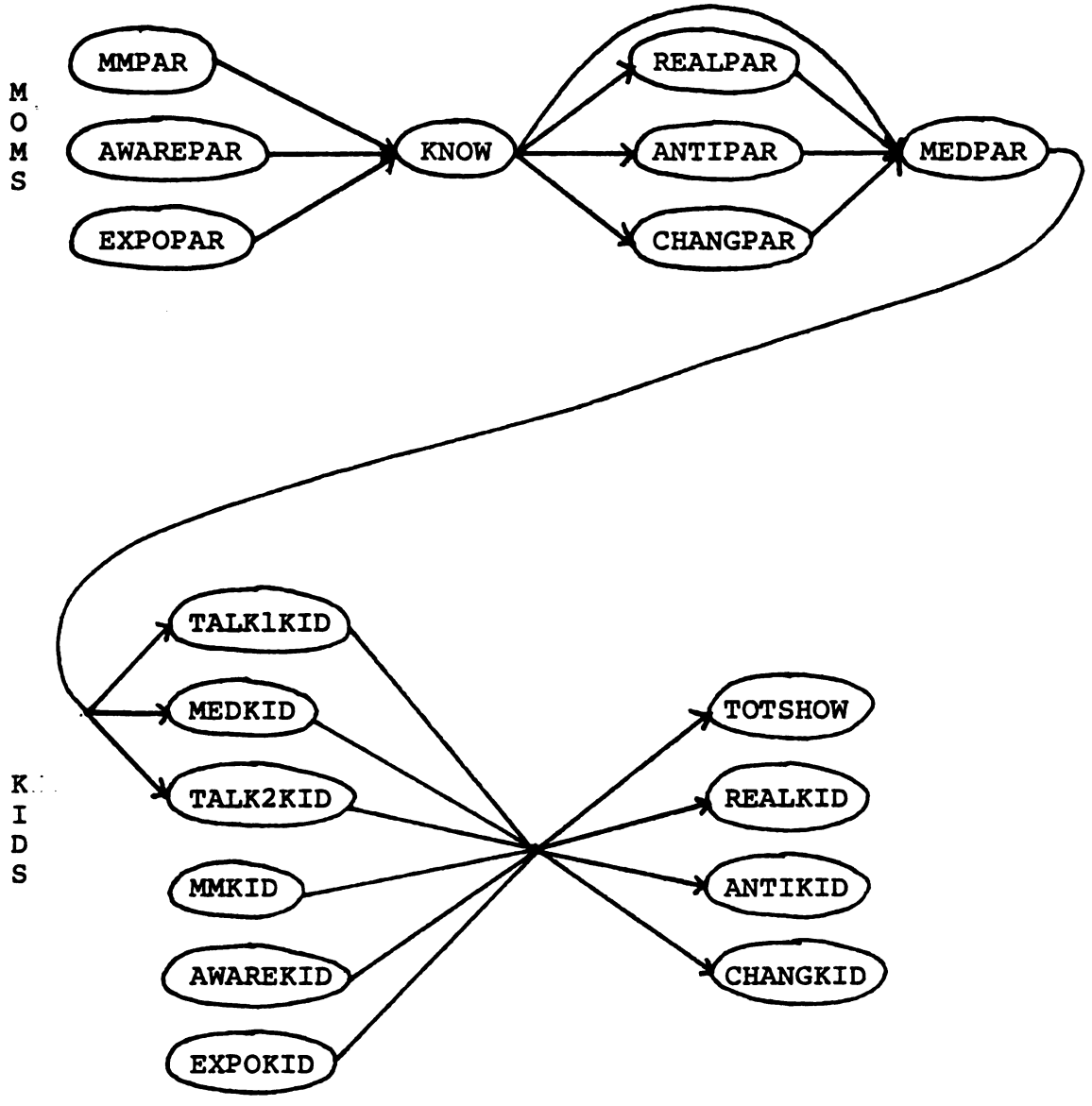
B A S E L I N E	TV shows watched (42 items, 5 indices*, page 1, Appendix B)	TOTSHOW SCSHOW AASHOW CSHOW FDSHOW
	Parent-child interaction regarding TV (3 items, page 2, Appendix B)	TALK1KID
W A V E	Parental mediation regarding TV use (26 items, 5 indices**, items 1-5, Appendix C)	MEDKID RULESKID LATEKID NOKID YESKID
	Perceived reality of TV (5 items, items 6-9, 12, Appendix C)	REALKID
	Perceived anti-social content (2 items, items 10 and 11, Appendix C)	ANTIKID
	Perceived power of viewership to change TV content (2 items, items 13 and 14, Appendix C)	CHANGKID
	Mass media exposure re suitability of TV content (3 items, items 15, 17, 18, Appendix C)	MMKID
	Parent-child interaction regarding TV ("last night")(2 items, items 19a and 19b, Appendix C)	TALK2KID
	Awareness of radio show/newspaper article (2 items, items 20 and 21, Appendix C)	AWAREKID
	Exposure to radio show/newspaper article (2 items, items 20 and 21, Appendix C)	EXPOKID
	Demographics: sex grade in school	 SEX GRADE

* - These five indices are: Viewing of situation comedies, viewing of action-adventure shows, viewing of crime shows, viewing of family dramas, and total viewing.

** - These five indices are: Number of rules, children's bedtime, shows prohibited, shows recommended, and total parental mediation.

Figure 2

Operational Model



NOTE: The "kids'" portion of the model is intended to show that all variables in the left column are related to all variables in the right column.

mother and parental mediation as reported by the child -- must be examined.

Tests of the individual hypotheses were conducted utilizing the computer program SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) (Nie, et al., 1975). Pearson correlation, multiple regression, and canonical correlation analyses were conducted.

The Samples

The children's sample is fairly evenly distributed with regard to grade and sex; 164 of the 311 children surveyed are fourth graders and 147 are sixth graders, 149 are female and 137 are male. The children on the average have 1.6 brothers and 1.5 sisters. Eighty-five percent live in the same household with their father, and 98% live in the same household with their mother. The 2% of the cases where the household did not contain the child's mother may be homes with a stepmother in residence: The child would thus answer that he/she does not live with his/her mother, yet a mother figure would be interviewed by telephone. While race was not measured in the survey, the population of the community in which the survey was conducted is racially very homogenous. The vast majority of the inhabitants are white. A small percentage (1%) are Hispanic-American and none are black.

The mothers' sample (N also of 311) has a mean age of 36 years and a median age of 35, with an age range from 25 years to 62 years of age. The modal mother in the sample

has a high school education: 16% have less than a high school diploma, 51% have graduated from high school, 22% have some college, 7% have a college degree, 1% have completed some graduate work, and 2% have an advanced degree. The mothers' sample has an average of 3.1 children each.

Fifty-five percent of the mothers work, 64% of those full time and 36% part-time. The most frequently reported occupations for the mothers are health care jobs (nurse, nurse's aide, orderly, etc.), factory or shop worker, and secretary or receptionist. The most frequently reported occupations for the fathers, as reported by the mothers, are factory or shop worker, and trade worker (electrician, welder, mechanic, etc.). It should be noted that the community in which the study was undertaken has a low per capita income, but an extremely wide range of incomes and socioeconomic stati. (The per capita income in 1970 was $3,278, as compared to a 1970 state-wide per capita income of $3,373. U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1973)

CHAPTER 3
RESULTS

Several types of findings and results will be reported: Key frequencies for the parental mediation measures, levels of awareness of and exposure to the media intervention, a comparison of mothers' and children's parallel and identical measures, tests of the formal hypotheses, and selected findings of conceptual interest.

Parental Mediation Measures

Most children report some parent-child interaction regarding TV, but this seems to more often take the form of child-initiated talk rather than parent-initiated discussion. Sixty-eight percent report talking with their parents about TV shows, 81% report asking their parents questions about TV shows, but only 48% report their parents asking them questions about TV shows. Less frequent is reporting of parent-child interaction regarding TV "last night." Seventy-nine percent of the children report watching TV last night: Of them, 35% report talking to their parents about what they saw and 31% report their parents asking them questions about what they saw.

Most children also report at least some formal parental mediation or rulemaking regarding TV viewing. While on Fridays and Saturdays 75% are allowed to watch TV past 11 p.m., during the school week the average TV curfew time is between 9:30 and 10 p.m. Only 15% report their parents

making no rules regarding TV watching, 49% report "a few" parental rules, 24% report "some" rules, and 12% report "many" or "very many" rules. Fifty-five percent of the children say that there are shows they are not allowed to watch. Forty-three percent say that there are shows their parents want them to watch.

Mothers report, in general, even more formal parental mediation or rulemaking than that reported by the children. Fifty-two percent report a Friday and Saturday curfew time of past 11 p.m., with an average curfew time of between 10 and 10:30 p.m. School night reported curfew is between 9 and 9:30 p.m. on the average. Only 3% report that their children need no rules about watching TV, 22% report a need for "a few" rules, 37% report a need for "some," 19% report a need for "many," and 20% report a need for "very many." When asked if they make more, fewer, or about the same number of rules about TV as other parents, 16% say fewer, 46% say about the same, and 38% say more. A full 78% indicate that there are TV shows they do not allow their child to watch, and 72% indicate that there are TV shows they encourage their child to watch.

Awareness of and Exposure to Media Intervention

It is apparent that the information dissemination attempted was fairly ineffective in reaching the intended audience. For the children, percent aware of the radio show, with aided recall, and percent reportedly exposed to

the shows were as follows for the five weeks:

Week	% Aware	N	% Exposed	N
1	19%	10	13%	7
2	12	8	5	3
3	14	8	9	5
4	13	8	10	6
5	24	11	16	7

In total, 28 children were reportedly exposed. These figures are expected to be inflationary for two reasons. First, the awareness measure was aided recall, which in other research consistently tends to exceed unaided recall figures. Secondly, the radio show was broadcast during school hours, so actual exposure would be expected to be minimal. While school absence rates in the schools surveyed seemed quite high, as indicated by a large discrepancy in subjects between the baseline data and the wave data collections, it seems unlikely that such absence from school could account for an exposure rate as high as 13%.

Awareness by the children of the newspaper articles, with aided recall, and exposure by the children to these articles, were as follows:

Week	% Aware	N	% Exposed	N
1	11%	6	9%	5
2	17	11	8	5
3	5	3	4	2
4	21	13	11	7
5	11	5	11	5

In total, 24 children were reportedly exposed.

Mothers' reported awareness and exposure patterns were generally quite different than those of the children. Aided recall showed the following levels for the radio programs:

Week	% Aware	N	% Exposed	N
1	13%	7	8%	5
2	16	9	1	1
3	17	10	13	7
4	8	5	5	3
5	12	5	7	3

In total, 19 mothers reported exposure to the radio series.

Awareness of and exposure to the newspaper articles were as follows for the mothers:

Week	% Aware	N	% Exposed	N
1	15%	8	8%	4
2	16	9	10	5
3	37	21	25	14
4	40	25	25	18
5	43	16	34	11

Overall, 25% of the mothers were aware of the newspaper articles, and 17% (N=52) reported to have read it at least once. Note that the awareness and exposure rates consistently grew as the five-week series of articles progressed.

In general, then, exposure levels to the media intervention were low to moderate, and especially low for the radio program. It is for this reason that analyses were not conducted comparing the five weeks, and awareness, exposure,

and knowledge items were collapsed across weeks. Reasons for the relatively low exposure to the information dissemination will be presented in the discussion section.

Among those mothers who were exposed to the radio shows or newspaper articles, high ratings on utility and other evaluative dimensions were given. Sixty-two percent of those exposed to the radio show (N=19) reponded "yes" when asked if the show was helpful. Thirty-eight percent said "somewhat," and none said "no." Similar findings were found for questions asking if the show was informative (77% yes, 23% somewhat), useful (62% yes, 38% somewhat), factual (77% yes, 23% somewhat), and realistic (62% yes, 38% somewhat). A lower rating was obtained for the question asking if the show was enjoyable (46% yes, 46% somewhat, 8% no).

When asked whether they had engaged in a number of informal parental mediation behaviors after listening to the show, 85% of the mothers said they talked with their child about what's on TV, 92% said they wondered how real the programs are, 100% said they talked with their child about how TV distorts reality, and 100% said they showed their child things that aren't real on TV.

Although a larger number of mothers reported exposure to the newspaper articles (N=52), the intervention in this medium received somewhat lower ratings on the evaluative items. Once again, the mothers were asked if the articles were helpful (49% yes, 43% somewhat, 8% no), informative (74% yes, 26% somewhat), useful (68% yes, 28% somewhat, 4%

no), enjoyable (56% yes, 40% somewhat, 4% no), factual (60% yes, 40% somewhat), and realistic (61% yes, 37% somewhat, 2% no). Eighty percent reported talking with their child about what's on TV after reading the article, with 76% reporting that they wondered how real programs are, 88% reporting that they talked with their child about how TV distorts reality, and 94% reporting that they showed their child things that aren't real on TV.

Low exposure by the mothers and children does not preclude further meaningful analysis and consideration of the model, as it is hypothesized that the crucial variable is parental knowledge, regardless of where that knowledge was gained.

Comparison of Mom-Kid Parallel and Identical Measures

While not hypothesized, the relationships between parallel and identical measures for mothers and their children were examined. As outlined in the first chapter, several earlier studies have specifically looked at the correspondence, or lack thereof, between parents' and children's reports of parental mediation. Those findings indicate fairly low but statistically significant levels of correspondence, with the parents reporting higher levels of parental mediation.

Table 6 shows the correlational comparisons for this study. Identical measures are those intended to measure the exact same concept, e.g., number of shows forbidden to

Table 6

Comparison of Mom-Kid Indices

N=311

	r	Mean for Kids	Mean for Moms
Identical Measures			
YESKID-YESPAR	.18**	.523	1.323
NOKID-NOPAR	.14**	.703	1.203
LATEKID-LATEPAR	.52**	10.866	9.502
RULESKID-RULESPAR	.20**		
MEDKID-MEDPAR	.40**		
Parallel Measures			
REALKID-REALPAR	-.01	11.290	8.078
ANTIKID-ANTIPAR	.16**	4.377	5.029
CHANGKID-CHANGPAR	.06	4.411	3.053
MMKID-MMPAR	-.04	1.311	1.547
AWAREKID-AWAREPAR	-.03	.228	.325
EXPOKID-EXPOPAR	-.05	.129	.206

* - $p<.05$

** - $p<.01$

NOTE: Identical measures are measures of the same phenomenon. Parallel measures represent the same phenomenon for mothers and children separately (e.g., moms' perceived reality vs. kids' perceived reality).

the child by the mother. Parallel measures are those measuring parallel concepts for mother and child, e.g., mother's perceived reality of TV and the child's perceived reality of TV.

The results of this comparison show that mothers and children are in fairly high agreement (as compared with the findings of previous works) as to estimated nightly TV curfews (r=.52) and overall levels of formal parental mediation (r=.40). The correlations for reported rulemaking (r=.20), number of shows prohibited (r=.14) and number of shows recommended (r=.18) are statistically significant but fairly small.

Table 6 also shows that the only parallel measures which seem to be systematically and linearly related are mothers' perceived antisocial TV content and children's perceived antisocial TV content (r=.16). The importance of this particular finding will be seen when the results for the tests of hypotheses are presented.

Tests of Hypotheses

Pearson correlation coefficients, canonical correlation coefficients, partial correlation coefficients, and regression coefficients were computed to test the stated hypotheses. The model will be worked through step-wise, examining each set of hypotheses in turn.

The independent variable of mass media exposure to sources of information about TV was hypothesized as leading to parental knowledge. General mass media exposure to these

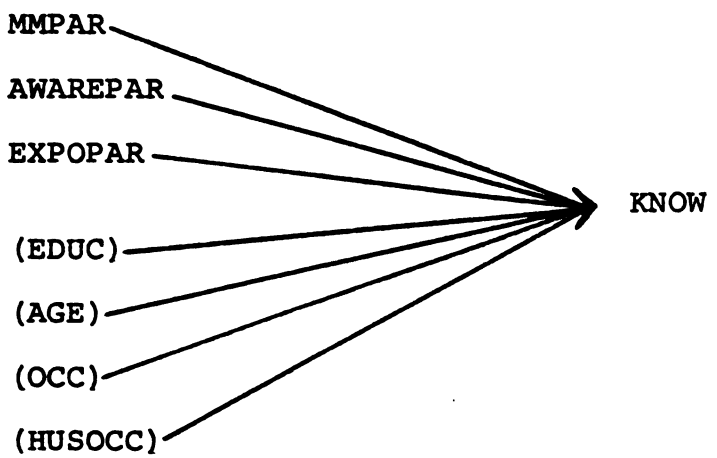
sources was supplemented in this study by measures of awareness of and exposure to the specific media intervention undertaken. Correlational analysis does not indicate support for the hypothesis that greater levels of these three variables are associated with greater knowledge. The correlations obtained are uniformly nonsignificant. Multiple regression analysis does not give support to the hypothesis either. Only 1% of the variance in knowledge is explained by the three media exposure items. Table 7 summarizes the simple correlational and regression analyses.

Several unhypothesized relationships of knowledge with demographic variables have also been examined. Mother's education, age, and occupation, and father's occupation are possible alternative predictors of knowledge. Correlations, as shown in Table 7, indicate only mother's education to be significantly related to knowledge. A multiple regression including these demographic antecedents explains more of the variance in knowledge (13%), but this is not statistically significant. Partial correlations of the three media exposure items with knowledge when controlling for various combinations of the demographics do not differ substantially from the zero order correlations.

The second set of relationships examined considers parental knowledge as related to parental perceived reality, parental perceived antisocial TV content, and parental perceived efficacy of the public. All four of these variables were also hypothesized as relating to amount of formal par-

Table 7

Predictors of Parental Knowledge



	r with KNOW	Partial r[a]	B[b]	Sig.	R	R^2	Sig.
MMPAR	-.07	-.05	-.094	.291	.12	.01	.420
AWAREPAR	-.04	-.04	-.210	.255			
EXPOPAR	.05	.04	.255	.240			
MMPAR			-.128	.561	.36	.13	.342
AWAREPAR			-.364	.307			
EXPOPAR			.299	.499			
EDUC	.13*		-.135	.328			
AGE	.03		-.013	.639			
OCC	-.11		-.728	.036			
HUSOCC	-.03		-.144	.647			

* - p<.05

** - p<.01

a - controlling for EDUC, AGE, OCC, HUSOCC

b - unstandardized

ental mediation.

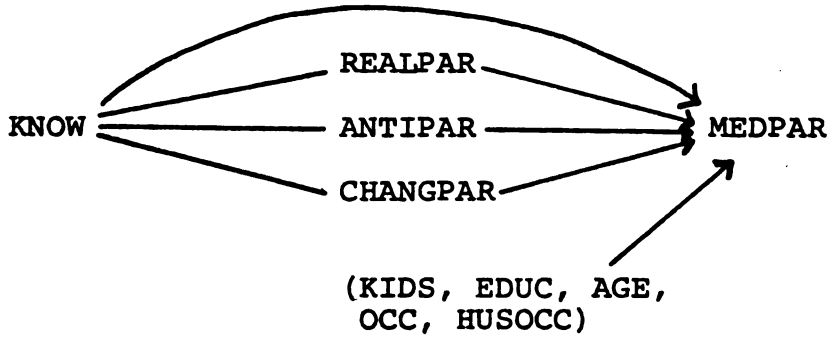
Table 8 shows the simple correlations and regression coefficients for this set of relationships. As can be seen from the correlations, the hypotheses do not seem to be supported, with the exception of those relationships involving parental perceived antisocial TV content. Amount of knowledge concerning TV content and effects is significantly and positively related to perceived antisocial TV content ($r=.18$, $p<.01$). And, perceived antisocial TV content is significantly linearly related to amount of formal parental mediation ($r=.12$, $p<.05$). Partialing for mother's education, age, occupation, father's occupation, and number of children in the family does decrease the significance of these correlations, but not greatly.

The multiple regression analysis conducted with parental mediation as the dependent variable does not reveal significant prediction by the four variables hypothesized. As Table 8 shows, only 3% of the variance in parental mediation is explained by these particular variables. And while none of the regression coefficients show statistical significance, perceived antisocial TV content comes the closest to being a significant predictor of parental mediation.

Multiple regression analysis including the demographic variables of mother's education, age, occupation, father's occupation, and number of children in the family does not result in a significant R either. While more variance is explained (16%), none of the regression coefficients are

Table 8

Parental Knowledge and Parental Mediation



	r with KNOW	Partial r[a]	r with MEDPAR	Partial r[a]	B[b]	Sig.	R	R^2	Sig.
KNOW	---	---	.09	.06	.291	.240	.18	.03	.151
REALPAR	.03	.03	-.07	-.03	-.097	.285			
ANTIPAR	.18**	.19*	.12*	.11	.384	.097			
CHANGPAR	.00	.02	.04	.08	.142	.320			
KNOW					.549	.360	.40	.16	.438
REALPAR					-.160	.204			
ANTIPAR					.732	.185			
CHANGPAR					.296	.443			
EDUC			.11*		-.010	.985			
AGE			-.12*		-.181	.145			
OCC			-.05		-.392	.786			
HUSOCC			-.19**		-1.243	.336			
KIDS			-.02		.294	.581			

* - p<.05

** - p<.01

a - controlling for EDUC, AGE, OCC, HUSOCC, KIDS

b - unstandardized

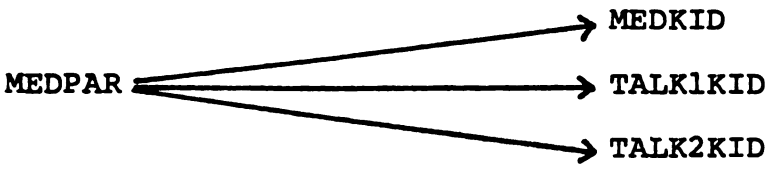
significant. Zero order correlations of parental mediation with the demographics do show some relationships, however. Mother's educational level is significantly and positively correlated with parental mediation. Mother's age and father's occupational level are both significantly and negatively correlated with parental mediation.

The third set of relationships indicated in the model predicts a positive correlation between formal parental mediation as reported by the mother and formal parental mediation as reported by the child, general verbal interaction with parents concerning TV as reported by the child, and such verbal interaction reported by the child as having occurred "last night." Table 9 shows zero order and partial correlations for these measures. As was reported earlier in the set of results for identical and parallel measures, the two corresponding formal parental mediation measures are fairly highly related in a linear fashion. The partial correlation controlling for mother's education, age, occupation, father's occupation, and child's grade in school is not substantially diminished.

Formal parental mediation as reported by the mothers is not highly related to the children's verbal interaction measures as was predicted. In fact, the resultant weak correlations are <u>negative</u> in direction. While this is not as expected, it does in fact lend support to the notion that formal parental mediation and informal mediation such as verbal discussion of TV content may actually be quite separate

Table 9

Parental Mediation as Reported by Kids and Moms



	r with MEDPAR	Partial r[a]
MEDKID	.40**	.37**
TALK1KID	-.01	-.01
TALK2KID	-.08	-.08

* - p<.05

** - p<.01

a - controlling for EDUC, AGE, OCC, HUSOCC, GRADE

behaviors brought about by quite different antecedents. An examination of the intercorrelations among all parental mediation subindices (formal and informal) for the children makes this even more clear (see Table 10). Included for comparison are intercorrelations among the formal parental mediation subindices for the mothers.

One may observe from Table 10 that all formal mediation measures for the children are closely related in a positive fashion (LATEKID having been reversed), but that informal discussion measures are generally negatively and more weakly related to these measures. The mothers' subindices for formal mediation also show consistent positive associations (LATEPAR having been reversed).

The fourth set of hypotheses deals with relationships among children's mass media exposure to sources of information concerning TV content and effects and parental mediation as reported by the child, and perceptions of television and TV viewing behavior. This complex set of interrelationships was examined with canonical correlation analysis, but none of the canonical correlation coefficients between the four resultant canonical variates were significant, as shown in Table 11. As a whole, then, the parental mediation and exposure measures are not significantly related to the ultimate dependent variables (TV perceptions and viewing habits).

Individual zero order correlations were also computed, as were partial correlations controlling for child's grade. Only those zero order correlations found to be statistically significant at $p<.05$ are presented in Table 11. The pattern

Table 10

Intercorrelations of Subindices for Parental Mediation

	NOKID	YESKID	RULESKID	LATEKID	TALK1KID
YESKID	.19**	1.0			
RULESKID	.24**	.17**	1.0		
LATEKID	.13*	.11*	.20**	1.0	
TALK1KID	-.14*	-.18*	-.16*	.01	1.0
TALK2KID	-.10	-.06	-.08	-.07	.32**

	NOPAR	YESPAR	RULESPAR
YESPAR	.32**	1.0	
RULESPAR	.22**	.19**	1.0
LATEPAR	.08	.06	.16**

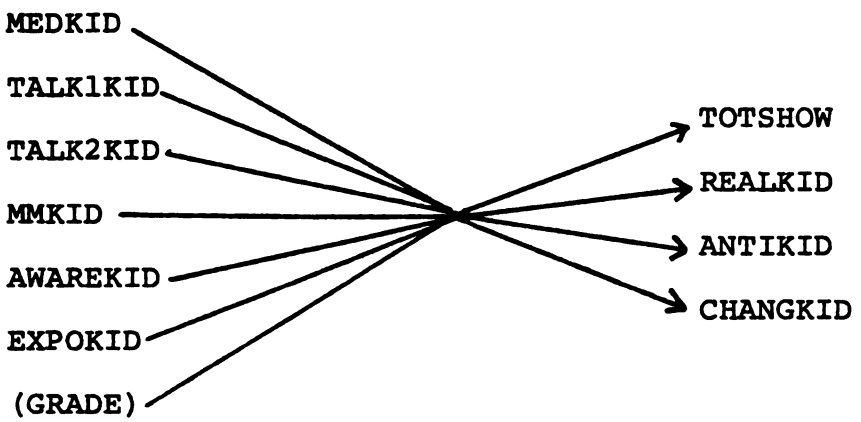
* - $p<.05$

** - $p<.01$

NOTE: The signs of LATEKID and LATEPAR have been changed to reflect their negative contribution to the main index in each case.

Table 11

Predictors of Kids' Perceptions and Behaviors



Canonical Correlations

Number	Eigenvalue	Canonical Corr.	χ^2 Sig.
1	.068	.260	.729
2	.036	.189	.855
3	.028	.169	.836
4	.001	.027	.991

NOTE: This portion of the model is intended to show that all variables in the left column are hypothesized to relate to all variables in the right column.

Table 11 (cont'd.)

	r	Partial r[a]
MEDKID WITH CHANGKID	.13*	.12
TALK1KID WITH ANTIKID	.14*	.14*
TALK2KID WITH ANTIKID	.17*	.15*
AWAREKID WITH ANTIKID	-.10*	-.08
EXPOKID WITH ANTIKID	-.17**	-.14*
GRADE WITH MEDKID	-.13*	
GRADE WITH TALK2KID	.17*	
GRADE WITH AWAREKID	-.15**	
GRADE WITH EXPOKID	-.23**	
GRADE WITH TOTSHOW	-.16**	
GRADE WITH ANTIKID	.14*	

* - p<.05

** - p<.01

a - controlling for GRADE

is clear: Informal verbal mediation and reported awareness of and exposure to the media intervention are linearly related to only the measure of perceptions of TV content as antisocial. Partialing for grade does diminish the correlations somewhat.

Child's grade does seem to be significantly related to a number of child's variables in this portion of the model. Sixth graders report less formal parental mediation, more verbal interaction with parents about TV "last night," less awareness and exposure to the media intervention, less overall viewing, and more belief that TV content is antisocial.

Multiple regressions were also computed for each dependent variable, and the results were uniformly nonsignificant. Thus, only slight support for the hypotheses tested in this section is indicated: Any strong linear link that does exist between the two sets of variables seems to operate through the antisocial perception variable.

Other Unhypothesized Findings

Zero order correlations among all indices and subindices were reviewed, showing several interesting but unhypothesized patterns. First, reported exposure by the mothers to the media intervention is significantly correlated with total formal parental mediation ($r=.11$, $p<.05$), children's awareness of the media intervention ($r=-.10$, $p<.05$), and children's exposure to the media intervention ($r=-.10$, $p<.05$). Those mothers exposed to the intervention are more likely to

engage in formal parental mediation behaviors and to have children unaware of and unexposed to the media intervention.

Apparently mothers' perceptions of TV content as antisocial are an important aspect of the parental mediation process. Not only is this variable significantly correlated with parental knowledge and formal parental mediation practices, but it is also negatively correlated with total TV viewing by the child ($r=-.16$, $p<.01$). This indicates some possible prohibition or simple concern evidenced on the part of mothers who see TV content as highly antisocial, resulting in low levels of TV preference reports by their children.

Another set of relationships which emerges from the correlational analyses involves type of TV viewing by the child. A number of formal parental mediation subindices (as reported by the child) are related to show type viewing. Number of shows recommended by the parent is positively related to viewing of family drama on TV ($r=.11$, $p<.05$). This is not surprising: It is possible that these are the particular shows being recommended. Lateness of TV curfew or "bedtime" is positively related to crime show viewing ($r=.15$, $p<.01$), situation comedy viewing ($r=.18$, $p<.01$), and total TV viewing ($r=.14$, $p<.05$). Again, this is not surprising: Most crime shows and some situation comedies are shown rather late in the evening.

Television viewing habits of the children are also related to certain perceptions of TV. Total TV viewing is correlated with perceived reality of the child ($r=.11$,

p<.05) and with perceived efficacy of the viewing public (r=.11, p<.05). Perceived reality is associated with two types of viewing in particular: Family drama (r=.11, p<.05) and action-adventure shows (r=.14, p<.05).

One must keep in mind that using a statistical significance cutoff of p<.05 would yield five significant correlations per 100 examined, by simple laws of probability. In the case of this analysis, however, many more than five percent of the correlations examined did show significance, and these significant correlations did show definite patterns, allowing greater confidence in attributing systematic relationships.

CHAPTER 4
CONCLUSION

Summary and Conclusions

Although most of the stated hypotheses were not supported by the data, at least some support was gained for those hypotheses including perceived antisocial TV content as a variable. The greater one's knowledge concerning TV content and effects, the greater one's perception of TV content as antisocial. The greater one's perception of TV content as antisocial, the more formal mediation parents report engaging in. And, the more formal parental mediation a child reports in his/her family, the greater his/her perception of TV content as antisocial. One additional link in the operational model not stated as an explicit hypothesis is the relationship between formal parental mediation as reported by the mother and formal parental mediation as reported by the child, and this does show a significant correlation.

Overall, then, if the hypothesized model is to be seen as operating in the predicted manner and direction, it apparently operates through perceived antisocial content. This finding is not entirely a surprise. As indicated in the opening pages of this thesis, the first issue to really raise the consciousness of the American people with regard to TV content and effects was precisely the issue of violence and its effects on children. Antisocial TV content is a highly salient and important issue to many parents,

and it is likely that it is also a major knowledge topic and source of formal mediation attempts. Mothers' perceptions of TV as antisocial are related to similar perceptions on the part of the children, indicating some type of interaction between mother and child along this antisocial TV dimension.

The sole area of the model which received no support whatsoever is that predicting a relationship between exposure to mass media sources of information regarding TV content and effects and parental knowledge. The failure of the media intervention to reach a large audience is surpassed only by its failure to impact significantly on the listeners' and readers' knowledge.

A number of possible reasons for the fairly low exposure levels for the intervention may be cited. First, virtually no supportive advance publicity for the shows and articles was attempted. Only one announcement appeared in the local newspaper, about one week before the first installment of the intervention. Secondly and most importantly, the placement and frequency of the radio and newspaper messages were inappropriate and insufficient. The radio program enjoyed only a single airing per week, and this was during a basic "beautiful music" time slot in the morning, rather than the more popular rock and pop music time period in the afternoon. The decision by the radio station to air the show during this time is consistent with the traditional (and economically motivated) practice of positioning public

service programming at less popular times. Unfortunately for this radio show, its placement precluded the reaching of many of the relatively young mothers.

While its single weekly appearance does not seem a problem, the newspaper article also suffered from poor placement. The articles were positioned in the editorial section each week. Being familiar with the local paper and the editorial policy of its management, it seems to me that although most people in the community do read the paper, many disagree with its editorial policy. I would expect that such placement would lend low credibility to the stories and imply that they were not factual content. Also, readership of the editorial page is expected to be low for this particular newspaper. A location in the local news pages might have resulted in higher readership.

In fact, this media intervention may not even truly be considered an information canpaign, and therefore has not been termed such throughout this thesis. Although the messages were designed to be moderately entertaining and relevant to parents, the "campaign" as a whole violated other canons of good information campaigns as outlined in the first chapter of this thesis. No preliminary studies were conducted to establish goals, audience parameters, or message strategies. And there is no valid method of evaluating the impact of exposure, since a pre-exposure knowledge measure was not taken. For example, perhaps those exposed were initially less knowledgable than average and they did

learn significantly, but this did not result in higher than average knowledge levels. Without a pre-measure, evaluating such an explanation is difficult. Also, the inherent lack of random assignment in a study of this nature prohibits unequivocable comparability of those exposed and unexposed, and also prohibits exclusion of alternate explanations for any differences found.

Limitations

Before examining some the implications raised by this study, the limitations of the research should be noted. While the sampling was random for the particular community and well executed, it excluded blacks, allowing no racial comparisons. And, generalizability to other fourth and sixth graders is hampered by the idiosyncratic nature of the community studied and high levels of school absences during the data collection period. Additionally, the external validity for the mothers suffers even more greatly from no-answers and refusals to the telephone interviews. Those mothers who were reached and consented are probably not typical nor representative of all mothers in the community.

Problems of measurement pose the most outstanding limitation to the study. Occasional poor or indecisive wording in the questionnaires may have led to large variations in interpretation by the subjects, threatening the internal validity of the study. Levels of measurement are quite possibly insufficient in several cases. Those items measuring perceived reality, perceived antisocial content, per-

ceived efficacy of the viewership, occupation, and education involved scaling which is suspect as to level of measurement. Since all statistical tests used assume intervality of measures, it is important to consider that the verbal categories used for these items may not conceptually correspond to numerical values used for scaling purposes. However, this is not a rare nor an easily resolved problem: It is quite possible that even if the respondents had been presented with numerical values as response categories, they would not perceive the scale as consisting of equal intervals.

This is, of course, not a defense of the possibly inadequate measures used, but a recognition of the problems in attempting to measure perceptions and attitudes in particular. One may not simply observe and "count up" perceptions; one must (in this study) rely on the self report of the respondents, which is always subject to individual interpretational differences. As this study is self-report, the validity of all measures is suspect.

The statistical tests used also assume unboundedness of the scale used (e.g., correlation, regression). While index construction did create greater ranges on the measures, unboundedness is not met by many of the indices. Only a few -- those counting shows recommended, shows prohibited, and show types viewed -- are theoretically unbounded. Even these measures are actually bounded by the number of TV shows on the air.

Multicollinearity poses a problem in the areas of the model dealing with awareness of and exposure to the media intervention. While not completely multicollinear, these measures are correlated (r=.58). This poses no problem for the examination of individual bivariate relationships, and it was in a bivariate sense that these two measures were positioned in the model, but multiple regressions including these measures as independent variables may result in unstable or unreliable regression coefficients. Any further analysis of revised versions of the model should take this into account.

Alternative methods for index construction must of course be considered. This thesis has opted for simple additive combinations of conceptually related and congruent items. Factor analysis gives a second choice, but there is no guarantee that emergent factors or loadings will reflect the dimensions or weightings the researcher conceptually desires to represent. Miller (1977) astutely point out that traditional methods of discerning underlying factors are based on somewhat arbitrary mathematical criteria. For example, when factors of children's TV viewing emerge, they are based not only on general content preferences, but also on such variables as time of broadcast, proximity to other programs, network, and channel strength (p. 7).

As with most studies in the realm of communication research and the area of social science in general, no

causality is inferred from the relationships found. At least one of the three canons of causality was not established in this study -- that of time ordering. This study also examined linear associations only. A further step would be to look for unhypothesized nonlinear relationships that might exist among the variables.

Finally, the results of the study must of course be interpreted in terms of the variables as conceptualized and operationalized. For example, in this study, parental mediation was viewed as being of two types: Formal parental mediation or rulemaking, and informal mediation or parent-child interaction. The results of this study may not be directly compared with the results of studies utilizing a different conceptual and/or operational definition of parental mediation.

Implications

Recognizing these limitations, any efforts to test the model with alternative methods should consider incorporating the following points:

1. Better measures, i.e., scales which are more probably interval or ratio, could quite easily be used, although as recognized above, how such scales are interpreted or perceived by the respondents is often an entirely different matter.
2. Identical measures of parent-child verbal interaction as reported by the mothers should be

included. This is an obvious oversight of this study.

3. Measures of attitudes or perceptions concerning other highly salient or important TV issues should be made, in as much as TV violence seemed to play a significant part in this study's findings. One other highly salient issue at the present time is that of sexual content on TV.
4. Other studies have found that basic parenting practices may be very important in the parental mediation process. Measurement of these practices is therefore desirable, as is the measurement of other alternative variables for explaining parental mediation.

Several practical and heuristic implications of the study seem worthy of explication. First and foremost, the results of this study indicate that increasing parental knowledge may be at least partially effective in changing perceptions of TV as more antisocial, and these changed perceptions may result in more formal parental mediation behavior. Such parental mediation may result in changed perceptions of TV (as more antisocial) on the part of the child. It seems that knowledge of TV content and effects may indicate a sensitization that is felt in one's perceptions, behaviors, and one's children's perceptions. This sensitization may be more likely to occur with regard to highly salient TV issues, such as sexual and violent content.

Programs to increase parental knowledge concerning TV content and effects should perhaps be undertaken with this in mind: Parents may only pay attention to and act on information that is seen as quite important to them (e.g., most parents know about and recognize the effects of violence on children, but effects of such things as family roles may not be quite so perceptible, believable, or important).

Also, the conceptually distinct dimensions of formal parental mediation and informal mediation did emerge in this study as quite separate phenomena. Further research could examine such a distinction more closely. Measurement of overall parenting strategies could allow examination of the possibility that these two types of mediation may be reflections of such general parenting strategies. It is expected that both high socio-oriented and high concept-oriented parents would exhibit formal mediation behaviors, but that these behaviors might be implemented differentially, with high concept-oriented parents being more concrete in their rulemaking. It is expected that high concept-oriented parents would exhibit more informal mediation than high socio-oriented (only) parents, in a concrete and situation-specific manner. It is recommended that further research examine these possibilities.

Further evaluation of the model in a revised form is in order. From the evidence presented here, it seems that a number of variables should be dropped from the model or

repositioned. Exposure to mass media sources of information concerning TV content and effects was unrelated to parental knowledge. This indicates that either mothers obtain their information from other sources, such as interpersonal contacts or formal schooling (and while education was significantly correlated with knowledge, it is unlikely that formal schooling at the time these mothers attended included such content), or the measures of exposure attempted were not valid in terms of the variable as conceptualized. Mothers were asked if they had ever heard things on the radio, seen things on TV, or read things about TV effects. Self-report of this type of information may not adequately tap actual exposure; the mothers may have forgotten such exposure, never actually perceived such exposure, or not wished to report such exposure. Alternate measures of exposure are recommended for further testing of the model, as are measures of alternate sources of information.

Knowledge was related to only one of the three perceptual variables measured, that of perceived antisocial TV content. As indicated earlier, for any revision of the model for retesting, it is recommended that this single perceptual variable be retained and supplemented by other attitudinal and perceptual variables that are high in public salience (e.g., perceived sexual TV content). Alternate measurement techniques are proposed as more suitable for measuring attitudes and perceptions on an interval or ratio level. Metric multidimensional scaling is especially promising in

light of its capacity to "map" concepts in conceptual space.

Parental mediation as reported by the mothers and parental mediation as reported by the children were related as expected. Further efforts should examine the distinction between formal and informal mediation activities, as there was some support in this study for such a distinction.

The same problems exist for children as for the mothers with respect to measurement of exposure to mass media sources of information concerning TV content and effects. Alternate measures of exposure and measures of alternate sources of information are recommended for further testing of the model. And finally, children's reports of parental mediation were found to be related only to children's perceptions of TV content as antisocial. As with the mothers, it is recommended that this single perceptual variable be retained and supplemented by other highly salient perceptual variables.

Reworking and retesting of the model is encouraged, to further our knowledge in the area of parental knowledge and parental mediation. Applications to other areas of scientific inquiry may also be considered. First, mediation of children's behavior is not limited to parent-child relationships nor to children's TV behavior. For example, teachers attempt to interpret textbook content for pupils. Second, mediation of many types of messages may occur for people of all ages. For example, a teenager may verbally interpret parental commands for a peer, a boss may set

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APPENDIX A

RADIO SCRIPTS & NEWSPAPER ARTICLES

CHILDREN AND SOCIAL TELEVISION LEARNING
Funded by the U.S. Office of Child Development

APPENDIX A

RADIO SCRIPTS & NEWSPAPER ARTICLES

"KIDS AND TV"

SCRIPT #1

MUSIC UP

Welcome to "Kids and TV", a program about what is on TV, what effects television content may have on children, and what we as parents can do to mediate our children's television viewing.

MUSIC OUT

This is the first in a series of programs developed by Project CASTLE at the Department of Communication, Michigan State University. Project CASTLE is a three year research program funded by the U. S. Office of Child Development.

Since 1975, Project CASTLE has been engaged in active research into television's effects on children. We have interviewed thousands of children, parents, and teachers. We have analyzed three seasons of prime-time and Saturday morning television. Now in the third year of the project, we are taking this opportunity to share with you some of the project's findings.

In this first program we will examine the concept of children's perceived reality of television. In other words, do children see television as reflecting reality, and what effects could this have on children?

A3

MUSIC UP

Producers of TV news shows actually try to describe events the way they really are. An effort is made at objectivity and fairness. Still, think about the times you have seen some event yourself, perhaps a meeting, an accident, or a festival, which was later reported on television. Was the report on TV the way you actually remembered the event? There were probably at least some minor differences, since television news reporters are usually not able to include all of the details concerning an event. So while TV news producers try very hard to describe things the way they really happen, some discrepancies are bound to occur.

MUSIC OUT

MUSIC UP

When we talk about fictional TV shows, however, producers usually do not even claim that they are trying to show things the way they really are. Prime-time situation-comedies, dramas and adventure shows are largely fictional. They feature characters who do not really exist. In addition, large numbers of the situations which occur on these shows are also fictional.

MUSIC OUT

The fact is that a lot of people, especially children, believe in TV as a representation of the way things are in the real world. They may believe that the Bionic Man really exists, and white children watching a show like "Good Times" may believe that most, if not all, black

families live under such conditions, existing on welfare. The best example, though, is the way toys are advertised on television. Children will see a toy that looks big, and colorful, and does amazing things on TV, but when they get it home it just is not the same.

Television certainly does not "tell it like it is". Let's look at the way men and women are depected on most television shows. CASTLE looked at characters on dozens of TV shows and found that 75% of all TV characters were male. Studies have shown that the important people on television are predominantly male, white, unmarried, middle class, and in an age range from 20 to 40 years. What is more important is the roles these people tend to play.

Males are generally portrayed as being more powerful, smarter, more rational and stable, more active and independent. Think of Kojak or Fonzie as the type of male character television is showing us. Women, on the other hand, are likely to be more sociable, warmer, happier, more peaceful and more dependent in the television roles. Edith Bunker in "All in the Family" or Mrs. Cunningham on "Happy Days" are good examples.

Most working women on TV are nurses, school teachers, or secretaries. On TV men are often shown driving cars,

using guns, talking business on the phone, and active in sports. Women, however, are more typically shown making and serving food, talking on the phone for social reasons, being driven places by men, and spending much time on personal grooming activities. Many of these descriptions are not true pictures of the world in which we live, but viewers come to believe that they are.

Minority groups in the U.S. also appear on TV shows, although not in large numbers. Black characters on TV are frequently restricted to playing roles of lower class people holding low paying jobs. For many viewers, especially white children, that is the way they begin to think about black people in real life.

Very few people over the age of 60 are shown on TV series. Those that are shown are generally irritable, impatient, and verbally aggressive. Very few handicapped people have appeared regularly on TV shows. In the real world, however, there are many more handicapped people. But one would not think so if one depended on TV characters as examples, and many people do.

All of this tells us that television shows often describe people, situations and events in ways that are not typical, natural or realistic. This in itself is not a bad thing. After all, authors and playwrites have been doing this for centuries. But what must also be considered is the perception of reality that people, especially children, have

when viewing television. Unlike the printed word, television is so widespread that the vast majority of our children watch it regularly.

MUSIC UP

Have you ever thought about the number of hours your child spends watching television on a school day? It has been found that the average child in the fourth, fifth, or sixth grade watches TV about 3 hours each school day, and more on weekends. If the child spends 7 hours at school, and another 8 to 9 hours sleeping, then more than one third of the child's free time is spent in front of the TV screen. Of the time the child has to eat, dress, do homework, play with friends and do things with family members, television viewing takes up a major chunk. Some children, of course, watch TV much more than three hours a day, and the time they have left for other activities is even more drastically reduced.

MUSIC OUT

With so much exposure to TV content, do children grow up believing that what is possible on TV is possible in real life? Does TV shape children's perceptions about life? We spoke with grade school children from the Lansing area, asking them if they think most of what they see on TV could happen in real life.

TAPE INSERT A

Some of the children we spoke to were old enough to realize that most of TV's content is fictional, but could remember a time not too long ago when they perceived television as real. Some expressed the idea that they thought certain television characters were real.

TAPE INSERT B

Other children we interviewed expressed the idea that when they were younger, they were somewhat confused about how television and radio shows were produced.

TAPE INSERT C

The grade school children we spoke with generally expressed concern with the perceived reality of television and its effect upon young children.

TAPE INSERT D

One effect of a child's perceived reality of television is its impact on the child's social behavior. In a study conducted by Project CASTLE, two different types of perceived reality were identified -- perceived reality of pro-social behaviors such as helping others, being affectionate, and expressing feelings, and perceived reality of anti-social behaviors such as violence, verbal aggression, and lying. In the study, it was found that children who had a high perceived reality of pro-social behaviors were more likely to engage in such pro-social behaviors themselves and less likely to engage in anti-social behaviors. This tells us that a child's belief in

the reality of television may not be such a bad thing — if he believes in the pro-social behaviors seen rather than the anti-social ones.

MUSIC UP

However, even if a child believes only in the good things on television, there can be a problem. The more a child perceives television as real, the greater chance of being disillusioned when the child eventually finds out his heroes or favorite shows are fictional. Many of the children we spoke with expressed great disappointment with regard to finding out these things.

What can we as parents and teachers do to help reduce the problems of perceived reality for children? The most important thing is to become aware that it exists, If we realize that TV <u>may</u> be misleading to youngsters, we will try not to let them be misled. And, we should try to be aware of what our children think they are learning about "<u>real life</u>" from the TV shows they watch. Television is a major source of information for children about the way people act in different situations. We should recognize this fact and take an active role in determining our children's viewing habits. This includes discussing television content with our children, guiding them to watch certain types of shows, and viewing shows <u>with</u> the children to assure our own awareness of what they are watching.

MUSIC OUT

In the next show, "Kids and TV" will examine the possible effects of anti-social television content upon children.

MUSIC UP Effects of such things as physical violence and verbal aggression will be looked at. Also, we will examine the possible effects of such pro-social TV content as helping, sharing and expressing feelings.

Thank you for joining us. This has been "Kids and TV". I'm Mike Sawicki.

MUSIC OUT

CHILDREN AND SOCIAL TELEVISION LEARNING
Funded by the U.S. Office of Child Development

"KIDS AND TV"

SCRIPT #2

All

MUSIC UP

Welcome to "Kids and TV", a program about what's on TV, what effects TV content may have on children, and what we as parents can do to mediate our children's television viewing.

MUSIC OUT

This is a second in a series of programs developed by Project CASTLE at the Department of Communication, Michigan State University. Project CASTLE is a three-year research funded by the U. S. Office of Child Development.

In this second program we will examine the concepts of pro-social and anti-social behavior on television. We shall explore the types of behaviors which are found on TV, as well as the possible effects that exposure to these behaviors might have on children.

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The average child in the fourth, fifth, or sixth grade watches TV about 3 hours each school day, and more on weekends. Why do young people watch so much television? One of the major reasons is because the shows are exciting in some way. A television show may make a child laugh, or cry, or get a little scared. A major way that TV producers make their shows exciting is by including lots of action. "Action" often takes the form of anti-social behaviors.

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Anti-social behaviors are acts which might injure another person, either physically or psychologically. There are three main types of anti-social behavior as shown on television. Physical aggression, or "violence", as it is often referred to, includes the use of fire-arms, knives and other weapons, as well as such things as pushing, shoving and hitting. Physical aggression occurs quite frequently on television, and major concern about "violence on television" has been expressed by the public and various groups in recent years. A fistfight on "Quincy", a knife attack on "Starsky and Hutch", and a fire bombing on "Kojak" are all examples of TV physical aggression.

The second type of anti-social behavior which occurs on TV is verbal aggression, which includes acts such as rejection, threats, and verbal hostility. Verbal aggression also occurs quite frequently on TV. A typical example of verbal aggression would be Archie Bunker's harassment of his wife, Edith.

A third type of anti-social TV behavior is deceit, which includes lying and cheating.

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How often do such anti-social actions occur on TV? For the past three years, Project CASTLE has analyzed the content of each regular prime-time and Saturday morning

television show. We have found that on the average, for every hour of TV programming, 41 anti-social acts occur. Fourteen of these acts are physical aggression, 23 of them are verbal aggression, and 4 are deceit. These figures are "per hour", so the average child watching three hours of television a day would be exposed to approximately 12 acts of deceit, 42 acts of physical aggression, and 69 acts of verbal aggression each day. This is quite a heavy diet of anti-social behavior, and exposure to such a degree may have effects upon children's own attitudes and behaviors. Of special concern is the fact that anti-social acts occur most frequently on Saturday morning children's shows!

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Television does show a large number of pro-social behaviors as well as anti-social ones. Pro-social behaviors are the set of actions which are generally accepted by society as constructive, appropriate and legal. Four general types of pro-social behaviors are shown on TV. First is altruism, concern for the welfare of others. Altruism often involves helping or sharing. An example of altruism on TV would be Grandma Walton going out of her way to prepare a special lunch for her grandson who is sick.

Showing affection is a second type of pro-social behavior on television. Pa Ingalls on "Little House on

the Prairie"hugging and kissing his daughter goodnight would be a good example of showing affection.

The third type of pro-social behavior on TV is expressing feelings of others. An example of this type of behavior occurred recently on "Police Woman". Pepper Anderson explained to woman both how and why the woman's boyfriend was acting as he did.

Fourthly, expressing feelings of self is also considered to be a pro-social behavior. An example of this would be Olivia Walton explaining why she is upset about her son's involvement with a group of musicians.

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Project CASTLE has also looked at how often pro-social behaviors occur on TV. We have found that on the average, pro-social behaviors occur slightly more often than do anti-social behaviors. In an average hour of television, 41 anti-social acts will occur, while 43 pro-social acts will occur. For every hour a child watches TV, he will be exposed to approximately 13 acts of altruism, 8 acts of affection, 10 acts of expressing feelings of others, and 13 acts of expressing feelings of self. Pro-social actions occur most often on early-evening TV shows, between 8:00 and 9:00 in the evening. And, it is important for parents to note that just as Saturday morning shows contain the greatest amount of anti-social behavior, they also contain the least

amount of pro-social behaviors! In fact, Saturday morning is the only time period in which anti-social acts consistently outnumber pro-social acts.

As you can see, each time a child watches TV, he or she is exposed to a large number of acts, both pro-social and anti-social. What are the effects on children of viewing such behaviors? For one thing, children have definite ideas about what they see on TV, and why they watch what they do. We spoke with grade school children from Owosso, asking them why they enjoy shows that contain a lot of action.

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We also asked the children if they thought there was a lot of physical aggression, or violence, on TV.

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The children were also able to identify a lot of verbal aggression, or yelling, on TV.

TAPE INSERT C

We also asked the children if they saw much pro-social behavior on TV.

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Most of the children we spoke with were unable to identify much pro-social behavior, such as helping or sharing, on TV. This is especially surprising in light

of the fact that pro-social acts generally outnumber anti-social acts on television. We should, therefore, take much care in identifying possible effects of anti-social TV content on children. Project CASTLE has spent a great deal of time studying such effects.

Of the anti-social behaviors shown on TV, physical aggression shows a definite impact upon children's attitudes and behaviors. Young people who watch a lot of televised physical aggression tend to think differently about the use of violence, and they also behave somewhat differently. They tend to think that acting violently is an acceptable way of behaving. They think violence is more effective in solving problems. And they are more tolerant of the use of violence by others. Young people who watch a lot of TV violence are also more likely to be more aggressive themselves — in their play with other children, in their behaviors toward brothers and sisters, and in their behaviors with adults.

On the positive side, exposure to pro-social behaviors on TV tends to have some positive effects upon children's attitudes and behaviors. Children who view a lot of televised pro-social behavior tend to be more positive in relationships with other people. They are more helpful and cooperative. They also share things with other

people more often. A large body of research supports the idea that a child can learn pro-social behaviors by watching television characters demonstrating those behaviors.

Also, watching pro-social behaviors on TV reduces the amount of anti-social behavior that the child himself exhibits.

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What can we as parents and teachers do to reduce the effects of anti-social actions on TV and to enhance the effects of pro-social actions?

First of all, we should be aware of the distinction between pro-social and anti-social behaviors and increase our awareness of what shows are mainly pro-social and what shows are mainly anti-social. Secondly, we should suggest pro-social family shows such as the "Waltons" and "Little House on the Prairie". Watching these shows with our children will increase the desirability of watching them. Another thing we should do is to point out pro-social actions within shows which are mainly anti-social. We should stress the pro-social as being more important.

One very important thing parents should be aware of is the fact that TV often distorts the reality of violence.

Characters on television get shot or stabbed, while no blood is shown. Children often come to believe that this is the way violence really occurs — neatly and quietly. We should make our children aware that real violence can have terrible results — more so than is shown on TV.

Another topic parents should discuss with their children is the justification for violence as shown on TV. Sometimes violence is shown to be necessary. But often violence is unnecessary and unjustified. We should discuss this with our children. We should also discuss other ways the characters on TV could handle a situation, other than using violence.

MUSIC OUT

One additional point is worth mentioning. Television is a major source of information for our children. But they do have other sources of information - - teachers, friends, and especially parents. If hitting or yelling is considered appropriate in a child's school or family setting, it will be considered more appropriate on TV also.

In the next show, "Kids and TV" will examine the portrayal of women on television, as well as the way in

MUSIC UP

which men are represented. We will look at differences in the way the two sexes are shown on TV and at possible

effects of these differences on children's learning and perception.

Thank you for joining us. This has been "Kids and TV". I'm Mike Sawicki.

MUSIC OUT

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CHILDREN AND SOCIAL TELEVISION LEARNING
Funded by the U.S. Office of Child Development

"KIDS AND TV"

SCRIPT #3

MUSIC UP

Welcome to "Kids and TV", a program about what's on TV, what effects TV may have on children, and what parents can do to mediate their children's television viewing.

MUSIC OUT

This is the third in a series of programs developed by Project CASTLE at the Department of Communication, Michigan State University. Project CASTLE is a three-year research project funded by the U. S. Office of Child Development.

In this third program we will discuss how women and men are portrayed on TV. We will examine how these portrayals differ, and whether such differences have effects on our children's attitudes and beliefs.

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Some say that television is a reflection of the society in which it exists. This is true in many respects, but sometimes television is "delayed", and represents society the way it was several years ago. Often, of course, TV does not represent our society at all, but rather some producer's <u>idea</u> of what society is like, or <u>should</u> be like.

Despite the long history of the women's movement in America, most changes aimed at promoting the equality of

women have been slow in coming. On television, the changes have been even slower to arrive. Research has shown that TV is still very stereotyped in its portrayal of women and men. A stereotype is a way of showing something that is constant, polarized, and homogeneous. Portrayals of men and women on TV are more or less constant - - such portrayals have not changed very much in recent years.

Portrayals of men and women on TV are also polarized - - men are shown as being the opposite of women in many respects. And, portrayals of both sexes on TV are generally homogeneous - - most men tend to act and look similar, and most women seem to act and look similar also.

MUSIC OUT

How, then, are the sexes stereotyped on TV? Television men outnumber TV women three to one and are generally older than women on TV. The typical TV woman is a youthful married woman with children. The typical TV man is a mature, single male. Approximately one out of every three TV women holds a job, while about three out of four men on TV have jobs. Women are more likely to work in the home or be clerks and secretaries. Men are more likely to hold managerial or professional positions.

Women and men on television are also stereotyped with regard to their personalities. Men on TV are independent,

dominant, strong, intelligent, violent, rational, and active. Kojak, Baretta and Fonzie would be examples of this type of male character. Women on TV are quite the opposite - - dependent, submissive, weak, unintelligent, peaceful, emotional and passive. Chrissy on "Three's Company" and most of the women on "Love Boat" and "Fantasy Island" exhibit these characteristics.

MUSIC UP

From these examples, it is seen that not just women on TV are stereotyped; men are also given a fixed image. These images, or sex roles, are generally reinforced on on television. For instance, males are rewarded for being dominant by having their orders carried out. Females are reinforced for being submissive, by being ordered by males, and by <u>not</u> having their own orders carried out. In the old "Brady Bunch" series, the Brady girls were regularly praised for achievements in cooking and sewing, while the Brady boys were rewarded for activities such as baseball, carpentry work and science projects. Young people seeing such reinforcement on TV will be likely to identify with characters of their own sex and may model or copy what these characters do.

MUSIC OUT

What effects can such identification and modeling have on young people growing up? First of all, children often come to believe that the way people behave on TV is the "correct" way to behave. They often see TV as a true representation of real life.

In an informal poll, we spoke with grade school children from Owosso, asking them various questions about the way women and men are shown on TV. We first asked the children whether they think men or women are shown more frequently on television.

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We then asked the children if they feel that the women shown on TV are typical or like women in real life.

TAPE INSERT B

The children also told us whether they feel that men on TV are similar to men in real life.

TAPE INSERT C

Another topic we discussed with the children was the occupational roles men and women play on TV. The youngsters were generally unable to identify typical female jobs on TV. They were not at a loss for words, however, when asked what kinds of jobs men do on TV.

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How do the representations of men and women differ on TV? The kids we spoke with had a number of ideas about this - - with regard to different responsibilities, roles and characteristics of men and women.

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Finally, we asked the children to name female characters and male characters on TV whom they especially like and to tell us why they like them. Once again, the children were generally unable to come up with any female characters. They did, however, name a number of favorite male characters. The reasons why the children like these characters are interesting - - they are mainly in terms of physical attributes and strength.

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In all, the children gave us responses which correspond closely with our idea of stereotypes on TV. Women are seen as weaker, less active, and restricted in the jobs they hold. Men are seen as strong, holding a variety of jobs, and as people who should be admired.

So far, we have discussed sex role stereotypes as exaggerated versions of the traditional male and female roles. Sometimes, however, a character appears who is not stereotypically male or stereotypically female. He or she "breaks the mold" so to speak. Such an exception to the usual male or female character is called a counterstereotype.

MUSIC UP

Current examples of female counterstereotypes include Maria and Julia and "On Our Own" and Ann Cooper on

"One Day at a Time". What makes these women so unusual is the simple fact that they are working, single, independent, and do not depend on men. Jaimie Sommers on the "Bionic Woman" and "Wonder Woman" are also female counterstereotypes. They are shown as being strong, active, dominant and independent - - typical male characteristics.

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Male counterstereotypes occur less often on TV than do female counterstereotypes. They include characters such as Hawkeye Pierce on "M.A.S.H." Hawkeye openly shows emotion and generally does not use force or violence to solve problems. Gabe Kotter on "Welcome Back Kotter" is a teacher - - a typically female job on TV. And Quincy is also counterstereotypical - - he is not good looking, he gets into trouble which he can't always handle, and he rarely uses force.

MUSIC OUT

Studies with grade school and junior high children have shown that exposure to counterstereotypes reduces stereotyped expectations about men and women. It reduces the polarization, or great differences, between the sexes in the eyes of children. Exposure to counterstereotypes also reduces the homogeneity, or similarity of people of one sex, that the child perceives.

Thus, the child is able to see each character as an individual, who does not have to embody all the typical male or female characteristics. The counterstereotype provides the child with an alternative source of information for learning about sex roles.

Parents can aid in this learning process in several ways. First, we could suggest shows to our children which have counterstereotypic characters. This will provide the child with a diversity or variety of sex role models. We can point out specific TV characters who have desirable counterstereotypic attributes.

Secondly, we can discuss with our children the traditional ways that men and women are shown on TV. We can talk about whether women always do such things, and whether men always do such things. For example, most women on TV remain in the home. However, in real life 60 percent of all women work outside the home at least part time. We should make sure our children realize that the "typical" TV representation of men and women does not reflect the many different kinds of men and women there are in real life.

Thirdly, we should encourage our children's awareness of counterstereotypes in order to broaden their aspirations and expectations. A young girl may never have thought of becoming a policewoman until seeing Pepper

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CHILDREN AND SOCIAL TELEVISION LEARNING
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"KIDS AND TV"

SCRIPT #4

A30

MUSIC UP

Welcome to "Kids and TV", a program about what's on TV, what effects TV may have on children, and what parents can do to influence their children's television viewing.

MUSIC OUT

This is a fourth in a series of programs developed by Project CASTLE at the Department of Communication, Michigan State University. Project CASTLE is a three-year research project funded by the U. S. Office of Child Development.

In this program, we will discuss the ways families are portrayed on television. We will look at what TV families are like, how these TV families may influence children's ideas about families in real life, and what parents can do to help their children learn about families from television.

MUSIC UP

There is a saying these days that the American family is dying, that "broken" families have become so common that it will one day be a rarity for children to have an entire family. For the present, however, the American family is still quite strong. This is reflected in the way families are shown on TV. Slightly over 50% of all TV shows contain families. And as we shall see, TV families consist mainly of central family

members, and TV families often engage in a large number of pro-social behaviors; for example, helping others and showing affection.

Unlike the rest of television, shows featuring families tend to contain equal numbers of males and females. This provides children with female models in greater numbers than are found on other shows. However, these female family members are often shown in a stereotyped way.

MUSIC UP

Almost all the family roles shown on TV are nuclear roles, for example, mother, father, son and daughter. Virtually no grandparents, aunts or uncles, or cousins appear as members of TV families. This tends to focus the child's attention on the central or nuclear family providing little information to the child about these other family members.

The most common type of interaction among TV family members is affiliation - - things such as helping, sharing information, answering questions, and cooperating. Acts of affiliation outnumber acts of conflict 7 to 1 in TV families.

MUSIC OUT

Television families with only one parent are common. This is usually the result of the death of one of the

parents, and not divorce. This provides children with certain information about how one-parent families function. Seeing one-parent families on TV may encourage a child to speculate about what his family would do with only a mother or only a father. It may also provide information for children who have only one parent about how to deal with their family.

Couples with no children are also very common on television. In fact, children and teenagers make up only a very small proportion of TV family members. Children may question the worth of the child's role in a family in comparison to the parent's role. It also may give the impression that adult family members are important, whereas children are not.

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There are, however, strong exceptions to the "childless couple". Consider "One Day at a Time" - - a very popular situation comedy about a divorced mother raising two teen-age children. This show features the children prominently. It also presents a counterstereotyped image of the mother because she is a working mother. And, it shows a one-parent family as a successful, functioning family.

Other family shows such as "Little House on the Prairie" and "The Waltons" also feature children prominently. The children on these shows provide models of generally

good behavior and pro-social activities. These shows portray families with problems that are usually resolved with patience, understanding and love. Parent-child hostility is rarely shown.

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Not all TV families, however, get along so well. Situation comedies, which often have families as central units, consist mainly of adults and tend to contain a high degree of verbal aggression - - yelling, insults, verbal attacks and the like. "All in the Family", "Maude" and "The Jeffersons" are particularly high in verbal aggression. Regular viewing of such situation comedies could lead children to believe that family members are loud, rude and sarcastic.

What exactly do children think of families and family members they see on TV? We talked with children from Owosso about what they see family members doing on TV and how this compares with the way family members act in real life. We first asked the kids what mothers on TV do.

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The children were then asked what mothers in real life do that is similar to actions of mothers on TV.

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We were also interested in finding out what the children see fathers doing on TV.

TAPE INSERT C

Once again, we asked the children to compare the fathers on TV with the fathers they see in real life.

TAPE INSERT D

The children were also asked how brothers and sisters act on TV.

TAPE INSERT E

These ideas were compared with the way the children see brothers and sisters behaving in real life.

TAPE INSERT F

Learning about family roles from TV is especially important; unlike many other kinds of information on television, information about family roles can be put to use by the child in his own family. Research shows that children do use TV as a source of information about family interaction. And particularly important are the types of shows that the child views.

Watching situation comedies which are high in verbal aggression leads many children to believe that family members are hostile toward one another. Although much of the verbal aggression on these shows is done in jest,

On the other hand, watching such family shows as "The Waltons" and "Little House on the Prairie" may lead the child to believe that family problems may be solved through love, patience and cooperation.

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What actions should parents take to aid their children's learning from family shows? Basically, parents can be aware of the fact that learning about families from TV does occur. Taking this in mind, parents can guide children to view pro-social family shows. Research has shown that such guidance increases the child's belief that real-life families are helpful, cooperative and affiliative. On the other hand, a child who is not guided to watch pro-social family shows tends to think real-life families do a lot of fighting, or at least ignoring of one another.

MUSIC OUT

What a parent tells a child about family roles can make a difference. The child who participates in regular conversations and activities with his parents tends to see most families as pro-social, no matter what kind of families he watches on TV. Also, the child who receives information from his parents about what it's like to be a parent tends to see real-life families as cooperative and close. This is true, once again, no matter what families the child sees on TV.

On our next show, "Kids and TV" will focus on what

MUSIC UP we as citizens can do to influence what gets on TV. We will examine what steps to take to make your opinions known and what role we play as consumers of television.

Thank you for joining us. This has been "Kids and TV". I'm Mike Sawicki.

MUSIC OUT

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CHILDREN AND SOCIAL TELEVISION LEARNING
Funded by the U.S. Office of Child Development

"KIDS AND TV"

SCRIPT #5

A38

MUSIC UP

Welcome to "Kids and TV", a program about what's on TV, what effects TV may have on children, and what parents can do to influence their children's television viewing.

MUSIC OUT

This is the fifth in a series of programs developed by Project CASTLE at the Department of Communication, Michigan State University. Project CASTLE is a three-year research project funded by the U. S. Office of Child Development.

MUSIC UP

Throughout the "Kids and TV" series, we have discussed various types of television content and what effects this content has on children. We have looked at how TV represents the world and have noted that children often believe that what they see is real. We have seen that violence and other anti-social actions can have a detrimental effect upon young people, but that pro-social TV content can have a positive effect. "Kids and TV" has also explored the way in which men and women are shown on TV, and we've concluded that TV is still stereotyping both men and women. There are very few counterstereotypes, such as Wonder Woman and Gabe Kotter, to give children a wider range of people to observe on TV.

And, "Kids and TV" has looked at families on TV - - how TV represents the American family as still strong and positive. TV families show children much about how family members should behave.

MUSIC OUT

There is much on TV, then, which influences children greatly in a number of different ways. TV is a major source of information for American children. But how is television content determined? How do TV networks decide what goes on TV and what gets taken off? One major way in which networks make such decisions is through ratings - - the much talked about indicators of success or failure on TV.

For television, the company that conducts most national ratings is A. C. Nielsen. Nielsen randomly selects 2400 homes to be "Nielsen homes". A Nielsen home is given a diary to fill out, reporting who watches what TV shows. An additional 1200 homes are given an audimeter, a "black box" which sits on the television and electronically records when the TV is on and what channel it's tuned to. The audimeter then sends this information through phone lines to Nielsen's central computer. In this way, "overnight" ratings are produced.

A Nielsen home will remain a Nielsen home for three years. During this time, Nielsen will have collected

156 weekly diaries from the home - - a lot of data about how an American family uses television.

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But what <u>is</u> a rating - - what does it represent? A TV show's rating is the percent of homes <u>with</u> TV that are tuned to that show. So a rating of around 30 may be considered very good. It means that 30% of all American homes that have TV are tuned to that particular show, and 98% of all American homes do have TV. High ratings are the television industry's report of success.

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As you can see, if Nielsen uses less than 4000 homes to represent all American homes with TV, we as average American citizens have little direct effect on TV programming. However, we do have several ways to try and create indirect effects.

First, there are economic considerations. The sales of a product are a measurable way of determining whether a commercial message has had an effect upon the buying public. A company tries to place its commercials in shows that its potential customers will want to watch. We turn this to our advantage when we find a television show we find objectionable. We should list the companies which show commercials during this program and let the companies know how we feel about the program. While these companies have no direct control over the content

of a particular show, they do have the option not to advertise on that show. This may put pressure on the networks to alter the content of TV shows.

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Another way that we may indirectly affect TV content is through various government and academic studies. Project CASTLE at MSU is one of a number of groups and institutions doing research on the effects of TV content on children.

Voluntary participation in such a study, if you are asked, makes your opinion known to an agency which will disseminate the information to the government and networks. You remain anonymous, but the opinion you express becomes known.

MUSIC OUT

Much concern has been expressed in the last few years about TV and its effects on children. But what do children themselves think about television and its possible effects? In a recent informal poll, we talked with Owosso area children, asking them first to describe things on TV that they don't think should be on because of the effects it might have on young children.

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The children were also asked if there are things on TV that bother them or make them upset. The kids had a variety of responses to this.

TAPE INSERT B

We then asked the children what kinds of things on TV they would like to see less of, and what they would like to see more of.

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MUSIC UP

How can the average viewer be heard and have a more direct effect on the content of TV shows he and his family watch? One first step is to contact the local station. You are their audience and they <u>are</u> concerned about your opinion. Even a short letter expressing your ideas will not go unnoticed. And, be certain to let the station know not only when you see a program that you object to but also when you see a show that is exceptionally good. Contacting the local station may not result in immediate changes, but, once again, your opinion will be heard.

MUSIC OUT

Another step is to write the network which airs the objectionable, or the excellent, show. Networks <u>do</u> read their mail. Once again, one letter might not cause changes, but a large number of letters may.

Networks want to please their audience and will stop airing things that a large number of people find unacceptable.

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So far, we have discussed various ways the public may influence what goes on TV. One final effort to become even more involved is to work with, or join, a citizens' group concerned with TV and children. Local PTA's and PTO's often take a stand with regard to certain TV programming and make their influence known on a wide scale.

Action for Children's Television is an organization which works for better programming for children. A.C.T. operates out of Newtonville, Massachusetts, but its members include residents of all 50 states.

MUSIC OUT

In this, our final show, "Kids and TV" would like you to know that Project CASTLE is more than happy to provide any further information you may want or need. Copies of scripts from these broadcasts are available on request. Addresses of all groups and organizations mentioned on this program are available. Project CASTLE also has reports of its research on children and TV available for you to have. Simply write to Project CASTLE, Department of Communication, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 48824.

One final note - kids are concerned with what they watch, and are interested in how TV programming decisions are made.

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The series "Kids and TV" has been produced by Project

MUSIC UP CASTLE at Michigan State University. Producers of this series are Kim Neuendorf and Mike Sawicki. Special thanks to Dr. Bradley Greenberg and the CASTLE staff members who contributed so much to the making of this series.

Thank you for joining us. This has been "Kids and TV". I'm Mike Sawicki.

MUSIC OUT

Children and the Tube

Wednesday, May 10, 1978

The Real World and TV

(First in a series of five)

This article is the first in a series of five prepared by Robert Abelman and Kim Neuendorf of Michigan State University in cooperation with The Argus-Press. It has been written for those who have children and for those who are concerned about children. The articles are about the impact of television programs and television viewing on children. The information offered in these articles is based on years of university research.

Each article has two main parts. In the first part, we will discuss why children watch TV, the amount of time spent watching and the possible effects of their watching. In the second part, we will offer information as to the role parents and concerned readers may take to influence the possible effects of TV on children.

Our series will touch on such topics as violence on television, the use of alcohol and drugs by TV characters, the role of the family unit in television programming, the impact of advertising and today's topic, a look at television's portrayal of the real world. We will concentrate on two distinct types of programs — news programs and fictional shows such as crime-detective stories, soap operas, situation comedies, as well as advertising.

Producers of TV news shows actually try to describe events the way they really are. Nevertheless, think of the times you saw some event yourself, perhaps an important meeting, or an accident which was later reported on the news. Was the report on TV the way you actually remember the event? Television tends to distort what really happens. TV viewers are watching an event as seen and reported by someone else — someone with his/her own idea of what happened. And here we are talking about the type of TV show where the producers try hard to describe the actual events as they really happen. When we move to dramatic shows, TV producers don't even claim that they are trying to show things the way they really are. These shows are largely fictional and meant to entertain.

The problem is that many TV viewers, and especially the young ones, tend to believe that what they see on TV is actually the way things are in the real world. For example, have you ever bought your child a toy which was asked for because it was advertised on TV? Was your child disappointed? When they get the real thing, they often realize that it's not like they thought it would be — the real thing is smaller, or harder to do or stops working.

Because television is in the home — where a person is most relaxed — there appears to be little need to doubt the truth or accuracy of what is on television. Certainly no one would knowingly allow something that would have a bad influence on their children into their homes. Television doesn't always "tell it like it is," and this can have a negative affect on children.

Let's look at the way men and women are shown on most TV shows. We looked at people in dozens of TV shows and found that 75 percent of all TV characters were males. In the real world it is about half and half. Men are generally portrayed as being more powerful and smarter, more rational and stable, more active and independent. Think of Kojak and Fonzie and the way they are portrayed. Women, in contrast, are usually shown as more sociable, warmer, happier, more peaceful and dependent. Just think of Edith Bunker on All in the Family or Mrs. Cunningham on Happy Days of examples of this type of woman. Many of these descriptions are not true pictures of the people in the world in which we live, but viewers come to believe that they are.

Minority groups in the U.S. also appear on TV shows, although not in large numbers. Most black characters on TV are most frequently restricted to playing roles of lower class people holding low paying jobs, when in fact many blacks do not fit this description. For many viewers, especially white children, that is the way they begin to think about black people in real life.

Very few people over age 60 are shown on TV series. Those shown are generally irritable, impatient and verbally aggressive. Surely not all elderly people are like that. Very few handicapped people have appeared regularly on TV shows. In the real world, however, there are, unfortunately, many more handicapped people. But we would not think so if one depended on TV characters and TV programs, and many people do.

All this tells us that television shows describe people, situations and events in ways that are seldom typical, natural or realistic. Still, many of us often tend to believe that this "TV world" is the way things are in the real world. Children grow up believing that women can't do many things that they actually can do; they believe that all illnesses can have rapid cures from doctors; they grow up without being aware of the ugliness and brutality of many violent acts because these acts are most often shown without their consequences, and they tend to believe what they hear and see in commercials.

What can we, as parents and concerned readers, do to help with this problem? The important thing is to become aware that it exists. If we know that TV is likely to be misleading, we will try to avoid being misled and letting others be misled. We will question the things we see on TV and more often we'll ask "is it really like we see it on TV?" Most importantly, we can be more aware about what our children think they're learning about "real life" from the TV shows they watch. Then we can decide if what our children are picking up is what we want them to learn. Once we are aware of the problem, we can make our children aware of it.

To become more aware of the influence of television on our children, continue to look for these articles in the editorial section, every Wednesday, for the next four weeks.

Next week: Violence on TV

Children and the tube

Wednesday, May 17, 1978

Violence on TV

(Second in a series of five)

This article is the second in a series of five, prepared by Robert Abelman and Kim Neuendorf of Michigan State University in cooperation with The Argus-Press, about the impact of television programs and television viewing on children. This segment is a discussion of why children watch TV, the amount of time spent watching and the possible effect of what they watch. It looks at whether the violent content of certain TV programs has negative effects on young people, and offers information as to the role parents and concerned readers may take to influence the possible effects of TV.

Have you ever thought about the number of hours your child spends watching television on a school day? The average child in the fourth, fifth or sixth grades watches TV about three hours each school day, and more on weekends. If the child spends about seven hours at school, and another eight or nine hours sleeping, then more than one-third of the child's free time is spent in front of the TV screen. Of the time the child has to eat, dress, do homework, play with friends and do things with family members, television viewing is a major activity. Some children watch TV more than three hours each day, and the time they have left for other activities, especially interacting with family and friends, is even more drastically reduced.

Why do young people watch so much television? One of the most popular reasons is because they find the stories exciting. Television producers make their shows exciting by including lots of action and action often takes the form of violence...fights and shoot-outs are common.

What are the effects of watching a lot of TV violence on young people? There is a large body of evidence which supports the following conclusion: Watching television violence generally increases a viewer's tendencies to be aggressive, in anti-social ways.

Young people who watch a lot of televised violence think differently about the use of violence, and they also behave differently. They tend to think that being violent is a more OK way of behaving; they think it is more effective; they are more tolerant of the use of violence by others.

You as a parent know the most about your own child's responses. How do your children act after watching violence on television? Are they more aggressive? Are they harder to get along with? Do they argue or fight with brothers and sisters? If your answer to some of these is "Yes," your child is no exception. Most of the studies done in the past 15 years have shown that heavy viewing of TV violence is likely to lead to more aggressive, anti-social behaviors in children. This is particularly so when the child believes that that kind of behavior will be successful in getting what is wanted, and that getting caught or getting punished is not likely.

Of course, not all children react the same way, but the general tendency toward negative behavior exists. Sometimes it happens soon after such shows are seen, and sometimes the aggressive tendency can persist over several years, influenced by the amount of television violence viewed as a youngster, on a steady, regular, daily basis.

Violence does not dominate TV programming, however. For every show with violence there are certainly shows which exhibit friendly, positive behavior among people. Broadcasters are trying to put these shows on TV at times when the most children are watching. Recent studies on television and children also support the following idea: Watching positive social behaviors on television increases a viewer's tendencies to be positive in relationships with other people.

So, in much the same way that children can learn behaviors from certain programs which emphasize violence, or stealing or lying, those same children can learn from other available programs how to get along with other people in more positive ways. In other words, watching pro-social programs increases the viewer's tendency to be helpful, cooperative, show affection and share things with others.

Can we influence what our children watch on TV? Parents can and should take an active role in their children's TV viewing habits. One possible way to reduce the chance of our children being negatively affected by televised violence is by trying to modify their TV "diet," by reducing the number of heavily violent shows they watch. A second way is by guiding the young viewer to shows which have more positive behaviors in them, more acts of helping, sharing or cooperating. Both ways will reduce the child's intake of violent content and possibly reduce their total consumption of television as well, leaving them more time for other activities.

Next week: Men and women as portrayed on TV

Children and the tube

Wednesday,
May 24, 1978

Unreal people on TV

(Third in a series of five)

This article is the third in a series of five, prepared By Robert Abelman and Kim Neuendorf of Michigan State University in cooperation with The Argus-Press, about the impact of television programs and television viewing on children.

This presentation compares television's fictional portrayal of men and women; their physical appearances, the jobs they hold and the roles they play. It is a discussion of the possible effects of an inaccurate portrayal of men and women on young viewers and offers information as to the role parents and concerned readers may take to influence their children's perceptions of what they see on TV.

While women make up slightly more than half the general population of the United States, only 25 percent of all fictional TV characters are females. Although underrepresented in total number, women tend to be overrepresented in the 20-34 age group. Mature and aging women are rarely seen in major roles on TV. The typical TV woman is a young adult at the peak of her attractiveness. She is, or has been, married and is most often a mother.

Most commonly found in the situation-comedy or family drama, the TV woman is typically seen making or serving food, carrying out household chores, talking on the phone for social reasons, being driven places by men and spending much of her time on personal grooming activities. Think about Rhoda and Alice and the way they are portrayed.

In contrast, the typical TV man is more "mature" in age, though still at the peak of his attractiveness. Dominating most of the leading roles on TV, he is most obvious in TV crime and action shows. The TV male is very often shown driving cars, using guns and violence, talking business on the phone and active in sports. Think about Kojak and Jim Rockford.

Is this the way most men and women behave in the real world? Many of these descriptions are not accurate, but many young viewers come to believe what they see on television. This tends to distort their expectations of adults and promote a false picture of how they are to behave when they get older.

Occupations of men and women have also been portrayed in stereotypically unrealistic ways on TV. Compared to the actual labor force, high paying, higher status jobs are overrepresented and women's roles in these jobs are underrepresented. On TV, most women are likely to be limited to in-home, housewife functions or clerical jobs, while men are very likely to be professionals or managers. Actually, women make up 41 percent of the labor force and most working men do not occupy such authority positions. Television information could distort a child's employment expectations and aspirations.

The stereotyped and limited personality traits and jobs of men and women on television are reinforced by other TV characters. For example, the girls in "The Brady Bunch" are regularly praised for achievements in cooking and sewing. The Brady boys are rewarded for engaging in such activities as baseball, carpentry and science projects. Mrs. Brady and the maid, Alice, are often commended on the care of the house and children, while Mr. Brady is acknowledged and appreciated as the reliable breadwinner and concerned citizen. Certainly, in real life, people are able to adequately perform different and more diverse functions...and still get rewarded.

Why be concerned with whether television's portrayal of men and women is realistic or representative? It is important to know what kinds of impressions young viewers get from what they see on television. Viewers may develop values and beliefs based on the limited scope of occupations and personalities men and women have on television. Although supported by television, these beliefs are inconsistent with the real world. Stereotypes and prejudices may develop, supported by TV programming.

How children perceive television and television characters can be influenced by parents and concerned readers. We can suggest TV programs which present counterstereotypes, shows where the male and female characters have different characteristics or occupations from most TV characters. This will provide children with a diversity of role models. We can point out those specific TV characters who have desirable counterstereotypic roles and traits.

We can also discuss with our children the traditional male and female roles shown on TV. We can identify whether people actually act that way. By exposing children to counterstereotypes and discussing what is an accurate or inaccurate portrayal of men and women on television, children may obtain more realistic information. They will not be surprised to find that people and things in real life do not always conform to the ways they are presented on television.

Next week: The family portrait

Children and the tube

Wednesday,
May 31, 1978

The family portrait

(Fourth in a Series of Five)

This article is the fourth in a series of five prepared by Robert Abelman and Kimberly Neuendorf of Michigan State University in cooperation with thThe Argus-Press, about the impact of television programs and television viewing on children.

In this article we will examine television's portrayal of that most precious of American institutions — the family. We will look at the information about family life availavailable on TV, discuss how that information might influence children's perceptions of their own families and offer information as to how parents and concerned readers might influence their children's perceptions of what they see on TV.

For almost all children, their first experience with families are with their own and with those of their friends. Yet, at a preschool age, children begin to experience and observe the many families that are on TV. In the afternoon, children may watch "The Brady Bunch," "Partridge Family," or "My Three Sons." In the early evenings, "The Waltons," "Eight Is Enough," and "Little House on the Prairie" are popular. What do young viewers learn about the family and family members by watching these shows? What information about family roles (responsibilities and functions) is available to the child? How do the hours of watching TV families and the information obtained from that compare with the observations and information from the child's own family?

We looked at dozens of TV programs over the past three years and found that, unlike the rest of the TV shows, programs featuring families contained an equal number of male and female characters. In shows not featuring families, males outnumber females five to one. Almost all of the family members portrayed were members of the immediate, nuclear family. They played mothers, fathers, wives, husbands, sons, daughters, sisters and brothers. There were relatively few grandmothers, grandfathers, aunts, uncles or cousins portrayed. What this tells us is that, although boys and girls are presented with an equal number of TV characters portraying male and female roles, these roles are limited to the immediate family. Children may see how different mother/father, husband/wife, son/daughter, brother/sister characters behave and act with each other, but they do not see how other their role in the family is or should be. TV provides little in behave or what relatives. Over the years, the American family has become more and more immediate with fewer relatives being actively involved in family life. Television reinforces the smaller family circle.

Couples with no children are very common on TV, presenting an even smaller family lifestyle to its viewers. In fact, pre-teens and teenagers constitute only a very small portion of family characters on TV. This type of family situation provides its young viewers with no information about the child's role in the family, and children may feel they are an unnecessary or insignificant part of the family. Research suggests that children do use television as a source of information about families.

The kind of information children learn from TV depends on the type of programs they watch. Situation-comedies show a great amount of conflict and disagreement between family members. There is often much verbal aggression (yelling, teasing, sarcasm) on these type of shows. Although presented in jest, young children may not be able to understand the humor and, as a result, expect normal family activity to include much that is loud, rude and sarcastic. Verbally aggressive shows include "All In The Family," "Maude" and "The Jeffersons." Conflict in families appears to be increasing on TV, especially between parents and pre-teens and has doubled in the past two years.

Although the amount of family conflict is increasing on TV, most shows featuring families portray many acts of helping, sharing, cooperating and other pro-social acts between family members. For every act of family conflict, there are seven pro-social acts. Dramas such as "The Waltons" and "Little House On The Prairie" standout as particularly pro-social, positive family shows. They portray families as solving problems with considerable patience, understanding and love. Parent-child conflict is seldom shown, but when differences do occur — they are resolved in a happy, beneficial way. These types of shows provide the young viewer with positive role models and suggest helping and sharing behaviors between family members.

How may parents influence their children's perception of the family? Research shows that children guided toward pro-social family shows tend to believe that real life families are positive and good. On the other hand, children not guided toward such programs tend to view family interaction as less pleasant.

What parents tell their children about family roles can make a difference in the way children perceive their family and their place in it. The child who is able to have regular conversations and activity with other family members tends to perceive families as positive, no matter what that child sees on television.

Next week: You, the concerned viewer

Children and the tube

Wednesday,
June 7, 1978

TV: The parents' role

(Last in a series of five)

This article is the final one in a series of five prepared by Robert Abelman and Kimberly Neuendorf of Michigan State University in cooperation with The Argus-Press, about the impact of television programs and TV viewing on children.

In today's article we will discuss the active role parents and concerned readers may take to influence the potential impact of TV on children. Alternative courses of action will be examined.

Since the earliest years of TV, researchers have been concerned with what children learn from TV programs. From Saturday morning cartoons to sophisticated situation-comedies, the young viewer is exposed to many different types of TV characters and behaviors. We have found that children may learn good and bad behaviors from TV. If a TV character is rewarded or is successful in using certain behaviors, regardless if those behaviors are good or bad, there is a definite tendency for children to copy the characters and imitate those behaviors. The result can be quite positive if the TV charactres exhibit helping, sharing, cooperating and other pro-social behaviors. On the other hand, if the child watches much violent, verbally aggressive, anti-social behaviors, the consequences are less pleasant.

The most popular shows among young people are those shows which contain many anti-social behaviors. What can the parent or concerned reader do to influence what children may learn and imitate from TV?

Two organizations, the PTA (Parents and Teachers Association) and ACT (Action for Children's Television) are very active in trying to influence what is shown on TV. Both the PTA and ACT are primarily made up of concerned citizens who want to have input as to what TV presents to its young viewers. Both groups direct their activities toward the major networks, federal agencies and advertisers. By demonstrating that there is public concern for what is shown on TV, these groups are being heard. To become involved, you may work with your local PTA or contact ACT at 46 Austin St., Newtonville, Mass. 02160. You can also write letters to the networks, to advertisers and to your local stations, expressing your opinions and concern for TV programming.

There is a more immediate role we may take to influence what children see and learn from TV. It begins in the home. Parents can take an active role in deciding what and how much television their children will watch. We might discourage the viewing of certain programs that contain a lot of anti-social behaviors and encourage the viewing of other shows with more pro-social behaviors. We may wish to control or coordinate the overall amount of TV our children watch. Each of these suggestions can have an effect on what children learn from TV.

TV characters and stories provide children with information that is not always understood. It is difficult for young children to distinguish between what is real on TV and what is not. Parental comments can shape children's responses to what they see on TV. This can be done in several ways:

1. Perceived Reality: If parents tell children that certain TV characters and events are realistic, the learning and performance of what is seen on TV will increase. If parents explain the unreal nature of certain TV characters and events, the learning and performance of those things will be minimized.

2. Consequences: If parents tell their children that certain behaviors they see on TV will eventually be rewarded, the impact of those behaviors will be increased; comments relating negative consequences or punishment for certain behaviors on TV will reduce the child's tendency to perform those behaviors.

3. Motives: If parents explain the reasons why some TV characters act the way they do, children might have a better understanding of the behaviors.

4. Evaluations: If parents express approval for behaviors seen on TV, or if parents exhibit those behaviors themselves in the home, the child will believe that those behaviors are acceptable and will repeat them.

In general, parental involvement in what children watch on TV and how they interpret what they see can influence what children learn from TV. These suggestions involve communication between parent and child and an awareness of what and when children watch TV. Just watching "good" shows with children will not have as great an effect as giving your opinion and discussing TV with children. Television is a popular topic and most children will accept the opportunity to discuss their favorite TV shows and TV characters with you. Give your opinions.

We hope this series of articles has been enjoyable and useful. We appreciate any comment and criticism you may have, and will respond to any questions that might have been raised on subjects discussed in this series of articles.

APPENDIX B

KIDS' BASELINE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX B

KIDS' BASELINE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

TV SURVEY

Here is a list of television shows that you may like to watch. Please CIRCLE the names of any TV shows that are your favorites, the ones you like the best.

Jeffersons	Sugar Time
CHIPs	One Day at a Time
Ted Knight	Lou Grant
Operation Petticoat	Happy Days
Another Day	Laverne & Shirley
Love Boat	Three's Company
Maude	Spider Man
World of Disney	Eight is Enough
Hardy Boys/Nancy Drew	Charlie's Angels
Rhoda	Starsky & Hutch
Project UFO	Waltons
How the West Was Won	Welcome Back Kotter
On Our Own	Barney Miller
All in the Family	What's Happening
Alice	Hawaii Five-O
Wonder Woman	Incredible Hulk
CPO Sharkey	M.A.S.H.
Rockford Files	Quincy

If we missed any of your favorites, write their names here:

_____

_____

Please CIRCLE your answer to these questions:

When you watch TV with your parents, do you talk with them about the TV shows you see?

YES NO

When you watch TV with your parents, do they ever ask you questions about the TV shows?

YES NO

When you watch TV with your parents, do you ever ask them questions about the TV shows?

YES NO

Now we'd like to know some things about you:

Are you a boy or a girl? BOY GIRL

What grade are you in? 4TH 6TH

How many brothers do you have? _____

How many sisters do you have? _____

What is your phone number? _____

Who do you live with in your house?

MOTHER FATHER

SISTERS BROTHERS

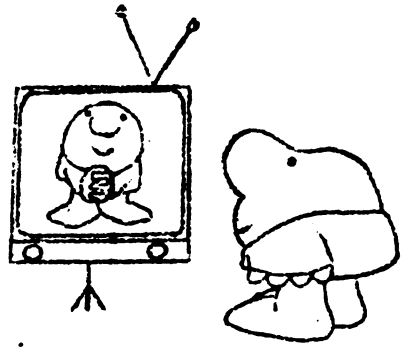
Other: _____

APPENDIX C

KIDS' WAVE QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX C

KIDS' WAVE QUESTIONNAIRE



THIS IS NOT A TEST

PIeaaa answer these questions carefully and honestly. Your answers will not be shown to your teacher. Don't write your name anywhere on this survey. Remember: there are no right or wrong answers. We want to know how YOU feel.

C2

1

PLEASE CIRCLE YOUR ANSWERS

1. On a school night, how late can you stay up to watch TV?

   8:00 8:30 9:00 9:30 10:00 10:30 11:00 or later

2. On Friday or Saturday night, how late can you stay up to watch TV?

   8:00 8:30 9:00 9:30 10:00 10:30 11:00 or later

3. How many rules do you think your parents make about what you watch on TV?

   VERY MANY MANY SOME A FEW NONE

4. Are there any TV shows you're not allowed to watch?

   YES NO

   If you answered yes, what are they?

   _____

   _____

   _____

5. Are there any TV shows your parents want you to watch?

   YES NO

   If you answered yes, what are they?

   _____

   _____

   _____

C3

2

PLEASE CIRCLE YOUR ANSWERS

6. How much like real people are the people you see on TV?

JUST LIKE REAL PEOPLE	A LOT LIKE REAL PEOPLE	SOMETHING LIKE REAL PEOPLE	NOT MUCH LIKE REAL PEOPLE	NOT LIKE REAL PEOPLE

7. How much like real stories are the stories you see on TV?

JUST LIKE REAL	A LOT LIKE REAL	SOMETHING LIKE REAL	NOT MUCH LIKE REAL	NOT LIKE REAL

8. How often are the women you see on TV like women in real life?

ALL THE TIME	MOST OF THE TIME	SOME OF THE TIME	ONCE IN A WHILE	NEVER

9. How often are the men you see on TV like men in real life?

ALL THE TIME	MOST OF THE TIME	SOME OF THE TIME	ONCE IN A WHILE	NEVER

10. How many TV shows have violence in them?

ALL	MANY	SOME	A FEW	NONE

11. How many TV shows have helping and sharing in them?

ALL	MANY	SOME	A FEW	NONE

12. How much like real families are the families on TV?

JUST LIKE REAL	A LOT LIKE REAL	SOMETHING LIKE REAL	NOT MUCH LIKE REAL	NOT LIKE REAL

C4

3

PLEASE CIRCLE YOUR ANSWERS

13. How often do you think your parents can change what is shown on TV?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES ALMOST NEVER NEVER

14. How often do TV shows get changed because people don't like what they see?

VERY OFTEN OFTEN SOMETIMES ALMOST NEVER NEVER

15. Do you ever read things about what should or shouldn't be on TV?

YES NO

If you answered yes, where do you read about TV?

TV Guide

newspapers

magazines

other: _____(please tell us what)

16. Do you ever talk to other people about what should or shouldn't be on TV?

YES NO

If you answered yes, who do you talk to?

my parents

my brothers and/or sisters

my friends

my teacher

other: _____(please tell us who)

C5

4

PLEASE CIRCLE YOUR ANSWERS

17. Do you ever hear things on TV about what should or shouldn't be on TV?

YES NO

If you answered yes, where on TV? (Put X by your answer)

_____during the news, like CBS News with Walter Cronkite

_____on entertainment shows, like the Waltons or Happy Days

_____on special programs, like NBC Reports or 60 Minutes

18. Do you ever hear things on the radio about what should or shouldn't be on TV?

YES NO

If you answered yes, where on radio? (Put X by your answer)

_____during the news, like the news on the hour

_____on entertainment shows, like a music show

_____on special programs, like a public service program

19. Did you watch TV last night?

YES NO

a. If you said YES, did you talk with your parents about what you saw?

YES NO

b. If you said YES, did your parents ask you questions about what you saw?

YES NO

C6

5

PLEASE CIRCLE YOUR ANSWERS

20. Did you know that there's a special radio show on WOAP on Tuesdays about Kids and TV?

YES NO

Have you listened to it?

YES NO

If you said YES, what was it about? (Choose one)

_____TV is hard to learn from

_____TV doesn't tell it like it is

_____TV doesn't have enough shows for kids

21. Did you know that there's a special story in the Argus Press on Wednesdays about TV and Your Children?

YES NO

Have you read it?

YES NO

If you said YES, what was it about? (Choose one)

_____TV is hard to learn from

_____TV doesn't tell it like it is

_____TV doesn't have enough shows for kids

Now we'd like to know some things about you:

Are you a boy or girl?	BOY	GIRL
What grade are you in?	4TH	6TH
What is your phone number?	_____	

C7

5

20. Did you know that there's a special radio show on WOAP on Tuesdays about Kids and TV?

YES NO

Have you listened to it?

YES NO

If you said YES, what was it about? (Choose One)

_____TV shows that are boring

_____TV shows that have fighting in them

_____TV shows that are funny

21. Did you know that there's a special story in the Argus Press on Wednes- about TV and Your Children?

YES NO

Have you read it?

YES NO

If you said YES, what was it about?

_____TV shows that are boring

_____TV shows that have fighting in them

_____TV shows that are funny

Now we'd like to know some things about you:

Are you a boy or a girl? BOY GIRL

What grade are you in? 4TH 6TH

What is your phone number? _____

C8

5

20. Did you know that there's a special radio show on WOAP on Tuesdays about Kids and TV?

YES NO

Have you listened to it?

YES NO

If you said YES, what was it about? (choose one)

____Animal Shows on television

____How cartoons are made

____Male and female TV characters

21. Did you know that there's a special story in the Argus Press on Wednesdays about Children and the Tube?

YES NO

Have you read it?

YES NO

If you said YES, what was it about? (choose one)

____Animal shows on television

____How cartoons are made

____Male and female TV characters

Now we'd like to know some things about you:

Are you a boy or girl? BOY GIRL

What grade are you in? 4TH 6TH

What is your phone number? _____

C9
5

20. Did you know that there's a special radio show on WOAP on Tuesdays about Kids and TV?

YES NO

Have you listened to it?

YES NO

If you said YES, what was it about? (choose one)

_____ What families are like on TV

_____ How much news is on TV

_____ When people watch TV the most

21. Did you know that there's a special story in the Argus Press on Wednesd- about Children and the Tube?

YES NO

Have you read it?

YES NO

If you said YES, what was it about? (choose one)

_____ What families are like on TV

_____ How much news is on TV

_____ When people watch TV the most

Now we'd like to know some things about you:

Are you a boy or girl? BOY GIRL

What grade are you in? 4TH 6TH

What is your phone number? _____

20. Did you know that there's a special radio show on WOAP on Tuesdays about Kids and TV?

YES NO

Have you listened to it?

YES NO

If you said YES, what was it about? (choose one)

_____ places to write about TV

_____ new shows on TV

_____ TV shows on during the day

21. Did you know that there's a special story in the Argus Press on Wednesdays about Children and the Tube?

YES NO

Have you read it?

YES NO

If you said YES, what was it about? (choose one)

_____ places to write about TV

_____ new shows on TV

_____ TV shows on during the day

Now we'd like to know some things about you:

Are you a boy or a girl? BOY GIRL

What grade are you in? 4TH 6TH

What is your phone number?_____

APPENDIX D

MOMS' WAVE QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX D

MOMS' WAVE QUESTIONNAIRE

MEDIA GUIDANCE PHONE INTERVIEW PHONE #:_____

ID#:_____ GRADE: 4TH 6TH

INTERVIEWER:_____ PARENT:_____

SUPERVISOR: LAURA HENDERSON 353-4678 TIME:_____

Hello, my name is (YOUR FULL NAME) and I'm calling from Michigan State University, Department of Communication. We're interested in talking to parents about children and television. Is there a 4TH/6TH (READ ONE) grader living in your home?

READ ONE

(IF MALE OR CHILD) May I speak to the mother of that child?
(IF FEMALE) Are you the mother of that child?

(IF SOMEONE ELSE COMES TO THE PHONE READ:) Hello, my name is (YOUR FULL NAME) and I'm calling from Michigan State University, Department of Communication. We're interested in talking to mothers about children and television.

Your answers will remain completely ananymous and at the end of the survey your phone number will be removed.

(1) How late do you let your 4th/6th grader stay up on a school night to watch TV?

8:00 8:30 9:00 9:30 10:00 10:30 11:00 or later

(2) How late do you let your 4th/6th grader stay up on a Friday or Saturdyy night to watch TV?

8:00 8:30 9:00 9:30 10:00 10:30 11:00 or later

(3) How many rules about watching TV do you feel children need? Would you say:

very many many some a few none

(4) Do you think you make more, fewer, or about the same number of rules about TV as other parents?

more about the same fewer

(5) Are there any TV shows you do not allow your 4th/6th grader to watch?

yes no

If yes, what are they? (RECORD TITLES)

_____

_____

(6) Are there any TV shows you encourage your 4th/6th grader to watch?

yes no

If yes, what are they? (RECORD TITLES)

_____

_____

(7) How much are television characters like real people? Would you say:

just like real	a lot like real	something like real	not much like real	not like real

(8) How much are television plots like real life situations? Would you say:

just like real	a lot like real	something like real	not much like real	not like real

(9) How often are female television characters like actual women? Would you say:

all the time	most of the time	some of the time	once in a while	never

(10) How often are male television characters like actual men? Would you say:

all the time	most of the time	some of the time	once in a while	never

(11) How many TV programs show violent behavior? Would you say:

all	many	some	a few	none

(12) How many TV programs show helpful and sharing behavior? Would you say:

all	many	some	a few	none

(13) How much are television families like real families? Would you say:

just like real	a lot like real	something like real	not much like real	not like real

(14) How often can you influence what is shown in TV? Would you say:

very often	often	sometimes	rarely	never

(15) How often do television producers make changes in their programs because people like you don't like what they see? Would you say:

very often	often	sometimes	rarely	never

(16) What is the percentage of characters on TV who are male?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

(17) How often are these people seen on TV? Would you say:

blacks very often often sometimes almost never never

the elderly very often often sometimes almost never never

the handicapped very often often sometimes almost never never

(18) How much of a child's free time is spent in front of TV?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

(19) True or False: Television is seldom typical, natural, or realistic.

TRUE FALSE

(16) **True or False:** Young people who watch a lot of TV violence tend to be more aggressive.

TRUE FALSE

(17) **True or False:** Young people who watch a lot of TV pro-social behavior are more likely to be positive in their relationships with other people.

TRUE FALSE

(18) What kind of TV shows has the most violence in them?

(RECORD ANSWER) _____

(19) What does it mean to modify a child's TV diet of violence?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

_____

(16) Which of the following characteristics describe the typical woman on TV: Are they:

youthful?	YES	NO
attractive?	YES	NO
unmarried?	YES	NO
mature?	YES	NO
intelligent?	YES	NO
passive?	YES	NO
stereotyped?	YES	NO

(17) Which of the following characteristics describe the typical man on TV: Are they:

youthful?	YES	NO
attractive?	YES	NO
unmarried?	YES	NO
mature?	YES	NO
intelligent?	YES	NO
passive?	YES	NO
stereotyped?	YES	NO

(18) Can you think of an example of a woman on TV who is a counterstereotype (different from most TV women)?

RECORD ANSWER_____

(19) In the real world, what is the percentage of women in the labor or working force?

RECORD ANSWER_____

(16) What is the percentage of females in TV shows that feature families?

RECORD ANSWER: _____

(17) Which description is more accurate for the way families are typically shown on TV?

Families are small, featuring the "central" members, like the mother, father, and children. (NUCLEAR)

or

Families are large, featuring central members as well as extended family members such as grandparents, aunts, uncles, or cousins. (EXTENDED)

RECORD ANSWER: NUCLEAR EXTENDED

(18) On what TV shows are families shown as being loud, rude, or sarcastic?

RECORD ANSWER: _____

_____

(19) On what TV shows are families shown as being patient, understanding, or loving?

RECORD ANSWER: _____

_____

(16) What is the most direct way a parent can influence what children might learn from TV?

RECORD ANSWER_____

_____

(17) Do you know of any organizations that are active in trying to influence what is shown on TV?

YES NO

IF YES: Can you name some of them?

RECORD ANSWER_____

_____

(18) Do television stations and networks read their mail?

YES NO

Have you ever written a station or network?

YES NO

IF YES: What issue or show did you write them about?

RECORD ANSWER_____

_____

(19) What percentage of people watching a TV show is considered a good rating?

RECORD ANSWER_____

(20) Have you ever talked to anyone about television content and what it's like?

YES NO

IF YES: Who?

MY SPOUSE OTHER PARENTS MY CHILDREN

TEACHERS OTHERS: (RECORD WHO)_____

_____

(21) Have you ever seen anything on TV about what is or isn't suitable content for television?

YES NO

IF YES: Where?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

_____

(22) Have you ever heard anything on the radio about what is or isn't suitable for television?

YES NO

IF YES: Where?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

_____

Have you ever heard of a radio show called Kids and TV on WOAP?

YES NO

IF NO GO TO QUESTION 23
IF YES READ: Where did you hear about the radio show?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

Have you listened to it:

YES NO

IF NO GO TO QUESTION 23
IF YES READ:

Would you say T and Kids was:

helpful?	YES	SOMEWHAT	NO
informative?	YES	SOMEWHAT	NO
useful?	YES	SOMEWHAT	NO
enjoyable?	YES	SOMEWHAT	NO
factual?	YES	SOMEWHAT	NO
realistic?	YES	SOMEWHAT	NO

After hearing Kids and TV, which of the following things have you done?

talked with your child about what's on TV	YES	NO
wondered how real the programs are	YES	NO
talked with your child about how TV distorts reality	YES	NO
shown your child things that aren't real on TV	YES	NO

What topics has Kids and TV discussed?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

_____

(23) Have you ever read about what is or isn't suitable content for television?

YES NO

IF YES: Where?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

_____

Have you seen an article called TV and Your Children in the Argus Press?

YES NO

IF NO GO TO QUESTION 24
IF YES READ: Where did you hear about the newspaper article?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

D11
7

Have you read TV and Your Children?

YES NO

IF NO GO TO QUESTION 24
IF YES READ:

Would you say TV and Your Children was?

helpful?	YES	SOMEWHAT	NO
informative?	YES	SOMEWHAT	NO
useful?	YES	SOMEWHAT	NO
enjoyable?	YES	SOMEWHAT	NO
factual?	YES	SOMEWHAT	NO
realistic?	YES	SOMEWHAT	NO

After reading TV and Your Children, which of the following things have you done?

talked with your child about what's on TV	YES	NO
wondered how real the programs are	YES	NO
talked with your child about how TV distorts reality	YES	NO
shown your child things that aren't real on TV	YES	NO

What topics has TV and Your Children discussed?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

_____

Do you think you'll read the article next week?

YES NO

Are there any other topics you'd like to read about?

YES NO

IF YES: What are they?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

_____

(24) Now I'd like to find out something about you:

How many children do you have living with you?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

Do you work? YES NO

IF YES: Full or Part time? FULL PART

What is your occupation?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

What is your spouse's occupation?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

How much school have you completed?

LESS THAN HIGH SCHOOL HIGH SCHOOL GRAD SOME COLLEGE

COLLEGE GRAD SOME GRAD SCHOOL ADVANCED DEGREE

How old are you?

(RECORD ANSWER)_____

Thank you for taking the time to talk with me.

(IF THE PERSON HAS ANY QUESTIONS, ANSWER THEM, BUT KEEP IT BRIEF. FOR ANYTHING YOU'RE NOT SURE OF, GIVE HIM/HER THE SUPERVISOR'S PHONE NUMBER)

TIME AT COMPLETION:_____

INTERVIEWER SIGNATURE:_____

PHONE NUMBER CALLING FROM:_____

APPENDIX E

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR INDEX COMPONENTS

APPENDIX E

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR INDEX COMPONENTS

Items Comprising Index MMPAR

		Mean	s.d.	N
SUITABLE	Item 21, App. D	.579	.495	304
RADIO73	Item 22, App. D	.706	.456	303
TVKIDS33	Item 23, App. D	.261	.440	307

Correlation Matrix

	SUITABLE	RADIO73	TVKIDS33
SUITABLE	---		
RADIO73	-.03	---	
TVKIDS33	.07	.03	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .069

Standardized item alpha: .072

Items Comprising Index KNOW

		Mean	s.d.	N
KNOWI		3.309	1.464	55
KNOWII		2.089	.793	56
KNOWIII	Items 16-19, App. D	8.833	2.259	24
KNOWIV		2.707	.844	41
KNOWV		1.282	1.075	39

Correlation Matrix: not computable

NOTE: These items were standardized and combined to create the inde

E3

Items Comprising Subindex KNOWI

		Mean	s.d.	N
PERCENTM	Items 16-19, App. D.	.491	.505	55
BLACKS		.375	.489	56
OLD		.500	.505	56
HCAPPED		.821	.387	56
FREETIME		.464	.503	56
TYPICAL		.643	.484	56

Correlation Matrix

	PERCENTM	BLACKS	OLD	HCAPPED	FREETIME
PERCENTM	---				
BLACKS	.39	---			
OLD	.09	.11	---		
HCAPPED	.18	.17	.19	---	
FREETIME	.09	.02	.07	-.13	---
TYPICAL	.18	.12	.07	-.06	.10

E4

Items Comprising Subindex KNOWII

		Mean	s.d.	N
VIOLENT	Items 16-19, App. D	.672	.473	67
PROSOC		.702	.461	67
TVVIOL		.046	.210	66
TVDIET		.655	.480	58

Correlation Matrix

	VIOLENT	PROSOC	TVVIOL	TVDIET
VIOLENT	---			
PROSOC	.40	---		
TVVIOL	-.00	-.17	---	
TVDIET	-.26	-.16	-.16	---

E5

Items Comprising Subindex KNOWIII

		Mean	s.d.	N
WOMAN31		.705	.460	61
WOMAN32		.885	.321	61
WOMAN33		.700	.462	60
WOMAN34		.387	.491	62
WOMAN35		.290	.458	62
WOMAN36		.597	.495	62
WOMAN37		.694	.465	62
MAN38	Items 16-19, App. D	.175	.383	63
MAN39		.905	.296	63
MAN40		.263	.444	61
MAN41		.694	.464	62
MAN42		.794	.408	63
MAN43		.500	.504	62
MAN44		.771	.424	61
STEREO		.033	.183	30
PERCENTF		.407	.495	59

Correlation Matrix

	WOMAN31	WOMAN32	WOMAN33	WOMAN34	WOMAN35
WOMAN31	---				
WOMAN32	.22	---			
WOMAN33	.25	.22	---		
WOMAN34	.16	.19	.40	---	
WOMAN35	-.01	.11	.11	-.11	.01

	WOMAN31	WOMAN32	WOMAN33	WOMAN34	WOMAN35
WOMAN37	.02	.20	.05	-.14	.10
MAN38	-.16	-.10	.00	.15	.17
MAN39	.15	.23	.15	-.08	-.39
MAN40	-.29	-.13	-.29	-.03	.02
MAN41	.18	-.02	.02	-.48	-.29
MAN42	.01	-.06	.10	-.28	-.54
MAN43	.09	.17	*	.42	.30
MAN44	.12	.25	.27	-.11	.08
STEREO	*	*	-.28	-.15	-.12
PERCENTF	-.01	-.02	.26	.00	-.08

	WOMAN36	WOMAN37	MAN38	MAN39	MAN40
WOMAN37	.40	---			
MAN38	.00	-.06	---		
MAN39	.18	.14	-.14	---	
MAN40	-.05	-.08	-.06	-.05	---
MAN41	.29	.11	-.15	.14	.07
MAN42	.18	.17	-.18	.24	-.17
MAN43	-.46	-.24	-.04	-.22	.14
MAN44	.27	.47	.03	.21	-.02
STEREO	.17	.14	-.10	.06	-.11
PERCENTF	.17	.14	.05	.00	-.03

	MAN41	MAN42	MAN43	MAN44	STEREO
MAN42	.29	---			
MAN43	-.19	-.28	---		
MAN44	.13	.00	-.23	---	
STEREO	.12	.11	-.18	-.34	---
PERCENTF	.19	.16	.11	.09	*

* - Not computable.

E8

Items Comprising Subindex KNOWIV

		Mean	s.d.	N
PERCFAM	Items 16-19, App. D	.383	.490	60
NUCLEAR		.794	.407	68
LOUDFAM		.896	.309	48
LOVEFAM		.667	.475	66

Correlation Matrix

	PERCFAM	NUCLEAR	LOUDFAM	LOVEFAM
PERCFAM	---			
NUCLEAR	.04	---		
LOUDFAM	.07	.14	---	
LOVEFAM	-.03	-.14	-.09	---

E9

Items Comprising Subindex KNOWV

		Mean	s.d.	N
LEARN57		.135	.345	52
LEARN58		.058	.235	52
ORG61		.038	.192	53
ORG62		.019	.139	52
ORG63		.115	.323	52
ORG64	Items 16-19, App. D	.019	.139	52
ORG65		.039	.194	52
ORG66		.019	.139	52
MAILTV		.638	.486	47
RATING		.186	.394	43

Correlation Matrix

	LEARN57	LEARN58	ORG61	ORG62	ORG63
LEARN57	---				
LEARN58	-.10	---			
ORG61	-.06	.57	---		
ORG62	-.06	-.03	-.02	---	
ORG63	.39	-.09	-.05	-.05	---
ORG64	-.06	-.03	-.02	-.02	-.05
ORG65	.21	-.05	-.03	-.03	.24
ORG66	-.06	.57	-.02	-.02	-.05
MAILTV	.12	.02	.16	.11	-.02
RATING	.01	.34	.18	*	-.02

	ORG64	ORG64	ORG66	MAILTV	RATING
ORG65	-.03	---			
ORG66	-.02	-.03	---		
MAILTV	.11	-.06	.11	---	
RATING	-.08	-.11	-.08	.10	---

* - Not computable.

Items Comprising Index REALPAR

		Mean	s.d.	N
REAL47	Item 7, App. D	2.610	.954	305
REAL48	Item 8, App. D	2.702	.885	305
REAL49	Item 9, App. D	2.585	.798	306
REAL50	Item 10, App. D	2.746	.817	307
REAL53	Item 13, App. D	2.510	.816	304

Correlation Matrix

	REAL47	REAL48	REAL49	REAL50	REAL53
REAL47	---				
REAL48	.50	---			
REAL49	.37	.40	---		
REAL50	.37	.44	.66	---	
REAL53	.37	.43	.30	.21	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .772

Standardized item alpha: .773

Items Comprising Index ANTIPAR

		Mean	s.d.	N
REAL51	Item 11, App. D	3.588	.705	308
REAL52	Item 12, App. D	3.435	.717	308

Correlation Matrix

	REAL51	REAL52
REAL51	---	
REAL52	-.15	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .256

Standardized item alpha: .256

Items Comprising Index CHANGPAR

		Mean	s.d.	N
CHANGE54	Item 14, App. D	2.765	1.195	307
CHANGE55	Item 15, App. D	2.290	.865	300

Correlation Matrix

	CHANGE54	CHANGE55
CHANGE54	---	
CHANGE55	.28	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .417

Standardized item alpha: .434

E14

Items Comprising Index RULESPAR

		Mean	s.d.	N
RULES2	Item 3, App. D	3.301	1.112	309
RULES3	Item 4, App. D	2.216	.701	306

Correlation Matrix

	RULES2	RULES3
RULES2	---	
RULES3	.37	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .504

Standardized item alpha: .542

NOTE: These items were standardized and added to create the index.

Items Comprising Index LATEPAR

		Mean	s.d.	N
LATE3	Item 1, App. D	3.560	1.099	307
LATE4	Item 2, App. D	5.919	1.327	307

Correlation Matrix

	LATE3	LATE4
LATE3	---	
LATE4	.45	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .615

Standardized item alpha: .622

NOTE: These items were standardized and added to create the index.

Items Comprising Index MEDPAR

		Mean	s.d.	N
RULESPAR	Items 3 & 4, App. D	.006	1.652	305
NOPAR	Item 5, App. D	1.203	1.049	306
YESPAR	Item 6, App. D	1.323	1.098	307
LATEPAR	Items 1 & 2, App. D	.019	1.694	305

Correlation Matrix

	RULESPAR	NOPAR	YESPAR	LATEPAR
RULESPAR	---			
NOPAR	.23	---		
YESPAR	.19	.33	---	
LATEPAR	-.16	-.09	-.06	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .100

Standardized item alpha: .235

NOTE: These indices were standardized and added to create the index MEDPAR.

Items Comprising Index RULESKID

		Mean	s.d.	N
RULES1	Item 3, App. C	2.375	.983	283

NOTE: This index was composed of one item only.

Items Comprising Index LATEKID

		Mean	s.d.	N
LATE1	Item 1, App. C	4.302	1.330	285
LATE2	Item 2, App. C	6.563	.873	284

Correlation Matrix

	LATE1	LATE2
LATE1	---	
LATE2	.31	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .441

Standardized item alpha: .472

NOTE: These items were standardized and added to create the index.

Items Comprising Index MEDKID

		Mean	s.d.	N
RULESKID	Item 3, App. C	2.375	.983	283
NOKID	Item 4, App. C	.703	.823	283
YESKID	Item 5, App. C	.523	.740	283
LATEKID	Items 1 & 2, App. C	10.866	1.804	284

Correlation Matrix

	RULESKID	NOKID	YESKID	LATEKID
RULESKID	---			
NOKID	.24	---		
YESKID	.18	.19	---	
LATEKID	-.19	-.13	-.12	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: -.057

Standardized item alpha: .100

NOTE: These indices were standardized and added to create the index MEDKID.

Items Comprising Index TALK1KID

		Mean	s.d.	N
PARENT1	Page 2, App. B	.317	.466	278
PARENT2	Page 2, App. B	.522	.500	278
PARENT3	Page 2, App. B	.191	.394	278

Correlation Matrix

	PARENT1	PARENT2	PARENT3
PARENT1	---		
PARENT2	.25	---	
PARENT3	.35	.17	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .500

Standardized item alpha: .508

Items Comprising Index TALK2KID

		Mean	s.d.	N
TV72	Item 19, App. C	.646	.479	240
TV73	Item 19, App. C	.689	.464	183

Correlation Matrix

	TV72	TV73
TV72	---	
TV73	.56	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .720

Standardized item alpha: .722

Items Comprising Index MMKID

		Mean	s.d.	N
READ	Item 15, App. C	.332	.472	283
HEAR	Item 17, App. C	.338	.474	284
RADIO	Item 18, App. C	.633	.483	283

Correlation Matrix

	READ	HEAR	RADIO
READ	---		
HEAR	.22	---	
RADIO	.24	.39	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .547

Standardized item alpha: .546

Items Comprising Index REALKID

		Mean	s.d.	N
REAL1	Item 6, App. C	3.521	1.074	282
REAL2	Item 7, App. C	3.085	.984	284
REAL3	Item 8, App. C	3.170	1.005	282
REAL4	Item 9, App. C	3.305	.965	285
REAL7	Item 12, App. C	3.189	1.051	285

Correlation Matrix

	REAL1	REAL2	REAL3	REAL4	REAL7
REAL1	---				
REAL2	.19	---			
REAL3	.25	.14	---		
REAL4	.25	.13	.77	---	
REAL7	.27	.30	.26	.27	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .661

Standardized item alpha: .664

Items Comprising Index ANTIKID

		Mean	s.d.	N
REAL5	Item 10, App. C	3.294	.824	282
REAL6	Item 11, App. C	2.925	.817	279

Correlation Matrix

	REAL5	REAL6
REAL5	---	
REAL6	-.02	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .039

Standardized item alpha: .039

Items Comprising Index CHANGKID

		Mean	s.d.	N
CHANGE1	Item 13, App. C	3.014	1.146	281
CHANGE2	Item 14, App. C	3.387	1.017	282

Correlation Matrix

	CHANGE1	CHANGE2
CHANGE1	---	
CHANGE2	.21	---

Reliabilities

Cronbach's alpha: .340

Standardized item alpha: .342

Items Comprising Index TOTSHOW

		Mean	s.d.	N
SCSHOW		8.427	3.797	281
AASHOW		3.989	1.780	281
CSHOW	Page 1, App. B	2.277	1.345	282
FDSHOW		1.007	.782	282
TOTSHOW		16.128	5.736	281

Correlation Matrix

	SCSHOW	AASHOW	CSHOW	FDSHOW
SCSHOW	---			
AASHOW	.27	---		
CSHOW	.34	.35	---	
FDSHOW	.24	.13	.25	---

Reliabilities

SCSHOW

Cronbach's alpha: .786

Standardized item alpha: .773

AASHOW

Cronbach's alpha: .465

Standardized item alpha: .430

CSHOW

Cronbach's alpha: .556

Standardized item alpha: .555

FDSHOW

Cronbach's alpha: .304

Standardized item alpha: .310

TOTSHOW

Cronbach's alpha: .480

Standardized item alpha: .594

Statistics for all Indices

		Mean	s.d.	N
AWAREPAR	Items 22 & 23, App. D	.325	.469	311
EXPOPAR	Items 22 & 23, App. D	.206	.405	311
MMPAR	Items 21, 22, & 23, App. D	1.547	.823	300
KNOW	Items 16-19, App. D	.000	.990	215
REALPAR	Items 7-10, 13, App. D	8.078	3.095	296
ANTIPAR	Items 11 & 12, App. D	5.029	1.074	307
CHANGPAR	Items 14 & 15, App. D	3.053	1.657	300
RULESPAR	Items 3 & 4, App. D	.006	1.652	305
NOPAR	Item 5, App. D	1.203	1.049	306
YESPAR	Item 6, App. D	1.323	1.098	307
LATEPAR	Items 1 & 2, App. D	9.502	1.694	305
MEDPAR	Items 1-6, App. D	-.044	3.324	294
RULESKID	Item 3, App. C	2.375	.983	283
NOKID	Item 4, App. C	.703	.823	283
YESKID	Item 5, App. C	.523	.740	283
LATEKID	Items 1 & 2, App. C	10.866	1.804	284
MEDKID	Items 1-5, App. C	-.029	2.886	278
TALK1KID	Page 2, App. B	1.029	.968	272
TALK2KID	Item 19, App. C	1.230	.853	183
AWAREKID	Items 20 & 21, App. C	.228	.420	311
EXPOKID	Items 20 & 21, App. C	.129	.335	311
MMKID	Items 15, 17, & 18, App. C	1.311	1.037	280

		Mean	s.d.	N
REALKID	Items 6-9, 12, App. C	11.290	3.312	279
ANTIKID	Items 10 & 11, App. C	4.377	1.174	276
CHANGKID	Items 13 & 14, App. C	4.411	1.683	280
SCSHOW	Page 1, App. B	8.427	3.797	281
AASHOW	Page 1, App. B	3.989	1.780	281
CSHOW	Page 1, App. B	2.277	1.345	282
FDSHOW	Page 1, App. B	1.007	.782	282
TOTSHOW	Page 1, App. B	16.128	5.736	281