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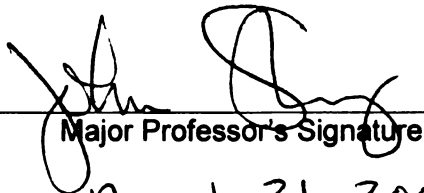
DO CHILDREN FOLLOW THEIR PARENTS' GUIDELINES
FOR TELEVISION USE?

presented by

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**DO CHILDREN FOLLOW THEIR PARENTS' GUIDELINES
FOR TELEVISION USE?**

By

Sarah Frances Rosaen

A DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

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Sarah Frances Rosaen

A sample of 102 child (7 to 12 years old) and parent pairs were surveyed about whether children comply with parental mediation guidelines. The study found that children comply to restrictive mediation the most, followed by active mediation and finally co-viewing. This investigation considered both goodness of fit on temperament and parenting style as important determinants of this compliance. It was anticipated that as goodness of fit on temperament increased compliance to parental mediation would increase, but this hypothesis was not supported. Parenting styles did have an effect on compliance. Overall, permissive and authoritarian parenting styles were negatively correlated to compliance with these guidelines, while authoritative parenting was positively correlated with compliance. Additional findings are reported about the discrepancy between parent and child reports and the relative influence of parenting styles and mediation guidelines on compliance.

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INTRODUCTION

For the past 30 years, scholars within the television parental mediation arena have been trying to define television mediation and to discover what predicts different types of mediation. The conceptualization and measurement of mediation has been refined and three common types of mediation have been identified: co-viewing, active mediation, and restrictive mediation. Generally, the research suggests that active and restrictive mediation styles lead to more positive outcomes than co-viewing strategies (Cantor, 2002; Corder-Bolz, 1980; Dorr, Kovacic, & Doubleday, 1989; McLeod, Atkin, & Chaffee, 1972_a; 1972_b; Messaris & Kerr, 1984; Nathanson, 1999; Nathanson, 2001_b; Nathanson & Cantor, 2000; Rothschild & Morgan, 1987; Singer & Singer, 1998). The choice of mediation strategy is typically related to parents' views (positive or negative) about the effects that television is likely to have on their children. Generally, negative views are associated with restrictive mediation, positive views are associated with co-viewing, and both negative and positive views are associated with active mediation (Dorr et al., 1989; Nathanson, 2001_b; St. Peters, Fitch, Huston, Wright, & Eakins, 1991; van der Voort, Nikken, & van Lil, 1992; Yang & Nathanson, 2005_a). Although these findings are helpful and suggest that some mediation strategies result in better outcomes than others, there has not been research on whether children actually comply with the mediation strategies their parents use. The goal of this study is to understand whether children do comply with these guidelines and to look at factors that influence child compliance with parental guidelines for television use.

Several psychological investigations have found that children with a similar behavioral disposition to their parents are more likely to comply with their behavioral requests and to exhibit more adaptive behavior than those who have a different disposition from their parents (i.e., Paterson & Sanson, 1999; Talwar, Nitz, & Lerner, 1990). Additionally, parenting style may also have an effect on this relationship. Psychology studies have found that parents who encourage more autonomy and do not exert a lot of control over their children obtain the most compliance from their children (i.e., Braungart-Rieker, Garwood, & Stifter, 1997; Rubin, Burgess, & Hastings, 2002). This study will investigate compliance with parental mediation to see whether the same pattern of effects occur in research on television mediation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Media Exposure

One specific group of children that media research focuses on are children in middle childhood. Middle childhood is defined approximately as the ages between 7 and 12 years old in the psychological literature (Erikson, 1968). According to Erikson (1968), middle childhood is a time when children transition from only being influenced by their household to being shaped by their household and other outside influences, such as peers, school, and the other factors in the world, such as television. This study focuses on the television uses of children in middle childhood for three reasons.

First, research on media exposure suggests that this group watches more television than children in different age groups. A 2005 survey of 2,032 children between 8 and 18 years old found that more than 80% of this age group watches television daily; on average they watch in excess of 3 hours every day (Roberts, Foehr, & Rideout, 2005). This exposure stays consistent between 8 and 14 years of age and then drops below 3 hours in the high school years (Roberts et al., 2005). Second, mass media researchers suggest that this is a critical age range for television consumption because children typically develop the ability between 7 and 10 years of age to recognize fantasy from reality (Cantor, 1998). Findings such as these have resulted in the American Academy of Pediatrics recommending that children older than two years of age are not exposed to more than one or two hours of television per day (2006). A report that surveyed parents of 1,065 children between the ages of 0 and 6 years old, did find that this age group

averages only an hour with television daily (Rideout, Vandewater, & Wartella, 2003).

Finally, because this age group developmentally is just starting to integrate outside influences into their decision making processes, they are especially vulnerable to the influences of television.

Environmental Factors

The home environment is a very important factor when researching children in middle childhood. These children are evolving from being solely dependent on the parent, to allowing other sources of information to influence their decisions. One source of influence is television. Parents tend to have the most influence over the way the television affects their child by setting guidelines for that use. Studies on parental influence have considered parent and family characteristics in the discussion of how well certain guidelines for television work in the home. For example, family types, communication styles and parental involvement factors have been a popular focus in these studies (i.e., Buerkel-Rothfuss & Buekel, 2001; Warren, Gerke, & Kelly, 2002; Warren, 2003, 2005). In fact, in 1972 the Surgeon General's Advisory Committee on Television and Social Behavior reported a need for research that considers the home environment as an important variable in how children are affected by television content.

Therefore, child development and family are important factors to consider in television research. Models of ecological development specifically focus on the interrelationships among such variables. Bronfenbrenner (1979) advanced one of the most popular ecological models. His model, in particular, recommends evaluating the communicative processes or interactions between these variables, rather than looking at the correlation between one environmental effect and another. There is a focus on a

network of variables and their effect on different processes. This paper uses this model as a framework for understanding why parental influences are important to consider when investigating television in society.

Media Theory and Negative Media Effects

Researchers and parents are concerned about children's television exposure because heavier television exposure (more hours) and exposure to certain content have been associated with negative effects in the investigation of several media theories. According to cultivation theory, individuals from environments where television provides the main exposure to culture tend to reiterate, confirm and nourish the values and perspectives they are exposed to by television (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, Signorielli, & Shanahan, 2002, p. 49). One of the main environmental aspects of television is violence. Content analyses of television confirm again and again that television presents a very violent environment, perhaps creating the perception that the world is a "mean" place (Signorielli, 1990). Exposure to this "mean" environment can be very scary, especially for children. Cantor and her colleagues have shown in several investigations that children are sometimes fearful of the images they view on television (2002). Psychological practice suggests that one can reduce their fear of something by exposing themselves to that item over and over again; this procedure results in desensitization. Studies have confirmed that because many children view a lot of television and the television environment is so violent, over time children become desensitized to the potency of the violence they are viewing (Wilson, 1987).

Theory also suggests that since children become desensitized to the images they view on television, over time they can incur negative behavioral effects from viewing this

material. According to social learning theory, since heavy viewers are more likely to value the same things that television promotes, they will also be more likely to model behavior that television suggests is valued and rewarded (Bandura, 2002). For example, many studies have shown that, after exposure to violent media, children model those images through aggressive behavior (Liebert & Schwarzberg, 1977). Similarly, television can have a short-term effect where the viewer is primed to think about related information in their own memory. Studies also suggest that aggressive television content can prime an individual to behave harshly in real life situations (Bryant & Thompson, 2002).

In general these theories suggest that watching television for many hours and watching certain kinds of content can result in several negative consequences. Clearly parents need to be informed of how to effectively protect their children from the negative effects of television. Many parents may jump to the conclusion that the only solution is to take the television away. Although a reduction in viewing hours is associated with better outcomes, this in combination with lessons of how to critically watch television can result in better protection from these negative effects. For these reasons, this paper focuses on parental guidelines associated with problematic television content in order to give parents more information so they can effectively protect their children.

Parental Mediation

Parents do seem to be concerned about the negative effects of television on their children because many of them have guidelines for their children to follow for television use. Rideout et al., (2005) found that more children in middle childhood have rules than in other age groups: 55% of children between 8 and 10 years of age have rules in the

home, 51% between 11 and 14 years old, and 31% for children between 15 and 18 years old. In addition, having some guidelines does have an effect on exposure levels for children in middle childhood. A report on children between the ages of 8 and 18 years old found that parents who have low enforcement of guidelines for television have children that watch television less often (2.4 hours per day) than children with no guidelines (3.2 hours per day) (Roberts et al., 2005).

Although the above study is informative and suggests that restrictions do exist, other questions are important like what other guidelines parents have for their children's television consumption, whether children follow these guidelines, and what effect the guidelines have in reducing negative effects from exposure to television. Research on the guidelines that parents have regarding their children's television use began about 30 years ago. Guidelines associated with television consumption have been labeled *parental mediation* and defined as "interactions with children about television... [which can]...take place before, during, or after viewing" (Nathanson, 2001_a, p. 116). The research landscape for parental mediation to date has investigated how often parents mediate their child's television use, what methods they use, and if their methods work. This research has conceptualized mediation into three dimensions: *restrictive mediation*, *active mediation* and *co-viewing*, which contain *passive* and *intentional co-viewing* dimensions.

The first type of mediation most parents are familiar with is restrictive mediation. This includes basic guidelines about the amount of time a child can spend in front of the television, when they can watch television, the type of content the child is allowed to view, and if viewing is used as a reward or punishment (Nathanson, 2001_a).

The next type is active mediation, which specifically refers to the conversation parents (or the television rule maker) and children participate in about television. This not only includes active participation in children's viewing by parents to induce critical viewing, but also active viewing by children, which results in them asking their parents about information they see on television. Nathanson (2001)_a listed the most common forms of television talk, including "discussing the reality status of programs, making critical comments about behaviors witnessed on television, and providing supplemental information about topics introduced by television" (p. 120).

Finally co-viewing has recently been re-conceptualized to include two dimensions, passive and intentional co-viewing. Passive co-viewing is the simple act of the parent watching television with their child, with little thought about the child. This is usually associated with a more "parent-oriented" purpose where the parents view for their own interest (Yang & Nathanson, 2005_a). Intentional co-viewing includes an active concern for how the media affects children, and is employed with a "child-oriented purpose" (with the benefit of the child in mind) (Yang & Nathanson, 2005_b).

Over the last 30 years many studies have been conducted that have tested these mediation styles for how often parents use them and how effective they are in mitigating negative media effects. In general, four different areas of findings have emerged: variation in mediation by age, variation by content, variation in parents' views of television (positive or negative), and finally what mediation strategies are the most effective. First, young children seem to receive stricter mediation more often than older children (Atkin, Greenberg, & Baldwin, 1991; St. Peters et al., 1991; Warren, 2003). For example, Valkenburg, Krcmar, Peeters, and Marseille (1999) surveyed a random sample

of 519 Dutch parents with children between 5 and 12 years old and found that passive co-viewing was the most popular, followed by restrictive mediation and then active mediation, but with active mediation being specifically more common for younger children. More recently, intentional co-viewing, which has been positively linked to active mediation, was also found to be more common with younger children (Yang & Nathanson, 2005_b). By contrast, older children receive more passive co-viewing from parents because they tend to enjoy similar programs (Bybee, Robinson, & Turow, 1982; Dorr et al., 1989; St. Peters et al., 1991).

However, Yang and Nathanson (2005_a) found that passive co-viewing did not differ by age in a study of 398 parents of children from kindergarten to sixth grade. This inconsistency may be in part due to the reconceptualization of co-viewing: perhaps the original surveys about passive co-viewing differed because some parents were really referring to their intentional co-viewing patterns. It could also be that some programs are of interest to both younger and older age groups. According to the 2002-2003 Nielson ratings there was considerable overlap of programs popular for children (ages 2 to 11) and tweens (ages 9 to 14). For example, programs like *Spongebob Squarepants*, *Jimmy Neutron*, and *Fairly Odd Parents* were included in the top 20 rated programs for both age groups. Studies might account for these similarities by ensuring that their samples include larger developmental differences (Piaget, 2000). This finding may also be a function of the child's birth order: perhaps children with older siblings are more likely to watch what their siblings are interested in rather than what is typically viewed by children of their age. In fact, some of the literature on mediation suggests that co-viewing occurs with siblings more than with parents (Nathanson, 2001_a). Finally, it is important to note that

the Valkenburg et al. (1999) study was conducted in Germany, while other investigations have concentrated in the U.S.A. Therefore, cultural differences could also account for some of these discrepancies.

Second, content is extremely important when investigating mediation style. One strategy that parents take is encouraging the use of “safe” stations. For example, St. Peters et al. (1991) found that some parents encouraged the viewing of PBS programming. Content is typically divided into two categories: educational and entertainment. With educational content parents may use a combination of mediation strategies, but entertainment content is more likely to involve restrictive and active mediation strategies in order to minimize negative outcomes. Specifically, Valkenburg et al. (1999) found that restrictive mediation was more common for parents who were concerned with aggressive content or fright reactions on television while active mediation was more common when only concerned about fright. Nathanson, Eveland, Park, and Paul (2002) interviewed 265 caregivers of children in second through eighth grades and found that active mediation occurred more often with violent content than sexual content. Unfortunately, she also found a third person effect where parents believe other children are more likely than their own to be affected by violent content. Yang and Nathanson (2005_a) also found that intentional co-viewing is used more than passive co-viewing for entertainment programming, while intentional and passive co-viewing are used about the same amount for educational content. In general, these findings do suggest a consistent use of more critical strategies for harmful content and a collage of strategies for educational content that is not interpreted as harmful. Moreover, researchers urge

investigators to distinguish harmful and helpful content when asking about mediation strategies (Yang & Nathanson, 2005_b).

The third major finding from past studies is that parents who perceive the television as having negative effects use more mediation in general (specifically more restrictive and active mediation styles) while parents who see the television as a positive source use co-viewing more often (Dorr et al., 1989; St. Peters et al., 1991). One of the strongest examples of this effect was revealed in Nathanson (2001_b) who surveyed 394 parents and children between second and sixth grades and found that parents with negative views about television used both restrictive and active mediation styles while parents with positive views used only co-viewing. However, the strategies parents chose did not always accurately communicate their views about television: restrictive mediation effectively signaled to the child that parents saw this material as negative, but both active mediation (which is used by parents with negative views about television) and co-viewing signaled an endorsement of the material by the parent.

Consistent with this effect, Yang and Nathanson (2005_a) found that passive co-viewing was predicted by positive attitudes to entertainment content. Yet intentional co-viewing, which is associated with active mediation, was not predicted by content or views about television. Similarly, van der Voort et al. (1992), in a study with a random sample of Dutch parents drawn from a large representative database of 10,000 with children between 3 and 18 years of age, found that parents with more negative views about television did use more restrictive mediation styles but also that active mediation was associated with both positive and negative views about television. The van der Voort et al. (1992) investigation did not collect data on the content of the programs on which

parents were making their judgments. Therefore, the use of active mediation by parents who had both positive and negative views could be the result of the content of the material to which they referred when making their judgments.

The fourth major area of research on mediation styles investigates the effectiveness of each mediation style. Generally researchers view stricter mediation styles (like restrictive and active mediation, and now, potentially, intentional co-viewing) as successful in reducing effects from negative content, while passive co-viewing is associated with poorer outcomes.

The only mediation style that results fairly consistently in positive outcomes is active mediation. In investigations of learning educational content, learning pro-social behaviors, reducing fright reactions, and reducing imitations of aggressive behavior from violent television (Austin, Roberts, & Nass, 1990; Cantor, 2002; Corder-Bolz, 1980; Nathanson & Cantor, 2000; Nathanson, 1999; Nathanson, Wilson, McGee, & Sebastian, 2002; Singer, Singer, Desmond, Hirsch, & Nicol, 1988; Singer & Singer, 1998), active mediation does seem generally to work in reducing the negative effects and increasing the positive effects from media images. However, researchers do suggest that parents pay attention to the valence of the message they give to their children. A negative valence is best with negative content, or negative active mediation, in order to encourage the child to devalue the content, whereas educational and pro-social learning messages should have a positive valence to encourage the child to positively value the content (Nathanson, 2001)_a. Nathanson (1999) established support for the success of active mediation in a study of 394 parents and children in second through sixth grades, finding that active and restrictive mediation were negatively related to aggressive outcomes from watching

violent television while co-viewing was positively related to aggression. This study suggests that active and restrictive mediation styles seem to socialize children into granting less time and attention to violent television, which then influences the subsequent frequency of aggressive outcomes.

However, in the same study, Nathanson (1999) found a small, significant, curvilinear relationship between restrictive mediation and aggressive outcomes. This suggests that more extreme restrictive guidelines may have the opposite effect and create more aggressive outcomes, consistent with the forbidden fruit hypothesis. Other investigations have also found inconsistent results for the use of restrictive mediation. McLeod et al. (1972_a) found a small effect for restrictive mediation and, in another analysis, it was found to be non-significant (1972_b). These weak results for the effectiveness of restrictive mediation suggest that another variable may be at work. Perhaps with some children rule restrictions can work, but with others different strategies need to be employed.

Similarly, co-viewing is sometimes associated with positive and negative effects. Generally, the presence of the parent suggests approval of the material, so for educational and pro-social content this mediation strategy works because children interpret their parents' approval and are more likely to adopt the behavior (Salomon, 1977). However, the same logic suggests that negative material would also be viewed as approved by their parents and could lead to adoption of those behaviors. For example, a few studies have found that children have difficulty recognizing television realism when parents co-view (Dorr et al., 1989; Messaris & Kerr, 1984). Children also have more stereotyped views of sex roles (Rothschild & Morgan, 1987) and increased aggressive behavior after viewing

violent television when parents use co-viewing as a mediation strategy (Nathanson, 1999). This assumption of parental approval was addressed directly in Nathanson (2001_b), where children who believed their parents approved of television depictions had a positive orientation toward that material, which in turn makes them more likely to imitate that behavior.

Research on this mediation strategy has also generated inconsistent findings. As with restrictive mediation, this suggests that another variable may be at work. Some of these inconsistencies can be explained by the new conceptualization of co-viewing. Yang and Nathanson (2005_b) suggest that intentional co-viewing is associated with more discussion of television content, while passive co-viewing is negatively related to more effective strategies like restrictive mediation.

Another reason that could explain not only the inconsistencies for co-viewing but also restrictive mediation is that some investigations have indicated that parents and children give inconsistent reports about mediation (Fujioka & Austin, 2003; Greenberg, Ericson, & Vlahos, 1971; Rossiter & Robertson, 1975). For example, Greenberg et al. (1972) interviewed 85 mother and child pairs (fourth and fifth graders) and found that they disagreed in no consistent pattern on most questions about the child's television viewing. More recently, Fujioka and Austin (2003) found differences in parent and child reports as well. They interviewed 273 children in third, sixth and ninth grades and their parents and found that children reported more positive mediation by parents than parents reported. They did find that reports of negative mediation were about the same. These results suggest that investigations need to be careful about their methodology in order to figure out what behavior is actually occurring in the home.

Finally, an additional reason that could also explain these inconsistencies is that some children may not comply with their parent's guidelines for television, which, to date, has not been investigated as a variable in mediation research. If compliance varies in children, then certain mediation strategies could result in mixed outcomes. One variable that has been found to be important in obtaining compliance is the similarity in personality between a parent and their child. This has typically been studied by investigating the *goodness of fit* between a parent and child on temperament or behavioral disposition characteristics.

Temperament

A common definition of temperament is advanced by Bates (1989), which states that temperament "...consists of biologically rooted individual differences in behavior tendencies that are present early in life and are relatively stable across various kinds of situations and over the course of time" (p. 4). Strelau (1998) details four characteristics important in defining temperament: behavior characteristics that differ across individuals, that are relatively stable, that have a biological basis, and are formal characteristics, such as intensity, speed, and mobility (p. 35). In general, behavioral temperament is a frequent focus of research on children (Strelau, 1998, p. 31).

One of the most popular definitions of behavior-based temperament was developed by Thomas and Chess (1977), which describes temperament as "a general term referring to the *how* of behavior. It differs from ability, which is concerned with the *what* and *how well* of behaving, and from motivation, which accounts for *why* a person does what he is doing. Temperament, by contrast, concerns the *way* in which an individual behaves." (Thomas & Chess, 1977, p. 9). Their conceptualization comes from an

ecological perspective because it strongly emphasizes the social environments interaction with individual differences in human development from early childhood. Their explication of this concept has been impressively tested in a longitudinal study called the New York Longitudinal Study (NYLS; Thomas & Chess, 1977). The researchers were able to retain 133 individuals that they followed from infancy to adulthood from middle and upper class neighborhoods in New York. The study included observations and interviews collected at important developmental ages for the children including infancy, early childhood, childhood, adolescence and adulthood. In the early stages of the study the researchers extracted nine temperament traits from reports of the children's parents. These traits have been extensively tested and have remained virtually unchanged since their original conceptualization.

The traits include *Activity level* (the proportion of active to inactive period in a child's motor behavior), *Rhythmicity (regularity)* (regularity of biological functions), *Approach or withdrawal* (positive or negative response to the initial contact with a new stimulus), *Adaptability* (ease of behavior change in a desired direction after initial response to a new stimulus), *Threshold of responsiveness* (the intensity of stimulation needed to induce a noticeable response), *Intensity of reaction* (the energy level of response, irrespective of its quality or direction), *Quality of mood* (the contrast of positive and negative emotions), *Distractibility* (the ability of extraneous stimulation to pull attention away from ongoing behavior), and *Attention span and persistence* (the length of time an activity can be pursued and the ability to continue that activity when distracted) (Thomas & Chess, 1977).

Two studies have specifically tested temperament as a predictor of media use (Plomin, Corley, DeFries, & Fulker, 1990; Sherry, 2001). Plomin et al. (1990) used genetic determinants of behavior, including intelligence and temperament as predictors of television viewing. In a sample of 220 adopted children between 3 and 5 years old, with interviews from both adoptive and biological parents, genetic influence on the hours of television viewing was not predicted by temperament or intelligence levels. However, Sherry (2001) suggests that because parents in the Plomin study judged their child's television use, the actual viewing behavior may not have been adequately captured.

Sherry (2001) used the paradigm of “uses and gratifications” (Rosengren, 1974) to test whether temperament predicts media use motivations. The paradigm suggests that having a problem usually results in being motivated to solve that problem, which can result in using the media to try to gratify those needs. Several investigations have studied motivations for viewing television (Greenberg, 1974; Greenberg & Hnilo, 1996; Rubin, 1985) and have established that specific motivations for viewing usually fall into one of two categories, *ritualistic*, which is typically defined as habitual use, or *instrumental* use, which is using the media to seek out specific information. Sherry (2001) revealed temperament as a moderately good predictor of media use motivations. A survey of 285 adults suggested that high activity/low rhythmicity led to ritualistic use of the television, negative mood led to instrumental use, and low task orientation and rigidity led to both ritualistic and instrumental use of the television.

Generally, the Sherry (2001) study suggests that temperament is related to how an individual uses television. The present study investigates how similar the parent and child are on temperament and assumes that if they are similar then both the parent and child

should have comparable needs from television. This suggests that parents would be more likely to understand what mediation guidelines would be appropriate for their child. Furthermore, children may be more responsive to that course of action because their parent has appropriately chosen mediation guidelines that fit their television needs, which in turn could result in greater compliance to those guidelines. This idea of similarity between the parent and child on temperament is referred to as goodness of fit in the literature.

Temperament and Goodness of Fit

The researchers introduced the concept goodness of fit in order to understand the interaction of these behavioral traits with social environments (Thomas & Chess, 1977). This idea explains that normal development can occur when a good fit between the environment and a child's disposition exists, whereas a poor fit with the environment can result in maladaptive functioning. This means, for example, that if a child's typical behavior patterns are consistent with the way a parent thinks then normal and stress free development can occur in the household. However, if these behaviors are inconsistent, this can cause stress in the household and lead to behavior problems in the child. Important to the understanding of this concept is that the gauge of consistent or inconsistent behavior is dependent on the culture in which the child lives; maladaptive behavior in one culture may be adaptive in another.

Past studies have tested this by looking at the similarity or fit between the parent's and the child's reported temperament. The majority of studies on goodness of fit in relation to child behavior find that better fit between parent and child on temperament results in more adaptive behaviors in the child, and weak fit results in less adaptive

behaviors (Gordon, 1981; Nitz, Lerner, Lerner, & Talwar, 1988; Paterson & Sanson, 1999; Talwar et al., 1990). A few studies specifically address as part of their analysis conduct problems in children that include reports about how much they follow rules. Two studies were conducted by the same group of researchers and used the same measures in each of the analyses. They collected conduct data from both the child's parent and teacher. The first study was conducted by Nitz, Lerner, Lerner, and Talwar (1988) who sampled 150 sixth graders and the other was by Talwar et al. (1990) who followed 75 subjects from the beginning of sixth grade to the end of seventh grade. Both studies found that a weaker fit between the parent and child results in more reported conduct problems by the parent specifically, which include behavioral tendencies like disobeying school rules, stealing, and lying. Similarly, Paterson and Sanson in 1999 interviewed 74 children between 5 and 6 years old. This analysis used as its dependent variable a combined measure of social skills rated by both the child's parent and teacher, which included estimates of how much the child followed rules, their confidence levels, estimates of independence, and self-control. They found that a stronger fit between the parent and child on temperament decreased the social skills of the child. Given these findings, the present study assumes that goodness of fit should result in similar findings for television, such that as goodness of fit increases children should be more likely to comply with their parent's mediation guidelines.

Another variable that is consistently analyzed, in conjunction with temperament characteristics, as an important variable that determines compliance are parental discipline guidelines. These studies more often than not look at what positive or negative behaviors are associated with different parenting techniques (Brar, 2003; Bates et al.,

1998; Braungart-Rieker et al., 1997; Chen, Li, Hou, & Chen, 2003; Harris, 1998; Rubin et al., 2002; Rubin, Hastings, Chen, Stewart, & McNichol, 1998; Schwebel & Bounds, 2003; Schwebel, Brezaussek, Ramey, & Ramey, 2004). This is typically studied by looking at the parenting style within the home.

Parental Traits and Mediation Strategies

The most popular categories developed for parenting styles are derived from the interaction of two vectors, parental warmth and parental strictness, resulting in three dominant styles: *Authoritative*, *Authoritarian*, and *Permissive* (Baumrind, 1971; 1978; 1991). Authoritative parents are warm but strict, usually expecting their children to do what they say but they also encourage autonomy. Authoritarian parents expect children to obey but they are more controlling by being less warm, stricter, and do not encourage autonomy. Finally, permissive parents are very warm, but lenient. They do not demand much from their children but they do respond to their child's needs and desires.

A few studies have looked at parental involvement as predictive of selecting specific mediation strategies. Walsch, Lacsniak, and Carlson (1998) surveyed 151 mothers of children in third through sixth grade and found that authoritative parents tend to rely more on themselves to teach children about what to consume on television, whereas authoritarian parents rely more on the government or regulation for ideas of how to decrease their child's use of the television. Also consistent with these findings, a study by Fujioka and Austin (2002) surveyed 216 parents of children between third and ninth grade and found that parents with a more open communication style used discussion based intervention strategies and parents who were more controlling tended to reinforce television messages. However, Greenberg, Hofshire, Eastin, and Lachlan (2002) in their

analysis of 613 married and unmarried mothers, found that mothers high on the authoritative style reported using restrictive mediation the most instead of the more common result of active mediation, and this was followed by active mediation and co-viewing. Similar to this finding, Abelman (1999, 2001) found that parents who used both communication –oriented parenting strategies and deprivation discipline were more likely than not to use television ratings or restrictive mediation guidelines to control their child’s television use. Finally, Warren et al. (2002) interviewed 321 parents of children 1 to 17 years of age and separated parental engagement into time spent doing domestic and leisure activities. In this investigation, engagement in leisure activities only predicted restrictive and active mediation and domestic engagement predicted all three mediation styles.

Although these studies do not comment on the effects of using these strategies under different parenting styles, they do suggest that parents who are involved in their child’s life are more likely to use some type of concrete mediation style. And there is a tendency for authoritative parents to use mediation tactics found to be more beneficial to the child. This finding is consistent with what one would expect given that authoritative parents guide their children while still encouraging individual thought in a caring manner. Additionally, one recent study does suggest that active mediation and concept-oriented communication, which are similar to the authoritative parenting style, are both better at reducing the negative effects of television advertising than restrictive mediation and socio-oriented communication, which are similar to the authoritarian parenting style (Buijzen & Valkenburg, 2005). Moreover, these investigations do not address compliance with the parents' chosen mediation strategy. For example, if authoritative parents are

using more effective strategies, are these parents actually likely to obtain compliance from their children from the guidelines they have for television use?

Several psychological studies have tested parenting styles as predictive of compliance. Compliance in these investigations seems best to fit the definition advanced by Epps, Park, Huston, and Ripke (2005), where “compliance is not merely obedience, but conforming to expectations without constant supervision” (p. 163). Investigations on this topic have indicated that authoritative parenting results in committed compliance whereas more authoritarian approaches result in noncompliance or situational compliance, where the child only complies at specific times and/or in specific places (Brar, 2003; Bates, Petit, Dodge, & Ridge, 1998; Braungart-Rieker et al., 1997; Chen et al., 2003; Harris, 1998; Rubin et al., 2002; Rubin et al., 1998). This finding suggests that authoritative parenting can result in children following guidelines when the parent is not present, for example when a child is in another home.

Two sets of findings are typically reported in these studies; parenting styles that are associated with positive behavioral and negative behavioral outcomes. Typically, more involved, caring parents (i.e., parents with an authoritative parenting style) have been shown to reduce negative or antisocial behaviors from kids with a temperament style that makes them more prone to poor behavior. Brar (2003), interviewing 160 Indian immigrant mothers in Canada and their kindergarten or first grade children, found that authoritative parenting was associated with less problem behavior for children who: were impulsive, had negative emotionality, had a lack of task persistence, and were inhibited. Similarly, Rubin et al. (2002), who longitudinally tested the same relationship with 88 mothers and children from toddler age to 4 years old, found that mothers with uninhibited

children who used less controlling parenting strategies had children that expressed more socially intelligent behaviors at age four. Schwebel and his colleagues have also investigated temperament and parenting and found that children who are exposed to positive parenting are at a reduced risk for unintentional childhood injury (Schwebel & Bounds, 2003; Schwebel et al., 2004).

Investigations also show that parents who are less involved or more demanding than authoritative parents (i.e., authoritarian and permissive parents) strengthen negative behaviors in children. For example, in a study where 57 toddlers and their mothers were interviewed, children showed less committed and highly aversive compliance when parents did not guide their behavior and were more controlling (Braungart-Rieker et al., 1997). Similarly in the Brar (2003) investigation, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles were associated positively with problem behavior. And for children in middle childhood, two studies conducted in the Bates, et al. (1998) examination found that children between 7 and 11 years old that had parents who were highly reactive and used more prohibitions, warnings and scolding to protect them from harm were less likely to display problem behavior than children from less reactive or more permissive environments. Given these sets of findings and the conceptual definition of the parenting styles, it seems that as the warmth and strictness of the parent decreases, so does compliance. Therefore, this study anticipates that the most compliance will be obtained from more authoritative parents, the least from permissive parents, and authoritarian parenting will elicit compliance levels somewhere in between the other two.

Research Model and Hypotheses

The first goal of this research study is to answer a critical question about parental mediation. A research study has not documented whether children comply with the parental guidelines that mediation researchers have identified. This question is important to answer because the effect studies associated with these parental guidelines could be partially attributed to noncompliance, rather than the effectiveness of the strategy. Therefore, the first research question put forth by this study is:

RQ1: Do children comply with their parent's guidelines for television?

Second, this study aims to integrate psychological variables associated with other compliance behaviors into the media literature in order to enrich the understanding of parental mediation. An ecological framework suggests that environmental factors like behavioral similarity and parenting style are important factors in the system of the many variables that can affect the choice parents make for guidelines associated with television use and whether children follow those guidelines (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). In addition, interdisciplinary comparisons help to guide research questions and confirm processes across different types of social behaviors.

Other researchers have contributed to the media literature by applying psychological principles and concepts to the study of media effects on children (Cantor, 1998; Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963; Singer & Singer, 2001). Cantor (1998) has referenced Piaget's (2000) stages of cognitive development to help guide research on how well children can interpret messages on television. Similarly, psychological models

have been applied to media effects research by psychology academics such as Albert Bandura in his famous Bobo doll studies (Bandura, 1978). In addition, a handbook of children and the media was put together by Singer & Singer (2001) in order to appeal to many groups of researchers, including child development and communication. And several researchers have used environmental factors in their study of mediation as well (i.e., Buerkel-Rothfuss & Buekel, 2001; Warren et al., 2002; Warren, 2003, 2005). These researchers have created a bridge between psychology, ecological frameworks and communication research within the media realm and this study hopes to contribute to that body of research.

In addition, it is important for researchers to test whether the results from child development researchers are in fact consistent in media research. The communication in child psychological studies is typically between individuals or family based. The media research environment also has interpersonal and family communication but introduces a new interaction, a one way communication from the television to the viewer. Therefore, social scientists cannot just apply findings from one discipline to another. Comparisons need to be made because the direction of communication flow changes how the established model operates.

Given this rationale, there are a few questions this research study can answer that will enrich our understanding of parental mediation and will introduce psychological variables into the process. The goal is to establish the effect of goodness of fit and parenting style on a parent's efforts to mediate television viewing. The research has established that compliance is related to the goodness of fit between parent and child temperament styles and the parenting style in the home. When the fit is good, research

has established that children are more likely to follow the rules. It seems that this occurs because the good fit probably makes a parent more likely to understand what their child seeks from television because they probably have similar needs from television.

Therefore, the child is more likely to comply with the parent's choice of mediation style because their guidelines more likely address the child's needs. Parenting style is also related to the process where more involved, non-controlling parents (authoritative) have been shown to choose mediation styles that are associated with better outcomes. In addition, authoritative parenting is associated with more compliance than authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. In general studies on parenting style have found that the more involved and the less controlling a parent, the better their children responded to their requests. Given this rationale, this study anticipates that authoritative parenting will result in the most compliance, permissive the least and authoritarian somewhere in the middle.

Many investigations have tested temperament, parenting style and compliance simultaneously, which have examined behavioral characteristics such as problem behavior (i.e., Brar, 2003), childhood injury (i.e., Schwebel et al., 2004), and social competence (i.e., Rubin et al., 2002). These studies focus on undesirable behavioral outcomes that are reduced with the use of certain parental discipline. Similarly, this study focuses on problematic television content, or content associated with negative effects from television exposure. The hope is that compliance to more effective parental mediation guidelines will result in a reduction in the negative effects from exposure to such content.

Based on this rationale, the model presented in Figure 1 will be tested in this investigation. The expected relationships are as follows:

H1: As goodness of fit on temperament increases, child compliance to mediation will increase.

H2: For each style of parental mediation, it is anticipated that children who have a parent that is the authoritative parenting style will demonstrate the greatest child compliance to parental mediation, followed by children who have a parent who has an authoritarian parenting style. The least child compliance to parental mediation is predicted to result from the permissive parenting style.

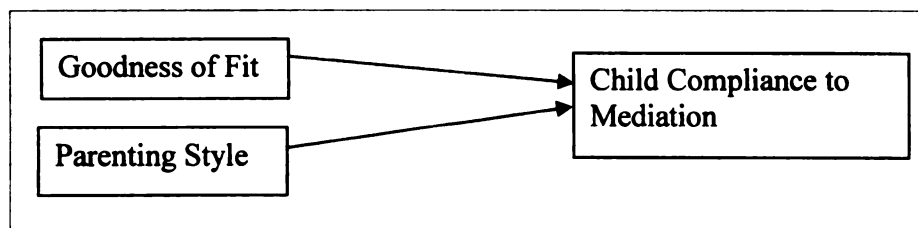


Figure 1. Research Model

Additional Research Questions

In addition to the main questions for this research study, a few additional questions can be answered from the data collected. It was mentioned earlier that parents and children tend to report different information when asked about media related activities (Fujioka & Austin, 2003; Greenberg et al., 1971; Rossiter & Robertson, 1975).

Parental discipline is a sensitive topic and could result in subjects wanting to please the researcher (Rossiter & Robertson, 1975). Because participants in studies on parental mediation usually vary across studies to be parents or children, this study will take the opportunity to document the difference in parent and child answers when asked about parental mediation guidelines, compliance, and compare that to their differences on temperament. Perhaps, differences on stable characteristics can explain different reports on other behaviors. Moreover, this presents an opportunity to see how discrepant answers are for these types of parental guidelines and whether researchers need to change their methodology to more accurately interpret what mediation strategies are used and how often. Therefore, the following research questions will be explored:

RQ2: Do child and parent reports of mediation styles and child compliance to those mediation styles differ from each other?

RQ3: Are the differences between parent and child reports on mediation styles and child compliance to those mediation styles correlated with the goodness of fit on temperament between a parent and child?

Finally, the data allows an analysis of the combined effect of parenting style and mediation style on compliance. Each mediation style matches very clearly to a parenting style and the studies that have investigated parenting style and family communication patterns do suggest that certain parental disciplines are associated with mediation guideline choices (Abelman, 1999, 2001; Buijzen & Valkenburg, 2005; Fujioka &

Austin, 2002; Greenberg et al., 2002; Walsch et al., 1998; Warren et al., 2002). Active mediation matches with authoritative, restrictive mediation with authoritarian and passive co-viewing with permissive parenting. Although a few mediation studies have looked at the relationship between parenting styles and the use of certain mediation styles, a study has not investigated the predictive power of the combination of parenting style and mediation style on compliance. This study is a good opportunity to do such an analysis because compliance to mediation has a direct connection to both of these variables. Also, this analysis contributes to our understanding of these psychological variables explanatory power for media processes. This question answers whether media related characteristics have more predictive power than psychological related characteristics. Therefore, one final research question is advanced:

RQ4: What is the relative effect of parenting style and parental mediation style on child compliance to mediation?

METHOD

Participants

A total of 351 parents were contacted about the study and were asked to fill out a survey and if their child could be interviewed at school. The response rate was 31%, with a total of 107 parents who responded that their child could be interviewed and one parent who filled out the survey but said their child could not be interviewed. Five of the child interviews had to be excluded because the child was not able to respond adequately to the questions because they spoke English as a second language. Therefore, 102 parent and child pairs were able to be used in the analysis for this project.

Elementary and middle schools in the Holt, East Lansing and Okemos areas of Michigan participated in the project. As noted earlier, middle childhood, between 7 and 12 years of age, was the target age for children in this study. In addition, Nathanson (2001_b) suggests that children between second and sixth grade usually provide a sample that is not too young or too old to receive a range of mediation styles. A total of ten classrooms agreed to participate in the study, which included two 2nd grade, two 3rd grade, one 4th grade, two 5th grade and three 6th grade classrooms. Four of the classrooms, which were fifth and sixth grade, were team taught so they included double the number of students.

The majority of the parent participants were mothers (82%), but also fathers (14%), stepfathers (2%), stepmothers (1%), and female guardians (1%) filled out the survey. Parents on average were 39 years old ($SD = 6.87$, $Range = 26.00 - 62.00$).

Parents reported that most children had at least one sibling ($M = 1.67$, $SD = 1.23$, *Median* and *Mode* = 1.00, *Range* = 1.00 – 7.00) and were first in the birth order ($M = 1.83$, $SD = 1.18$, *Median* = 2.00, *Mode* = 1.00, *Range* = 1.00 – 8.00). For the children, 58% were female and 42% were male and they ranged in age from 7 to 12 years old ($M = 9.74$, $SD = 1.51$).

Procedure

A packet was sent home with each eligible child for their parent or guardian to review. This packet included a consent form for both the parent and child to participate in the study and a survey for the parent to fill out. The instructions detailed that the parent who sets the guidelines for the child's use of television was to fill out the survey. The child's name was included throughout the survey in order to keep reminding the parent of what child in their home to think of when they filled out the survey. The instrument included questions to assess the parent's temperament, parenting style, mediation style, child compliance to that mediation, and demographics. In order to answer the questions about mediation style and compliance, parents were asked if their child watches programs from a list of problematic Saturday morning programs. If the parent reported that their child does not watch any of the programs on the list they were instructed to stop the survey at that point. In order to obtain all relevant information, demographic information was collected in the middle of the survey, after questions about temperament and parenting style, but before the questions about television shows. If the parent returned both a consent form and a completed survey then their child could be interviewed and the data could be used for analysis.

Children were interviewed at their school by trained undergraduate and graduate students. Training was administered by the primary researcher so that each interviewer was comfortable going at a reasonable pace for children of this age and able to handle misunderstood questions. Also, interviewers used a response option card so that children could easily identify and remember what options they had for answering the questions (see Appendix B). In addition, the interview was written so that the child was asked about the guidelines set by the parent who filled out the survey. Each question reminded the child to think about; for example, their mom, dad or guardian when answering the questions. Children were asked about their own temperament, their parent's mediation style, their compliance to that mediation style, and demographics. As with the parents, children were asked if they watch any programs from a list of problematic Saturday morning shows. If they answered that they did not watch any of the programs they stopped the interview at that time. Again, demographic information was administered before the question about television shows they view in order to get all relevant information for each participant. Both the parent survey and child interview had multiple orders, which resulted in no order effects.

Measures (See Appendix A for the Parent Survey and Appendix B for the Child Interview)

Each measure is summarized below with descriptive and reliability information provided. Reliability was evaluated based on Nunnally's (1978, p. 245) recommendation that an alpha at or above .70 is acceptable. However, lower reliability may be considered adequate when a new measure is being tested in order to find out how to refine the measure and increase its usefulness (Hocking, Stacks, & McDermott, 2003, p. 135).

Temperament. In order to determine the goodness of fit estimate both the parents and children answered questions to measure their own temperament. This was measured with only three dimensions (Activity Level-Sleep, Approach/Withdrawal, Task Orientation) of the Windle and Lerner (1986) 54-item revised DOTS-R temperament scale. The decision was made to test fewer dimensions to reduce the length of the survey so that more participants were likely to take part in the study. These dimensions were chosen because they have been associated with television viewing in past research (Sherry, 1998). This resulted in a 19-item scale. Response options for all dimensions were the recommended options with one additional category that captured answers that fell somewhere in the middle: “usually FALSE,” “more FALSE than true,” “in the MIDDLE,” “more TRUE than false,” and “usually TRUE.”

The original DOTS scale was developed in order to effectively test temperament at different ages (Lerner, Palermo, Spiro & Nesselroade, 1982). The revision of the scale resulted in more response options, rewording of some ambiguous items and some items being modified, excluded and generated to improve the measurement of temperament with this scale. This version of the scale has been used to reliably test temperament in children, adolescents and young adults (Windle, 1992). There are three versions of the scale, one for young children from preschool to third or fourth grade which is intended to be filled out by a parent or guardian that knows the child very well (Windle & Lerner, 1986). A version also exists for older children (from late elementary school through high school) and for adults (after high school) which are intended to be filled out by the individual themselves to assess their own temperament (Windle & Lerner, 1986). This study made the decision to use the older child version for all of the children in the study

so that data collection could be consistent across all of the children, instead of some temperament items about the child being filled out by the child and some by parents.

On the survey for parents and the interview for children one of the differences are the instructions for how to answer the questions. In addition, sometimes the wording of the statement was still hard to understand for the child, so some of the statements had to be repeated in slightly different language. Problems with understanding the statements were identified within the first 10 to 20 interviews and recommended rewording for statements was added to the interview so that all interviewers used the same language (see Appendix B). In general, this alternative wording was used for all of the second and third grade interviews, this was the age group not intended to use this version of the scale, and only for older children if they could not understand the statement.

The first dimension was Activity Level-Sleep which is four items of statements like “I move a great deal in my sleep.” Responses were averaged to form a single Activity Level-Sleep score, where higher scores on the scale indicated greater levels of this dimension. Responses from both parents ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 1.32$, $Range = 1.00 - 5.00$, $\alpha = .91$) and children ($M = 3.30$, $SD = 1.19$, $Range = 1.00 - 5.00$, $\alpha = .83$) resulted in adequate reliability. One case had to be dropped from the parent analysis because the individual did not respond to this dimension, so only 101 parents make up the descriptive information above.

The second dimension was Approach/Withdrawal which is seven items of statements like “I can make myself at home anywhere.” Responses were averaged to form a single Approach/Withdrawal score, where higher scores on the scale indicated greater levels of this dimension. For parents ($M = 3.29$, $SD = 0.70$, $Range = 1.00 - 5.00$, α

= .68) the responses were at a marginally adequate reliability level, but children ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 0.62$, $Range = 1.83 - 5.00$, $\alpha = .46$) were very inconsistent with their answers. One item was dropped from the parent scale because the inter-item correlations were not consistent (α with all items = .71). The item was "I usually move towards new objects shown to me." For the children, the same item was dropped as well to calculate the above means and to have a consistent measure across parents and children (α with all items = .44). In the end, the entire dimension was dropped from the analysis of goodness of fit because the child answers were too inconsistent.

Finally, the third dimension was task orientation which is eight items. This dimension is normally used to test pre-school and elementary school children and for adult populations it is split into Distractibility and Persistence. This study used only Task Orientation for both parents ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 0.77$, $Range = 1.67 - 5.00$, $\alpha = .81$) and their children ($M = 3.28$, $SD = 0.71$, $Range = 1.67 - 5.00$, $\alpha = .61$) in order to effectively compare their responses. The level of reliability for the child answers is unacceptable, but may have occurred because the younger children were struggling to understand the questions. Future research may want to adjust who answers these questions or reevaluate the wording of the questions for younger age groups. This issue is discussed in more detail in the discussion section, but the decision was made to use the child answers in the estimate of goodness of fit. The reliability was not low enough to disregard the scale because the use of the scale with a younger group is similar to a test of a new measure. Task Orientation included example items like "Once I take something up, I stay with it." Responses were averaged to form a single Task Orientation score, where higher scores on the scale indicated greater levels of this dimension. For this dimension, two items were

dropped from both the parent (α with all items = .83) and child (α with all items = .65) estimates because of inconsistent inter-item correlations. These items were “I stay with an activity for a long time” and “Things going on around me can not take me away from what I am doing.”

Goodness of fit. To derive a goodness of fit estimate an absolute value difference score was calculated by subtracting the mean of the child’s score on the temperament dimensions from the mean of the parent’s score on the temperament dimensions. Reliability problems with the dimension of Approach/Withdrawal for children required that it be dropped from this estimate ($M = 2.25$, $SD = 1.15$, $Range = 0.17 - 5.58$).

Parenting style. A series of investigations by Robinson and his colleagues (Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 1995; Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen, & Hart, 2001) resulted in a 32-item scale that reliably tests parenting styles according to the dimensions suggested by Baumrind (1971) and Maccoby and Martin (1983). The scale has been designed for parents to report on their own parenting style and these questions were only asked of the parent in this study. Response options for all items were “never,” “once in awhile,” “about half of the time,” “very often,” and “always.”

The authoritative parenting style contained 15 items. There are three sub-factors within this style, the first of which is the *connection* dimension, which has items like “I am responsive to our child’s feelings and needs.” The next set of questions taps a *regulation* dimension and contains items like “I emphasize the reasons for rules.” Finally, there is an *autonomy granting* dimension with questions like “I take into account our child’s preferences in making plans for the family.” Responses were averaged to form a

single authoritative parenting score, where higher scores on the scale indicated greater levels of this parenting style ($M = 4.14$, $SD = 0.44$, $Range = 2.67 - 4.87$, $\alpha = .81$).

The authoritarian parenting style contained 12 items. There are three sub-factors within this style as well. The first of which is the *physical coercion* dimension, which has items like “I use physical punishment as a way of disciplining our child.” The next set of questions taps a *verbal hostility* dimension and contains items like “I yell or shout when our child misbehaves.” Finally, there is a *punitive* dimension which has questions like “I punish by taking privileges away from our child with little if any explanations.”

Responses were averaged to form a single authoritarian parenting score, where higher scores on the scale indicated greater levels of this parenting style ($M = 1.66$, $SD = 0.35$, $Range = 1.08 - 2.73$, $\alpha = .69$).

Finally, the permissive parenting style contains only five items, which are defined as an *indulgent* dimension. This dimension has items like “I give into our child when the child causes a commotion about something.” Responses were averaged to form a single permissive parenting score, where higher scores on the scale indicated greater levels of this parenting style ($M = 2.02$, $SD = 0.57$, $Range = 1.20 - 3.80$, $\alpha = .67$). The reliability estimates for both authoritarian and permissive parenting were both just under the acceptable level because of a possible self perception bias. This is discussed in more detail in the discussion section, but the decision was made to use the measures for analyses.

Problematic content. A list of programs was used as a reference point for both parents and children to think about when answering the questions about parental mediation styles and the child’s compliance to those mediation styles. Choosing the

programs to reference is a very important part of measuring mediation styles. Nathanson and her colleagues have developed the most reliable measurement of mediation and they recommend asking about these styles in relation to both entertainment and informational/educational television because parents do tend to use mediation techniques differently depending on the content their child is viewing (Nathanson, 1999). However, the goal of this study is to understand when children comply with their parent's guidelines for television as a way of measuring how often they are being protected from harmful television content. Therefore, problematic television content was tested. According to the National Television Violence Study [NTVS], problematic content exists in all programming aimed at children aired between 6 a.m. and 8 p.m. (NTVS, 1998). These investigations cite that children's programming contains more high risk messages than any other genre of television programming (NTVS, 1998). As a result, this investigation selected Saturday morning programs as a sample because it contains many hours of children's programming and is aired on a day when parents are at home with their children.

A recent content analysis by the Parents Television Council [PTC] (2006) stated that the most common stations to air children's television programming are *ABC Family*, *Cartoon Network*, *The Disney Channel*, *Nickelodeon*, *ABC*, *FOX*, *NBC*, and *the WB*. The PTC (2006) found that these programs aired between 7 a.m. and 1 p.m. on Saturday mornings. The Saturday morning program schedule of the cable company in the geographic region of this sample (East Lansing Comcast) was obtained from tvguide.com listings (2006). The program schedule was reviewed and children's programming was primarily available between the same 7 a.m. to 1 p.m. timeslot on the same channels

listed above. Therefore, all the children's programs within these timeslots on the above channels were considered for the list of problematic programs.

The next step was determining the criteria for selecting programs that were problematic. Although NTVS (1998) has already determined that these programs are all high risk, the television ratings system was used to select a group of programs that parents may also identify as problematic when developing guidelines of television use for their child. Although the ratings systems have problems and many parents are skeptical of their usefulness (Greenberg & Hnilo, 2001), this was a way of reducing the number of programs available to test. Therefore, ratings were identified for each of the programs considered for the sample.

For children's programs, the majority of television ratings are one of the following: *TV-Y*, *TV-Y7*, *TV-Y7-FV*, *TV-G*, or *TV-PG*. Programs with the ratings *TV-Y* and *TV-G* are appropriate for all ages, whereas *TV-Y7* programs are designed for children above 7 years old and more specifically "for children who have acquired the developmental skills needed to distinguish between make-believe and reality" (TV Parental Guidelines, 2006). *TV-Y7-FV* is defined exactly the same as *TV-Y7*, but is given this content label because it contains "fantasy violence which is more intense or more combative than other programs in this category" (TV Parental Guidelines, 2006). And finally, programs rated *TV-PG* are programs that "parents may find unsuitable for younger children" (TV Parental Guidelines, 2006). Given the definitions of the TV ratings and the age of the sample, programs labeled as *TV-Y7*, *TV-Y7-FV* and *TV-PG* were considered the most problematic.

Even after narrowing down the list of shows to these ratings, 34 programs still remained on the list. The final list was determined by choosing five programs that are designed for female child audiences, five for male audiences, and five for a mixed audience. The goal was to ensure that all children in the sample had the best chance of watching at least one of the shows on the list. The majority of programs rated at these levels were designed for male audiences; therefore, it seemed important to choose these non-randomly so that the females that were interviewed for the study had programs that they were likely to watch.

Only four programs were clearly identified as shows for female audiences; these included *W.I.T.C.H.*, *Darcy's Wild Life*, *Bratz*, and *Winx Club*. One additional popular program for females with a lot of visible physical violence was chosen to even out the sample, *Kim Possible*, which is rated TV-G. For boys, the five programs chosen were *Teenage Mutant Ninja Turtles*, *G.I. Joe Sigma Six*, *Power Rangers*, *Ed, Edd n Eddy*, and *Spider-Man and his Amazing Friends*. Finally, for the mixed sample of shows three programs were chosen from this list, *Grim Adventures of Billy and Mandy*, *Catscratch*, and *Cartoon Cartoon Show*, and the two most popular child programs on the Nielsen Ratings top 10 popular program charts were used to add the last two shows to the mixed group, *Spongebob Squarepants* and *Fairly Odd Parents* (Nielsen Media Research, 2006). This helped to ensure that most children watched one of the shows.

On the survey for both parents and children these shows were listed and a “yes” or “no” question was asked about whether the child watches any of the television programs. If they even watched just one of the programs then the parent and the child continued to fill out the remainder of the survey. Of the 102 children that were included

in the analysis for the study, four children (4%) reported that they did not watch any of these shows, while ten parents (10%) reported that their child did not watch any of these shows. Because some of the parents and children reported that the child did not watch these programs the sample size is referred to in each descriptive report of the mediations styles and compliance questions.

Mediation styles. Over many years, Nathanson and her colleagues have developed reliable measures for mediation, which typically include three mediation styles intended to be asked of the parent: restrictive, active and co-viewing. This investigation asked both parents and children about mediation used in the home. The questions aimed at parents and children differ slightly, please refer to Appendix A and B to see the wording differences for each item. Each scale for the different mediation styles asked the parent or child to keep thinking of the types of programs (the problematic Saturday morning programs) they were asked if the child watches when they answered these questions. Response options for all mediation questions were “never,” “once in awhile,” “about half of the time,” “very often,” and “always.”

The scale developed by Nathanson in 1999 was used as the inspiration for developing new questions to assess a parent’s restrictive mediation. The scale by Nathanson has been validated and shown reasonable reliability across investigations ($\alpha = .82$, 1999 study), but it does not tap all the different kinds of restrictive mediation that may occur and may inevitably exclude some parents because it does not address specific types of rules. The first question on the original Nathanson (1999) scale asks parents whether they have rules about their child’s viewing of television programs. Response options are “no,” “yes,” “I limit how much my child can see this kind of show,” and “yes,

my child is not allowed to watch this kind of show at all" (coded 0 through 2). If parents report using rules, then they are asked to rate how strict they are in enforcing the rules on a scale from 1 (*not at all strict*) to 5 (*very strict*). A score is created by multiplying the two scores together. Higher scores indicate greater restrictive mediation. Therefore, a new set of questions were developed to cover several different ways in which a parent might have restrictions on television use in the home.

The new set of questions developed to measure restrictive mediation of parents was a five item scale. For parents the questions were: "Do you have guidelines in place about the times of day that your child can watch these types of television programs?," "Do you have guidelines in place about how much of this type of television your child can watch (for example, hour or minutes per day, hours or minutes per week)?," "Do you have guidelines in place about what television stations your child can and cannot watch?," "Do you restrict your child to only watching television shows that have a specific TV rating (like TVPG or TV14, etc.)?," and "Do you restrict your child from watching some of these television programs?"

For children the questions were: "Does your [i.e., mom] have rules about what times during the day you watch these televisions shows?," "Does your _____ have rules about how many hours or minutes each day or week you can watch these television shows?," "Does your _____ have rules about what television stations you can and cannot watch?," "Does your _____ only let you watch television shows that have certain TV ratings (like TV PG or TV 14, etc.)?," and "Does your _____ only let you watch some of these TV shows?" Each interviewer had a copy of what the TV ratings look like and their definitions if a child did not understand that particular question. The word "rules" was

used for children and not parents because it would be easier for a child to understand.

Mediation was referred to as “guidelines” and “restrictions” for parents because mediation can encompass more than just restrictions.

Responses were averaged to form a single restrictive mediation score, where higher scores on the scale indicated greater levels of this mediation style. Responses from the parents ($M = 3.46$, $SD = 1.14$, $Range = 1.00 - 5.00$, $n = 91$, $\alpha = .85$) resulted in adequate reliability, but the child answers ($M = 2.90$, $SD = 1.00$, $Range = 1.00 - 5.00$, $n = 98$, $\alpha = .69$) were just under the acceptable level. Considering this was a test of a new measure, this reliability was considered acceptable. However, future analyses may just want to use this measure with parents in order to obtain more reliable answers.

To test active mediation, a six item scale was used that was adapted by Yang and Nathanson (2005_b) from three scales in other mediation studies (Valkenburg et al., 1999; Austin, 1993; Austin, Bolls, Fujioka, & Engelbertson, 1999). Two of the items measure positive mediation (e.g. “how often do you explain why some things actors do are good”, “...tell your child that you like the show”), two capture negative mediation (e.g. “...explain why some things actors do are bad”, “...tell your child that something on TV isn’t really so”), and two capture neutral mediation (e.g. “...explain the motives of TV characters”, “Explain what something on TV really means”). Questions asked on the child interview were worded slightly differently (see Appendix B). Also, one question on the child interview, “how much does your _____, tell you that something on TV isn’t really so,” had to be clarified for some children (see Appendix B). Responses were averaged to form a single active mediation score, where higher scores on the scale indicated greater levels of this mediation style. Responses from both parents ($M = 3.11$,

$SD = 0.90$, $Range = 1.50 - 4.67$, $n = 89$, $\alpha = .88$) and children ($M = 2.73$, $SD = 0.98$, $Range = 1.00 - 4.83$, $n = 98$, $\alpha = .85$) resulted in adequate reliability.

The measurement for co-viewing has just recently been modified in the Yang and Nathanson (2005_a) study. This scale measures both passive (four items) and intentional co-viewing (four items). An example item for passive co-viewing from the parent survey is “For the TV shows we mentioned earlier, how often do you watch the show together because you both like the program” and for intentional co-viewing, “...watch the show together for the benefit of the child.” In this study comparison questions for children could only be translated for passive co-viewing (see Appendix B). Intentional co-viewing questions were still asked, but only from the parent. For passive co-viewing, responses were averaged to form a single passive mediation score, where higher scores on the scale indicated greater levels of this mediation style. Responses from both parents ($M = 2.51$, $SD = 0.96$, $Range = 1.00 - 5.00$, $n = 89$, $\alpha = .89$) and children ($M = 2.57$, $SD = 1.05$, $Range = 1.00 - 5.00$, $n = 98$, $\alpha = .85$) resulted in adequate reliability. Parent’s reports of intentional mediation were also reliable ($M = 2.62$, $SD = 0.88$, $Range = 1.00 - 5.00$, $n = 90$, $\alpha = .87$).

Compliance. The last set of questions determined child compliance to each of these mediation styles. For each set of mediation questions, corresponding compliance questions for both the parents and children to answer were generated to measure the definition of compliance provided in the literature review of this manuscript. Originally, these questions were designed so that parents were only to answer the compliance questions if they reported using that mediation style. But, many parents were confused by the instructions and did not answer the corresponding compliance questions. The

instructions were changed and in subsequent data collection parents were given all questions and not given specific directions about what questions to fill out. This procedure was much easier to follow and will be used in the future for similar data collection. Because of this issue, sample sizes vary across the compliance data. For that reason, sample sizes are reported here for all of the descriptive information provided for each compliance scale.

Four compliance scores were generated from these questions for both the parents and the children's reports: the mean of the restrictive mediation compliance questions, the mean of the active mediation compliance questions, the mean of the co-viewing compliance questions and an overall mean of all compliance scores. Response options for all sets of questions were "never," "once in awhile," "about half of the time," "very often," and "always." The questions below are the parent version of the questions. Please see Appendix B for the questions from the child interview, which are almost exactly the same.

Compliance to restrictive mediation questions were "Does your child follow these guidelines/restrictions at home?" and "Does your child follow these guidelines/restrictions when they are not with you?" Responses from both parents ($M = 4.04$, $SD = 0.88$, $Range = 1.00 - 5.00$, $n = 56$, $\alpha = .80$) and children ($M = 4.46$, $SD = 0.78$, $Range = 1.50 - 5.00$, $n = 96$, $\alpha = .73$) resulted in adequate reliability.

For compliance to active mediation, the questions were "Does your child accept your evaluations of the show's content?," "Does your child understand your evaluations of the show's content?," "Does your child remember your evaluations of the show's content when you are at home?," and "Does your child remember your evaluations of the

show's content when they are not with you?" Responses from both parents ($M = 3.64$, $SD = 0.74$, $Range = 1.50 - 5.00$, $n = 69$, $\alpha = .85$) and children ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 0.79$, $Range = 1.75 - 5.00$, $n = 96$, $\alpha = .72$) resulted in adequate reliability.

The co-viewing compliance questions were originally intended to measure compliance to intentional co-viewing, but the questions respond to passive co-viewing strategies as well. Because parental intentional co-viewing practices could not be asked of both the parent and child because of the nature of the activity, these compliance questions are thought of as compliance to co-viewing in general. The following questions were asked: "Does your child respond positively to you watching TV with them?," "Does your child seek you out at home to watch TV with them?," and "Does your child seek out other adults to watch TV with them when they are not with you?" Responses from both parents ($M = 2.98$, $SD = 0.73$, $Range = 1.33 - 5.00$, $n = 75$, $\alpha = .61$) and children ($M = 2.80$, $SD = 0.83$, $Range = 1.33 - 5.00$, $n = 90$, $\alpha = .50$) were unreliable and the results for this type of mediation compliance should be interpreted with caution. This issue is discussed further in the discussion section.

Additionally, an overall compliance to mediation score was constructed by taking the mean of all compliance scores for each type of mediation. An average score was calculated for both parents ($M = 3.49$, $SD = 0.65$, $Range = 1.00 - 5.00$, $n = 83$) and children ($M = 3.81$, $SD = 0.62$, $Range = 1.88 - 5.00$, $n = 98$).

Demographics. Finally, children and parents were both asked for demographic information. In order to effectively control for variables that have been shown to have an effect on mediation style in past studies, children were asked for their gender, age, and birth order. Parents were asked for their gender, age, income, number of people in their

household, their occupation, and their child's birth order. Income information was unreliable so the income variable, number of people in the household, and the occupation variables were dropped from the study. Parent gender was also not evaluated because most parents who filled out the survey were females.

Only two variables resulted in any significant relationship with the study variables: the age of both the child and parent. The child's age resulted in many significant correlations. In general children who were older received more authoritarian ($r(102) = .21, p < .05$) and permissive ($r(102) = .28, p < .01$) parent discipline. Younger children on the other hand were more similar to their parents on temperament ($r(102) = -.25, p < .05$), were more likely to receive restrictive mediation (parent, $r(91) = -.36, p < .01$; child, $r(98) = -.26, p < .01$) and to comply with that restrictive mediation (parent, $r(56) = -.27, p < .05$; child, $r(96) = -.34, p < .01$). Finally, younger children were in general more likely to comply with active (child, $r(96) = -.26, p < .01$) and co-viewing mediation (parent, $r(75) = -.28, p < .05$) as well.

The parent age was only informative for co-viewing practices. For both the parent report of passive ($r(72) = -.26, p < .05$) and intentional mediation ($r(86) = -.23, p < .05$), as the parent's age increased these practices decreased.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics, reliability estimates, and zero-order correlations for all measures are reported in Tables 1 and 2. Please note that the sample size varies across variables because some parents misinterpreted the survey instructions and did not answer all or any of the questions regarding child compliance to mediation. In addition, some of the sample reported that the children did not watch the television shows asked about on the survey. They were instructed, in that case, not to complete the remainder of the survey, which included the questions about parental mediation style and child compliance to mediation. Also, an overall child compliance score was constructed for both the parent report and the child report of child compliance to mediation by taking the mean of all scores related to child compliance. Finally, effect sizes for mean differences are reported using Cohen's *d* (Cohen, 1988). The rule of thumb for interpreting this effect size is that a small effect is anything below 0.20, a medium effect is anything between 0.20 and 0.80, and a large effect is anything above 0.80.

Research Question 1

The first research question asked whether children comply with their parent's guidelines for television. A descriptive analysis of the reports from parents about child compliance to mediation suggested that, on average, overall child compliance happens "half of the time" ($M = 3.49$, $SD = 0.65$, $Range = 1.00 - 5.00$, $n = 83$). Parent estimates of child compliance to restrictive mediation were, on average, "very often" ($M = 4.04$, $SD = 0.88$, $Range = 1.00 - 5.00$, $n = 56$). Child compliance to active mediation were reported

as mid-range by parents ($M = 3.64$, $SD = 0.74$, $Range = 1.50 - 5.00$, $n = 69$). And child compliance to co-viewing mediation, according to parents, resulted in the least child compliance ($M = 2.98$, $SD = 0.73$, $Range = 1.33 - 4.33$, $n = 75$).

Children also reported on their compliance to their parent's mediation styles and they reported similar answers, on average, to their parents. Children reported that their overall child compliance happens about "half of the time" ($M = 3.81$, $SD = 0.62$, $Range = 1.88 - 5.00$, $n = 98$); child compliance to restrictive mediation was, on average, "very often" ($M = 4.46$, $SD = 0.78$, $Range = 1.50 - 5.00$, $n = 96$); child compliance to active mediation was also, on average, "very often" ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 0.79$, $Range = 1.75 - 5.00$, $n = 96$); and co-viewing elicited the least child compliance ($M = 2.80$, $SD = 0.83$, $Range = 1.33 - 5.00$, $n = 90$).

A paired samples t-test was used to examine the difference in the estimates of restrictive, active and co-viewing child compliance for both reports from parents and children. Mean comparisons revealed a significant difference in the estimates of child compliance, where child compliance to restrictive mediation was rated as the highest, followed by child compliance to active mediation. Finally, the least child compliance was reported for co-viewing mediation. This pattern was consistent for both reports. The mean comparisons revealed significant differences between all of the rated child compliance levels (see Table 3 for these mean comparisons).

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis predicted a negative linear relationship between goodness of fit on temperament (indicated by a lower score) and child compliance to mediation. Goodness of fit was calculated by taking the absolute value of the difference between the

mean of the child's scores on the temperament dimensions used for the study (task orientation and activity-sleep) and the mean of the parent's scores. Although this was a directional hypothesis, two-tailed bivariate correlations were computed to determine the significance of this linear relationship. This simplified the interpretation of the findings and provided a more stringent test of the hypothesis. The results were computed for both the parents' and children's responses to the child compliance questions. These were subsequently corrected for attenuation because of the low reliability of some of the children's variables. This calculation corrects the correlation assuming perfect reliability for each variable. Reliabilities used to calculate attenuated correlations are reported in Table 1. It should be noted that a reliability estimate for goodness of fit was estimated by taking the average of the reliabilities for both parents and children for the dimensions of temperament used in the goodness of fit variable (task orientation and activity-sleep).

The responses from parents did not support this hypothesis. Although some relationships were significant, they were all in the wrong direction: child compliance to restrictive mediation was positive ($r(56) = .07, ns$), child compliance to active mediation was positive ($r(69) = .22, ns$), child compliance to co-viewing mediation was positive ($r(75) = .66, p < .01$), and overall child compliance was positive ($r(83) = .37, p < .01$). The responses from the children also supplied no support for this hypothesis. The results were all non-significant and mostly in the wrong direction: child compliance to restrictive mediation resulted in a positive correlation ($r(96) = .13, ns$), child compliance to active mediation was negative ($r(96) = -.02, ns$), child compliance to co-viewing mediation was positive ($r(90) = .03, ns$), and overall child compliance was positive ($r(98) = .05, ns$).

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis predicted a non-directional relationship between parenting style and child compliance to parental mediation. For each style of parental mediation, it was anticipated that children who have a parent that is the authoritative parenting style would demonstrate the greatest child compliance to parental mediation, followed by children who have a parent who has an authoritarian parenting style. The least child compliance to parental mediation is predicted to result from the permissive parenting style.

This hypothesis was evaluated with two-tailed bivariate correlations. A set of correlations was produced from the child compliance reports from both the parents and the children and the parent reports of parenting styles. Again, these correlations were corrected for attenuation and reliability estimates used for that correction can be found in Table 1. In order to test for differences between these correlations, a 95% confidence interval was calculated around the correlations. This confidence interval was then used to evaluate whether the difference between two correlations can be attributed to chance. This comparison is simply made by looking at the 95% confidence interval around the correlations, which includes the range of correlations that are not far enough away from the actual correlation to be considered different. If a correlation is not included in the confidence interval of the correlation it is being compared with, then there is a 95% chance that the two correlations are significantly different. Differences were only tested between variables that could potentially overlap on their confidence intervals.

The reports from both parents and children of child compliance to parental mediation established partial support for this hypothesis. The results are reported for

child compliance to each mediation style and within that section both the parent and the child results are described (see Table 4 for correlations).

Child compliance to restrictive mediation. From the report from parents, the only significant correlation was a negative correlation between the permissive parenting style and child compliance to restrictive mediation ($r(56) = -.42, p < .01$). This correlation ($SE = 0.16, p [-.73 \leq p \leq -.11] = .95$) was not significantly different from the correlation to authoritative ($SE = 0.14, p [-.31 \leq p \leq .23] = .95$) or authoritarian parenting ($SE = 0.13, p [-.40 \leq p \leq .10] = .95$).

The report from children resulted in a similar finding. Again, the only significant correlation was negative between child compliance to restrictive mediation and the permissive parenting style ($r(96) = -.29, p < .01$). This correlation ($SE = 0.11, p [-.51 \leq p \leq -.07] = .95$) was not significantly different from the correlation to authoritative ($SE = 0.10, p [-.07 \leq p \leq .33] = .95$) or authoritarian parenting ($SE = 0.10, p [-.17 \leq p \leq .23] = .95$). Therefore, a consistent finding for compliance to restrictive mediation was established, where as permissive parenting increases, child compliance to restrictive mediation significantly decreases.

Child compliance to active mediation. Parent reports of the relationship between child compliance to active mediation and each parenting style were all significant. A significant positive correlation was detected between child compliance to active mediation and the authoritative parenting style ($r(69) = .25, p < .05$) and a significant negative correlation was detected between compliance to active mediation and the authoritarian ($r(69) = -.36, p < .01$) and permissive parenting styles ($r(69) = -.36, p < .01$).¹ A confidence interval was not needed to test the difference of the correlation

between the authoritative parenting style and child compliance to active mediation because it was significantly positive compared to the other two correlations which were significantly negative. Therefore, this correlation suggests that as authoritative parenting increases, child compliance to active mediation increases. The correlation between child compliance to active mediation and both of the other two parenting styles (authoritarian and permissive) both resulted in exactly the same correlation. Therefore, a significance test was not necessary; no difference was detected. These two relationships both suggest that as authoritarian or permissive parenting increases, child compliance to active mediation decreases.

The reports from children resulted in only one significant finding. A significant negative correlation was found between child compliance to active mediation and the permissive parenting style ($r(96) = -.23, p < .05$). This correlation ($SE = 0.11, p [-.45 \leq p \leq -.01] = .95$) was not significantly different from the correlation to authoritative ($SE = 0.10, p [-.30 \leq p \leq .10] = .95$) or authoritarian parenting ($SE = 0.10, p [-.26 \leq p \leq .14] = .95$). Similar to other results this finding suggests that as permissive parenting increases, child compliance to active mediation decreases.

Child compliance to co-viewing mediation. Parent reports of child compliance to co-viewing mediation resulted in similar correlations to each parenting style as child compliance to active mediation. A significant positive correlation was detected between child compliance and authoritative parenting ($r(75) = .46, p < .01$), a significant negative correlation was found between child compliance to co-viewing compliance and the authoritarian parenting style ($r(75) = -.22, p < .05$), and a significant negative correlation was found between child compliance to co-viewing mediation and the permissive

parenting style ($r(75) = -.22, p < .05$).² As with the test of child compliance to active mediation, the confidence interval was not needed to test the difference of the correlation between the authoritative parenting style and child compliance to co-viewing mediation because it was significantly positive compared to the other two correlations that were significantly negative. Therefore, this correlation suggests that as authoritative parenting increases, child compliance to co-viewing mediation increases. The correlation between child compliance to co-viewing mediation and both of the other two parenting styles (authoritarian and permissive) resulted in exactly the same correlation. Therefore, a significance test was not necessary; no difference was detected. These two relationships both suggest that as authoritarian or permissive parenting increases, child compliance to co-viewing mediation decreases.

The child reports of compliance to co-viewing mediation resulted in no significant correlations to any of the three parenting styles. Therefore, no further testing was needed for these variables.

Overall child compliance to mediation. Parent reports of overall child compliance to parental mediation resulted in two significant findings. A significant negative correlation was found between overall child compliance to mediation and the authoritarian parenting style ($r(83) = -.25, p < .01$) and a significant negative correlation was found between overall child compliance to mediation and the permissive parenting style ($r(83) = -.49, p < .01$). A 95% confidence interval was calculated for each of these variables to determine if the correlations are significantly different from each other. The intervals do not confirm a significant difference in these correlations. The correlation between overall child compliance to mediation and the authoritarian parenting style ($SE =$

0.12, $p [-.49 \leq p \leq -.01] = .95$) was not significantly different from the correlation between overall child compliance to mediation and the permissive parenting style ($SE = 0.14, p [-.76 \leq p \leq -.22] = .95$). Even though the strength of the relationship does not differ, both of these correlations suggest that as authoritarian or permissive parenting increases, overall child compliance to mediation decreases. The same confidence interval for authoritarian parenting was also not significantly different from the correlation between parental reports of overall child compliance and authoritative parenting ($SE = 0.11, p [-.03 \leq p \leq .41] = .95$). But, there was a significant difference between the correlation of child compliance to authoritative parenting ($SE = 0.11, p [-.03 \leq p \leq .41] = .95$) compared to permissive parenting ($SE = 0.14, p [-.76 \leq p \leq -.22] = .95$).

Finally, child reports of overall child compliance to mediation resulted in only one significant finding. Overall child compliance to mediation was significantly negatively correlated to permissive parenting ($r(98) = -.24, p < .01$). This correlation ($SE = 0.11, p [-.46 \leq p \leq -.02] = .95$) was not significantly different from the correlation to authoritative ($SE = 0.10, p [-.17 \leq p \leq .23] = .95$) or authoritarian parenting ($SE = 0.10, p [-.24 \leq p \leq .16] = .95$). Therefore, as permissive parenting increases, overall child compliance to mediation decreases.

Additional Research Questions

Research question 2. One of the additional research questions this study addresses is whether child and parent reports of mediation styles and child compliance to those mediation styles differ from each other. In order to test these differences, two variables were constructed. The first, Mediation Style Differences, was obtained by taking the absolute value of the difference between the parent's report of their mediation style and

the child's report of their parent's mediation style. The second, Child Compliance Differences, was the absolute value of the difference between the parent's report of the child's compliance to their parental mediation and the child's report of their compliance to parental mediation (see Table 5). One-sample t-tests were conducted on each absolute mean value difference to determine whether the mean differences were significantly different from zero (see Table 5). The results suggest that they are all significantly different from zero.

The next analysis tested whether the Mediation Style Differences variable was different across mediation style and whether the Child Compliance Differences variable was different across mediation style. Paired samples t-tests were used to analyze the differences. There were no significant differences by mediation style for the Mediation Style Differences variable or the Child Compliance Differences variable (see Table 6).

Subsequently, another analysis was done to determine whether differences in parent and child reports for parental mediation style were correlated to differences in reports of child compliance to mediation. Therefore, the relationship between the Mediation Style Differences variables and the Child Compliance Differences variables was analyzed with two-tailed bivariate correlations, which were corrected for attenuation. The reliabilities for each of the variables were averaged in order to correct for attenuation (see Table 1 for original reliabilities). The analysis found that the Mediation Style Differences variable and the Child Compliance Differences variable were significantly positively correlated for restrictive mediation ($r(54) = .30, p < .05$) and passive co-viewing ($r(68) = .34, p < .01$), but the positive correlation for active mediation was not significant ($r(66) = .23, p = .08$). So, as the difference in reports increased between the

parent and child for the parent's use of the restrictive and passive co-viewing mediation styles, so did their reports of the child's compliance to those mediation styles.

Finally, the last inquiry for this set of additional questions tested the mean differences between parent and child reports on each type of parental mediation style and child compliance to each mediation style. Paired-sample t-tests were used to analyze whether each type of parental mediation style and child compliance to each mediation style were different depending on whether the parent or child made the report. First, there were two significant differences for the test of mediation styles (see Table 7). Parents reported using restrictive mediation more often ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 1.13$) than their child reported parental use of restrictive mediation ($M = 2.92$, $SD = 1.01$), $t(89) = 4.52$, $p < .01$, $d = 0.48$. Parents also reported using active mediation ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 0.90$) more often than their child reported their use of active mediation ($M = 2.79$, $SD = 0.98$), $t(87) = 2.65$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.28$.

The test of child compliance to each mediation style resulted in three significant differences between parent and child reports (see Table 7). Children reported greater child compliance to active mediation ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 0.82$) than their parent reported ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 0.73$), $t(65) = -3.78$, $p < .01$, $d = 0.46$. Parents reported greater child compliance to co-viewing ($M = 3.01$, $SD = 0.73$) than their children reported ($M = 2.69$, $SD = 0.71$), $t(67) = 2.58$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.31$. And finally, children reported greater overall compliance to parental mediation ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 0.59$) than their parent reported ($M = 3.49$, $SD = 0.66$), $t(81) = 2.92$, $p < .01$, $d = 0.32$.

Research question 3. Another additional research question analyzed whether goodness of fit on temperament was correlated with the Mediation Style Differences

variables and the Child Compliance Differences variables. A positive relationship was predicted for both analyses, anticipating that as temperament differences increase, so will differences on reports of parental mediation style and child compliance to mediation. A two-tailed bivariate correlation was computed for each analysis and corrected for attenuation using the same process as earlier tests. The correlation between goodness of fit and the Mediation Style Differences variables resulted in one significant positive correlation for passive co-viewing ($r(88) = .23, p < .01$). The other correlations were positive but non-significant: restrictive mediation ($r(90) = .02, ns$) and active mediation ($r(88) = .02, ns$).

The correlation between goodness of fit and the Child Compliance Differences variables resulted in one significant correlation in the hypothesized positive direction. Goodness of fit was significantly positively correlated to the Child Compliance Difference variable for co-viewing mediation ($r(68) = .28, p < .05$). Some of the correlations between goodness of fit and the remaining Child Compliance Difference variables were significant but they were all in the wrong direction: child compliance to restrictive mediation was negative ($r(54) = -.19, ns$), child compliance to active mediation was negative ($r(66) = -.25, p < .05$), and overall child compliance to mediation was negative ($r(82) = -.34, p < .01$).

Research question 4. A final additional question this study answered was the relative effect of parenting style and parental mediation style on child compliance to mediation. Six simple simultaneous linear regression analyses were conducted to answer this question. For each regression, the independent variables were determined by matching the parenting style and parental mediation style based on discipline strategy:

authoritarian parenting was matched with restrictive mediation, authoritative with active mediation, and permissive with passive co-viewing. For each regression the matching mediation style and parenting style were regressed on child compliance (restrictive, active or co-viewing). Two regressions were conducted for each type of child compliance; one that tested the parent's answers and one that tested the children's answers (all six regression analyses are displayed in Table 8).

The first two regression analyses tested child compliance to restrictive mediation. The regression with child compliance to restrictive mediation reported by the parent as the dependent variable resulted in a non-significant overall model, $F(2, 53) = 2.04$, $R^2 = .07$, $adj. R^2 = .04$, $p = .14$. The authoritarian parenting style ($\beta = .002$, $p = .99$) and restrictive mediation reported by the parent ($\beta = .27$, $p = .07$) were both positive but non-significant predictors.

The regression with child compliance to restrictive mediation reported by the child also resulted in a non-significant overall model, $F(2, 93) = 2.48$, $R^2 = .05$, $adj. R^2 = .03$, $p = .09$. The restrictive mediation variable reported by the child ($\beta = .23$, $p < .05$) was a positive significant predictor, authoritarian parenting style was not ($\beta = .06$, $p = .54$).

The second two regression analyses tested child compliance to active mediation. The regression with child compliance to active mediation reported by the parent resulted in a non-significant overall model, $F(2, 66) = 1.49$, $R^2 = .04$, $adj. R^2 = .01$, $p = .23$. The authoritative parenting style ($\beta = .20$, $p = .12$) and active mediation reported by the parent ($\beta = .03$, $p = .82$) were both positive but non-significant predictors.

The regression with child compliance to active mediation reported by the child also resulted in a non-significant overall model, $F(2, 93) = 1.64$, $R^2 = .03$, $adj. R^2 = .01$, p

= .20. Both predictors were non-significant: the authoritative parenting style was negatively related ($\beta = -.11, p = .31$) and active mediation reported by the child was positively related ($\beta = .17, p = .11$).

The final two regression analyses tested child compliance to co-viewing mediation. The regression with child compliance to co-viewing mediation reported by the parent resulted in a non-significant overall model, $F(2, 72) = 1.15, R^2 = .03, \text{adj. } R^2 = .004, p = .32$. Both predictors were non-significant: the permissive parenting style was negatively related ($\beta = -.17, p = .17$) and passive co-viewing reported by the parent was positively related ($\beta = .12, p = .34$).

The regression with child compliance to co-viewing mediation reported by the child resulted in a significant overall model, $F(2, 87) = 8.74, R^2 = .17, \text{adj. } R^2 = .15, p < .01$. Passive co-viewing reported by the child ($\beta = .40, p < .01$) was a significant positive predictor, the permissive parenting style was not ($\beta = .06, p = .58$).

Finally, intentional co-viewing was the only parental mediation style not accounted for in the above analyses because there was no way to also ask children if their parent uses that style of mediation. However, the child compliance to co-viewing measure does tap child compliance to intentional co-viewing as well as passive co-viewing. The correlations between intentional co-viewing and child compliance to co-viewing (Table 2) do show a small positive correlation from both the answers from parents ($r(75) = .20, ns$) and children ($r(90) = .15, ns$). Specifically, the correlation from the parent answers would have been significant with 90 subjects. Therefore, further analyses were conducted.

Although the child compliance to co-viewing variable was analyzed with permissive parenting for passive co-viewing, no correlation was detected between intentional mediation and the permissive parenting style ($r(90) = -.01, ns$) (Table 2). A stronger positive correlation was found between the intentional mediation style and the authoritative parenting style ($r(90) = .18, ns$) and a negative correlation with the authoritarian parenting style ($r(90) = -.15, ns$). Given the relationship of intentional co-viewing to the parenting style and parental mediation style variables, four additional simple simultaneous linear regressions were conducted to learn how intentional co-viewing contributes to child compliance to co-viewing. The first two analyses regressed the authoritarian parenting style and intentional co-viewing on child compliance to co-viewing for both the parent and child responses. The second two analyses regressed the authoritative parenting style and intentional co-viewing on child compliance to co-viewing for both the parent and child responses (see Table 9).

The first two regression analyses tested the authoritarian parenting style with intentional co-viewing regressed on child compliance to co-viewing. The regression with child compliance to co-viewing mediation reported by the parent resulted in a non-significant overall model, $F(2, 72) = 2.23, R^2 = .06, adj. R^2 = .03, p = .12$. Both predictors were non-significant: the authoritarian parenting style was negatively related ($\beta = -.13, p = .25$) and intentional co-viewing reported by the parent was positively related ($\beta = .20, p = .09$).

The regression with child compliance to co-viewing mediation reported by the child resulted in a non-significant overall model, $F(2, 80) = 1.02, R^2 = .03, adj. R^2 = .00$,

$p = .37$. The authoritarian parenting style ($\beta = .05, p = .66$) and intentional co-viewing reported by the parent ($\beta = .16, p = .16$) were both positive but non-significant predictors.

The second two regression analyses tested the authoritative parenting style with intentional co-viewing regressed on child compliance to co-viewing. The regression with child compliance to co-viewing mediation reported by the parent resulted in a significant overall model, $F(2, 72) = 6.07, R^2 = .14, \text{adj. } R^2 = .12, p < .01$. The authoritative parenting style ($\beta = .32, p < .01$) was a significant positive predictor, intentional co-viewing reported by the parent was not ($\beta = .21, p = .06$).

The regression with child compliance to co-viewing mediation reported by the child resulted in a non-significant overall model, $F(2, 80) = 0.96, R^2 = .02, \text{adj. } R^2 = .00, p = .39$. Both predictors were non-significant: the authoritative parenting style was negatively related ($\beta = -.03, p = .78$) and intentional co-viewing reported by the parent was positively related ($\beta = .16, p = .17$).

DISCUSSION

A major goal of this study was to determine whether children comply with their parent's guidelines for television. The results for Research Question 1 suggest that children follow their parent's guidelines for television about half of the time overall. Both parents and children reported that children comply with restrictive mediation very often, with active mediation at least half of the time, and with co-viewing once in awhile. The differences between mediation styles did yield medium to large effect sizes. This is an encouraging finding because many mediation effect studies are based on the assumption that children are following the guidelines that their parents give them for watching television. This offers evidence that compliance is relatively common. However, compliance does not happen evenly across all types of mediation; therefore, studies that look at the effect of certain mediation types should alter the interpretation of that effect based on this finding. For example, passive mediation is associated with the least positive outcomes in effect studies (Dorr et al., 1989; Nathanson, 1999; Rothschild & Morgan, 1987) and that might be the case because children are the least likely to comply with this mediation style.

Although these findings were consistent across child and parent reports, results for compliance to co-viewing should be interpreted with caution. The co-viewing compliance reports from children ($\alpha = .50$) and parents ($\alpha = .61$) had unacceptable reliability. Because parents and children had acceptable reliability for their report of the co-viewing mediation style, these reliability problems suggest that the questions used to

measure compliance to co-viewing could be invalid. The intent of the measure was to capture the openness of children to their parent viewing television with them. However, the responses of the parents and children suggest that openness to viewing together does not represent compliance to co-viewing. One possible reason for the validity issue is that compliance to co-viewing may be hard to capture. Co-viewing is defined as parents watching television with their child and does not include interaction verbally or nonverbally. Therefore, no explicit regulations are associated with co-viewing. Because these guidelines are not specifically described to children as a guideline for watching television, it could be hard for parents and children to estimate the child's compliance to this monitoring style. Therefore all results for compliance to passive mediation should be interpreted with caution.

Another methodological issue is inadequate sample size for some of the estimates of child compliance. During data collection, many parents misinterpreted instructions associated with the compliance questions and did not answer them all. Changes were made to the instructions and this resulted in parents filling out all of the compliance questions. Although these instructions were problematic, it is encouraging that the results between parents and children were still very similar even though there was a significant difference in sample size. For this particular question the power was ample to detect significant effects, but for later questions power was insufficient.

Temperament and Compliance

A second goal of the paper was to see how psychological characteristics that are ecologically important to a child's environment and development can affect a child's compliance to their parent's mediation guidelines. The psychological variables used were

(1) the similarity between a parent and child on temperament characteristics associated with media use, and (2) the parenting style or general discipline strategy of the parent.

Hypothesis 1 addressed similarity on temperament characteristics, labeled as goodness of fit, and predicted that as goodness of fit increased, child compliance to parental mediation would also increase. This hypothesis was not supported; the analysis found the opposite pattern of results for both parent and child reports. Results like this indicate that researchers cannot just borrow patterns of relationships from other disciplines without testing. For some reason, this well tested psychological finding did not translate for television mediation.

There are several possible explanations for this result. First, conceptual explanations are explored. One possibility is that similarity leads to a parent trusting that their child will follow their guidelines because the parent and child behave in similar ways. This trust may lend itself to easy deception by the child. Similarly, the child may be better at knowing how to get away with things when they are similar to their parent. If the parent and child are different on temperament, this may lead to parents having stricter enforcement of their mediation guidelines because the difference in behavioral disposition results in the child disobeying parent expectations for behavior more often. The attention by the parent to child compliance with their guidelines may result in greater compliance because the child does not want to get in trouble. A final explanation is that children who have a good fit on temperament with their parent may be more likely to interpret their parents viewing habits as acceptable behavior. Research confirms that parents who co-view with a child more often give the impression that the material is acceptable (Salomon, 1977; Nathanson, 2001_b). In this study the zero-order correlation

between goodness of fit and the child's report of passive co-viewing ($r(98) = -.21, p < .05$) does suggest that a similar temperament between parent and child leads to more passive co-viewing by a parent.

Outside of conceptual reasons for this result, the method of data collection may also provide some viable reasons for this finding. To start with, this study only used three temperament dimensions from the nine dimension temperament concept. These dimensions were chosen because they were associated with television viewing motivations in another study (Sherry, 1998), but there is the possibility that different dimensions effect compliance compared to motivation.

Moreover, even though the temperament measure has been reworked and refined over the years, there were face validity problems with some of the statements. As the methods section described, some children had trouble interpreting specific words and the meaning of some of the statements. The words that created the most problems were "task," "distract," "persist," and "reject." Statements that were hard to understand were "I stay with an activity for a long time," "I usually move towards new objects shown to me," "On meeting a new person I tend to move towards him or her," and "My first response to anything new is to move my head toward it." Even though alternative wording was developed, children were still unreliable in their answers to some of the questions. The task orientation dimension only yielded a reliability estimate of .61, which should be interpreted with caution, and the approach/withdrawal dimension was dropped from the analysis because of unreliable answers. This problem may partly be because the series of investigations that developed this measure did not use these questions on children in second and third grades; parents answered the questions for children of

younger ages (Windle & Lerner, 1986). It would be helpful for future research to test out the most effective wording of these questions for children in this age range because middle childhood is an important age group to study in many disciplines and to have consistent data collection sometimes you need to interview the child, not the parent.

Additionally, several of these statements could be interpreted as double-barreled. Context can change the meaning of some of the statements. In fact, some children did state that sometimes these statements are true and sometimes they are false depending on what they are doing. This probably created a situation where many children rated these questions as somewhere in the middle. Future research should work on creating different versions of the statements for younger and older children and statements that are clearly about one context.

A final methodological limitation for Hypothesis 1 was the calculation of goodness of fit. One of the creators of the temperament scale used for the study was consulted in order to determine the best way to capture goodness of fit (Michael Windle, personal communication, February 2, 2006). His suggestion of an absolute value difference score was used and is a popular method for scientists who want to determine agreement between two people (Glass & Polisar, 1987). However, alternative methods have been used to calculate goodness of fit in other studies. Some researchers use correlation (Churchill, 2003), a parent's rating of children on undesirable characteristics (Paterson & Sanson, 1999), an absolute value difference score between the child's temperament and what expectations parents have for their child's behavior (Talwar et al., 1990), and observation of parent and child interaction (Gordon, 1981).

Other calculations also exist outside of temperament studies. For example, psychology researchers that study dyad similarity use a method developed by Glass and Polisar (1987) which compares familiar dyads with randomly paired dyads to see if similar others agree significantly more than a random match. Butcher and Messick (1966) use a method that converts raw values to t scores so that different standard deviations of the raw scores do not affect the difference calculated. Similarly, McGraw and Wong (1994) account for scores with similar standard deviations by calculating the relative similarity given the range of responses of the subjects. These alternatives should be considered for future studies to retest this hypothesis. Perhaps different measurement could capture the definition of the variable or alternative analyses could be conducted to better understand what effect goodness of fit has on compliance to behaviors associated with the media.

Parenting Style and Compliance

The other psychological variable tested in this examination was parenting style. Hypothesis 2 predicted that authoritative parenting would bring about the most compliance; permissive parenting the least compliance and authoritarian parenting would result in compliance somewhere in between the other two parenting styles. Although this exact pattern was not the result of the data analysis, partially consistent results were obtained. In general, authoritative parenting was positively correlated with compliance, while authoritarian and permissive parenting were negatively correlated with compliance. However, this pattern of results did differ between the parent and child reports. The only finding that was consistent across reports was for permissive parenting, while

authoritative and authoritarian parenting resulted in no significant correlations from the child reports.

One of the reasons the expected pattern of relationships did not occur for this hypothesis could be the restriction in range of the parenting styles. It was anticipated that parenting style would have some restriction in range because previous investigations note that most subjects are typically classified as authoritative, the least permissive and authoritarian somewhere in the middle (Chipman, Olsen, Klein, Hart, & Robinson, 2000; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994). This sample did find that authoritative parenting was rated high by most parents, but authoritarian and permissive parenting both had about the same low range.

One likely explanation for the high scores from parents on the authoritative parenting style is that parents who participate in voluntary activities that their child brings home from school are probably more involved in their children's lives. This project did involve a relatively lengthy survey for parents to fill out at home during their leisure time. In addition, a few parents from one school in the study did express concern to the teachers about the authoritarian questions that had to do with corporal punishment. It was later revealed that the school had an incident in the past having to do with mistreatment by a parent. This school was extra sensitive to these questions and parents probably were not as honest with their answers for fear that their parenting behavior would be interpreted as abusive. This situation was addressed by assuring the teachers that the questions could not detect parental abuse. However, the parent inquiries decreased teacher enthusiasm. As a result, fewer surveys were returned and some teachers were less

likely to attempt explanations to the parents. In the end, this also affected the reliability of both the authoritarian and permissive parenting scales such that they resulted in levels of reliability just under the acceptable level. Future research should also consider asking children about parental discipline. If both parents and children are asked about this variable, then a more accurate estimate of the household discipline could be obtained.

Another related explanation is that the cities where the data was collected are easily classified as middle to upper class neighborhoods. A study by Coolahan, McWayne, Fantuzzo, and Grim (2002) used a longer version of the same parenting style questionnaire from this study to examine low-income African-American families. They found that a lower education and being single rather than married increased the likelihood of using authoritarian or permissive parenting styles. This suggests that the results from this study only represent a higher socio-economic group of individuals and are not generalizable to a larger population of parents. In the future, data collection should occur in a more diverse set of schools so that a better spread of parenting styles can be obtained.

The power of the correlation test was also decreased because so many parents did not fill out all of the compliance questions, which in turn, affected the pattern of results. For example, if each set of compliance estimates had 100 subjects, the correlation between authoritative parenting and overall compliance reported by the parent would have been significant. If this result was significant, then the overall compliance reported by the parent would have resulted in the expected pattern with all three parenting styles. But additional power would not be enough to change the results obtained from the child reports of compliance. One explanation for these differences in effects could be the reliability of the answers, but these correlations were corrected for attenuation to account

for those issues. Although that does not fix the problem, it does adjust the correlation to reflect what it would be if there were no reliability issues. Therefore, the best explanation for such different findings from the parents and children is that children and parents answered these questions differently from each other. Table 7 shows the difference in the way parents and children reported compliance to each type of mediation guideline. Children more often reported greater compliance to their parent's guidelines than the parent reported. The only exception was for co-viewing compliance and this finding may be the result of validity issues with the measurement of the variable as described in the explanation of Research Question 1. For a description for why these differences may have occurred, please see the section on Research Question 2.

Additional Research Questions

Besides the three questions that addressed the main goal of the study, additional questions were also answered from the data. First, Research Question 2 looked at a comparison between parent and child reports. Other investigations have noted that parents and children typically give different accounts of what happens in the home related to television use and restrictions (Greenberg et al., 1971; Fujioka & Austin, 2003; Rossiter & Robertson, 1975). The results confirmed that parents and children do give significantly different accounts of what guidelines parents have for television in the home. Unique to this study, the data suggest that parents and children also differ in their accounts of child compliance with parental mediation guidelines.

The discrepancies in reports were not significantly different across mediation style or compliance to mediation. Differences were based on who responded to the questions, parents or children. Parents were more likely to report a greater use of

restrictive and active mediation guidelines than their child reported and the child was more likely to report that they complied with their parents guidelines overall and specifically for active mediation than the parent reported. The only finding that goes against this pattern was for co-viewing; children reported complying less often than the parent reported. Again, the unreliability of the co-viewing measure suggests that the questions are not a valid indicator of co-viewing compliance.

For both parents and children, self perception seems to be a probable reason for the differences in their reports. Any self-report measure always runs the risk of obtaining inaccurate information, especially when the answer could be socially unacceptable or embarrassing (Millon & Lerner, 2003). Past studies have found that parents and children disagree on how much children watch television, how many media rules are in the home, and how much media is discussed (Greenberg et al., 1971; Rossiter & Robertson, 1975). This tendency to disagree has been associated with a social desirability bias in other comparisons (Desmond, Singer, Singer, Calam, & Colimore, 1985; Fujioka & Austin, 2003; Rossiter & Robertson, 1975). Desmond et al. (1985) found that parents report inaccurate information because they want to appear like “good” parents who protect their children from harmful influences. Fujioka and Austin (2003) specifically found that parents report fewer instances of mediation with a positive valence because children interpret these as an endorsement of the content.

As mentioned earlier, some of the parents were concerned about the corporal punishment parenting questions because they thought they were attempting to identify abusive parenting practices. These parents may have overcompensated in their answers to the mediation guideline questions to make themselves look better in other aspects of

parental discipline as well. But, the parent's answers to the child compliance questions do not reflect this tendency. They may have provided a more honest account of their child's compliance because it reflects the child's behavior, not their own. This reflects a true *self* perception motivation, rather than family perception. Furthermore, the children may have provided inaccurate information on the child compliance questions because they were afraid their parent would see their answers on the survey. The children were informed that their parent was not going to see their answers to the survey, but it was not systematically integrated into the interview process. Additionally, the children's answers could also reflect a social desirability bias, in that they want to appear like a "well-behaved" child to the researcher. Both of these explanations suggest a tendency to overcompensate only for one's own behavior.

Although there were no systematic discrepancies within mediation styles and compliance to mediation styles, active mediation was discrepant between parents and children for both the estimate of the mediation style and compliance to the mediation style. In past studies, researchers have found that correlations between parent and child reports tend to be lower when describing more abstract rather than concrete events (Ritchie & Fitzpatrick, 1990; Tims & Masland, 1985). Active mediation is more abstract in its application than restrictive mediation because it involves critical evaluation of program content, whereas restrictive mediation involves implementing concrete restrictions.

Similarity between answers has also considered age as a potential moderator of the findings. Greenberg et al. (1971) suggested that as children get older mothers may be less capable of accurately reporting their child's behaviors. Fujioka and Austin (2003)

also reported from a sample of third, sixth and ninth graders that children in higher grades perceive television messages more positively and expect more positive outcomes from viewing. Considering these findings, correlations were calculated between the child and parent's age with the Mediation Style Difference and Child Compliance Difference variables. No significant correlations were found between parent or child age and the differences in reports; however, this was mainly because of a lack of power. Like Greenberg et al. (1971) predicted above, as a parent's age increased the difference between answers on compliance to active mediation also increased ($r(64) = .22, ns$). For children the differences on both restrictive compliance ($r(54) = .25, ns$) and overall compliance ($r(82) = .20, ns$) increased with age, in addition to the differences on reports of passive mediation ($r(88) = .19, ns$). The passive mediation correlation, in particular, may be a result of children wanting to appear like they don't watch television with their parents as they get older. In the discussion of the Greenberg et al. (1971) paper, the question was posed whether children overestimate viewing television because they want to appear "cool" to their peers.

The next additional question, Research Question 3, answered by this study was whether similarity between a parent and child on temperament characteristics, goodness of fit, was correlated with their likeliness to report similar information about behavior related to television. No correlation was found between goodness of fit and similarity on reporting mediation guidelines in the home. The only significant positive correlation was between compliance to co-viewing mediation and temperament, while the remaining correlations with compliance variables were negative. Given the reliability problems with the compliance to co-viewing variable, this relationship needs to be retested with

alternative measurement. Similarly, there are interpretation problems with the temperament questions. Other dimensions should be investigated and the definition for calculating goodness of fit should be reconsidered in future studies.

The final additional question, Research Question 4, looked at the relative impact of parenting style and mediation style on child compliance to parental mediation. Overall, these findings suggest that mediation guidelines contribute to the variance of child compliance to mediation more than parenting style does. For restrictive mediation, both parent and child accounts suggest that restrictive guidelines contribute to compliance with those guidelines and the authoritarian parenting style does not. Although the parent report did not result in a significant contribution from restrictive mediation guidelines, this can be explained by the reduction in power because of sample size. Moreover, although the use of restrictive mediation seems to be contributing to the compliance to these guidelines the contribution to the variance of this variable is not that notable given the non-significant models that resulted in effect sizes of only 5% and 7%. This suggests that these models are lacking an important variable that can explain compliance tendencies. Perhaps because there were problems with the authoritarian parenting questions, authoritarian parenting may contribute to restrictive compliance more than this result suggests. In the future if parents can be assured that their responses are confidential, perhaps that would change the results.

In fact, a study by Wachs, Gurkas, and Kontos (2004) used a similar definition for compliance and they found that parental control contributed 7% of variance to committed compliance, only 3% to situational compliance, and 12% for passive noncompliance. Another study found that maternal control contributed 16% of the variance to an overall

noncompliance score, which included estimates of committed, situational and passive noncompliance (Braungart-Rieker et al., 1997). Given these ranges, without a negative reaction from parent's to the authoritarian questions, the combination of both restrictive mediation guidelines and authoritarian parenting would probably contribute more to compliance to restrictive television guidelines.

Active mediation compliance resulted in non-significant findings. Although they were non-significant, the contribution of sample size to the power of the analysis seemed to be the primary reason again for the significance levels, especially for the parent reports. Moreover, the effect size did not suggest that the contribution of these variables was that large. The general pattern of findings was that, within the parent reports, authoritative parenting was associated with compliance to active mediation more than were active mediation guidelines, but the model was non-significant, only explaining 4% of the variance for the model. On the other hand, the child reports found that active mediation guidelines were related to compliance more than were the authoritative parenting style, which also resulted in a non-significant model, only explaining 3% of the variance. The effect sizes were surprising here because other studies have suggested larger contributions from positive parenting. For example, in a study by Martinez and Forgatch (2001) positive parenting contributed 12% of the variance to noncompliance and in another study a mother's responsiveness to prosocial behavior contributed 46% of the variance to a child's compliance to their mother's instructions (Goin & Wahler, 2001). It is important to note that these studies do define compliance as more situational than committed, so perhaps that could be part of the reason that parenting style doesn't contribute more to the variance of compliance to television guidelines.

However, an additional reason for these small effect sizes and the opposite pattern observed between parent and child reports could be that the mediation types are not mutually exclusive. This seems especially to be the case for the intentional co-viewing and active mediation guidelines. Although intentional mediation is defined as a dimension of co-viewing, studies have noted that intentional mediation has been associated with active mediation practices (Yang & Nathanson, 2005_b). In addition, although non-significant, this study found a notable positive correlation between authoritative parenting and intentional co-viewing ($r = .18, ns$). The findings for intentional co-viewing in Table 9 suggest that both the authoritative parenting style and intentional co-viewing contribute to co-viewing compliance reports from the parent. In fact, their combined effect resulted in a significant model that explained 14% of the variance for the parent's reports about their child's compliance to co-viewing. The authoritarian parenting style was also tested as a predictor of co-viewing compliance because it was correlated to intentional co-viewing as well. However, the model was non-significant and found that these predictors only explained 6% of the variance. Therefore, according to the parent reports of compliance, authoritative parenting seems especially important in predicting co-viewing and active mediation compliance. This implies that the results for active compliance may result from parents referencing both their intentional co-viewing and active mediation habits when they answer questions about compliance to active mediation. Future research should attempt to construct new instructions for the co-viewing and active mediation compliance questions and to try to get parents to divide their thinking about mediation types as they answer.

This referencing of both intentional co-viewing and active mediation was considered as a potential explanation for the large effect size (17%) found for co-viewing compliance in the analysis of child reports of passive co-viewing. Although this explanation is fruitful, the data was inspected further and a more probable explanation for this finding is a systematic bias in the answers that children provided for both the passive co-viewing and compliance to co-viewing questions. The zero-order correlations indicated a rather large positive correlation between the children's answers on these two measures ($r = .41, p < .01$). It seems that children were probably matching their answers from the passive co-viewing questions to their answers to the compliance to co-viewing questions. This created a situation where the two measures are partially representing the same variable, which explains why a larger portion of the variance was explained. To control for this problem in the future, as mentioned earlier, the definition of co-viewing compliance needs to be refined and new questions to measure the variable will then need to be constructed.

Moreover, all of these results still estimate only low to medium effects sizes, which suggest that other variables contribute to levels of compliance. Other variables that have been studied in relation to compliance include personality variables like aggressiveness (deBlois & Stewart, 1980), antisocial traits (deBlois & Stewart, 1980), children's memory of prior experiences (Goin & Wahler, 2001), and depression severity (Belden & Luby, 2006). Aggressiveness contributed 25% of the variance to a combined committed and situational noncompliance variable and antisocial traits contributed 8% of the variance to the same variable (deBlois & Stewart, 1980). Depression severity only contributed 3% to situational compliance on structured tasks (Belden & Luby, 2006) and

a child's memory of personal experiences contributed an additional 10% of the variance to situational compliance in another study that used structured tasks (Goin & Wahler, 2001). This suggests that variables like temperament might contribute some variance to compliance. Although Hypothesis 1 did not suggest that goodness of fit was correlated to increased compliance, a change in this measurement could make this variable more useful in a similar test of predictors of compliance. Also, the zero-order correlations between the temperament dimensions and compliance to television guidelines do suggest there could be a relationship between these variables. In the future, other personality variables should be considered as possible contributors to mediation compliance as well.

Limitations

Several limitations have already been covered throughout the discussion of each hypothesis and research question. A major issue that was covered is lack of power, which was partly because of the sample size. Although the response rate was not large, the main reason that sample size was smaller than anticipated was because the instructions were unclear to some parents for the compliance questions. As discussed earlier, the instructions were changed and this controlled that problem for the remainder of the present study and will help in future investigations. Although that change will help get all of the needed data from parents who decide to participate, other changes need to be made to get more parents to participate overall.

One of the major problems with recruitment was the parenting style questions about corporal punishment. In the future, more information about confidentiality should be provided to parents so that they feel protected when answering the questions. Also, the researcher needs to anticipate similar situations of schools being sensitive to studies that

seem to be measuring parental mistreatment and find a way to assure them that parenting style measures are not designed to identify problem parenting. This added information about the privacy of data and the intent of the measures should also help to avoid a restriction in range in parenting styles. Because parents were overly concerned with their self perception to the researchers they may have given inaccurate answers about their parenting style to appear in a way that they define as socially desirable. Beyond just making parents comfortable, future research also needs to survey a more diverse set of parents. Discipline strategies have been found to vary based on socio-economic differences (Coolahan et al., 2002). In addition, children can also be asked about their parent's discipline strategies to get a view that is less likely to be influenced by social desirability because they are not reporting about the self.

Accuracy was also a problem for children when they answered the compliance questions. This was especially the case for the co-viewing compliance measure. The discussion of the co-viewing compliance measure earlier suggests that it be re-evaluated completely. The definition of co-viewing compliance may not adequately capture how families establish guidelines associated with this mediation style.

Similarly, accuracy was a problem for children's reports of temperament. The process of interviewing suggested that the reliability problems for the temperament questions were because children could not understand some of the statements on the scale. The researchers who developed the scale meant for the self administered child version of the scale to only be used with children in late elementary school through high school (Windle & Lerner, 1986). For younger children, there is only a scale available for a parent to fill out about that child's temperament. Therefore, these previous reliability

tests did not test these questions on second and third graders and certain words and statements were harder for them to interpret. Also, other statements within the three dimensions used for this study were identified as double barreled because they could be interpreted differently if the subject applied the statement to different contexts. In fact, a reliability analysis was conducted on children above eight years old in this study and both the task persistence and approach/withdrawal reliability estimates did increase when only older children were in the analysis. The task persistence estimate was equivalent to the Windle and Lerner (1986) study if the same item was dropped ($\alpha = .70$). The activity-sleep dimension still obtained the same reliability, which was also equivalent to the Windle and Lerner (1986) study ($\alpha = .83$). Although the approach/withdrawal dimension did get a boost in reliability with older children, it was still at an unacceptable level ($\alpha = .57$). Therefore, the same concern still holds, these questions seem to be hard to interpret for children in general. Additionally, more temperament dimensions should be tested in future studies. This study only used three of the nine possible dimensions of temperament and more dimensions may result in a better estimate of goodness of fit between the parent and child. Moreover, other measurement possibilities should be considered for capturing goodness of fit in the future.

Age is also an important variable to consider beyond interpretation issues. The literature review of the paper summarizes several investigations that document evidence that age has an effect on the types of television guidelines parents set for their children (i.e., St. Peters et al., 1991; Warren, 2003). And this study confirms that compliance to those guidelines also differs by age. Therefore, future studies should use age as a variable of study and as a control variable. This would be another factor to consider when

increasing sample size. The study was nine 7-year-olds, seventeen 8-year-olds, fifteen 9-year-olds, twenty four 10-year-olds, twenty five 11-year-olds, and twelve 12-year-olds. Therefore, future analyses would need to even out the sample by increasing the number of second, third and sixth graders.

Finally, this survey was relatively long and may have resulted in fatigue, especially for the parents. Although the order of the questions was varied, the temperament and parenting style questions always came first so that if a parent had a child that did not watch the target programs on the survey they could not forget to fill out the remaining questions. This prevented possible data loss, but may have contributed to parents deciding not to participate in the study because the survey looked so long. It would be ideal in the future if parents could be interviewed during parent teacher conferences or at a school event. This would present an opportunity where a more diverse set of parents might participate, the researchers could have more control over their completion of the survey, parents could ask questions about items as they occur, and researchers could facilitate the completion of the survey in a lively manner to help prevent fatigue.

Future Research

In the future, researchers should consider some larger issues related to mediation literature and the changing media environment. The first issue is whether parents define mediation guidelines in the same way as researchers. It is clear from the research that mediation scholars have identified the types of mediation guidelines parents usually implement, but it is not clear whether parents implement them using the same definitions as media researchers. To date, the most universal guide for parents to use for evaluation

is the television ratings system. As media researchers are aware, these are unreliable (Greenberg & Hnilo, 2001). They also promote greater use of restrictive guidelines, when there needs to be more of a focus on critical strategies. Parents may avoid active mediation strategies because they don't know how to identify "bad" content on television. For example, can parents define and identify violence, sex, persuasive advertising, and negative health messages accurately? If explicit examples were provided for parents that educate them to accurately implement these guidelines, then researchers would have a better place to start for evaluation and change.

Moreover, are the guidelines changing? With technology advancing so fast from year to year, children have new gadgets, communication devices, television recording devices, and video games at their fingertips. It is not realistic to think that a parent has different guidelines for their use of each item. Just like children multi-task their use of technology items, parents are starting to multi-task in their guidelines for how their child should use the media use. This changes the landscape of mediation research and introduces many questions about what the guidelines are, how they are used, how effective they are and whether children comply with these guidelines.

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APPENDIX A

Parent Survey

If you have decided to participate in the study, we thank you for your participation. Remember, the person who fills out this survey should be the parent/guardian who decides on the guidelines for television in the household. That same person should be the parent/guardian who has signed the permission form. Please be sure to read the instructions carefully, the first 3 sets of questions ask about you and the remainder of the survey is about your child, _____.

First, please indicate whether you are the: (circle one)

Male:	Father	Stepfather	Male Guardian
Female:	Mother	Stepmother	Female Guardian

TEMPERAMENT: On the following pages are some statements about how people like you may behave. Some of the statements may be true of your own behavior and others may not apply to you. For each statement we would like you to indicate if the statement is usually true of you, is more true than false of you, is in the middle, is more false than true of you, or is usually false of you. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers because all people behave in different ways. All you have to do is answer what is true for you.

Here is an example of how to fill out this survey. Suppose a statement said:

"I eat about the same things for breakfast every day."

If the statement were usually false for you, you would respond:

"A," usually FALSE.

If the statement were more false than true for you, you would respond:

"B," more FALSE than true.

If the statement were neutral, you would respond:

"C", in the MIDDLE

If the statement were more true than false for you, you would respond:

"D," more TRUE than false.

If the statement were usually true for you, you would respond:

"E," usually TRUE.

On the line to the left of each statement write an A if the statement is usually false for you, write a B if the statement is more false than true for you, write a C if the statement is in the middle for you, write D if the statement is more true than false for you, or write a E if the statement is usually true for you.

PLEASE KEEP THESE THREE THINGS IN MIND AS YOU ANSWER:

1. Give only answers that are true or false for you. It is best to say what you really think.
2. Don't spend too much time thinking over each question. Give the first, natural answer as it comes to you. Of course, the statements are too short to give all the information you might like, but give the best answer you can under the circumstances. Some statements may seem similar to each other because they ask about the same situation. However, each one looks at a different area of your behavior. Therefore, your answers may be different in each case.
3. Remember, A = usually FALSE
 B = more FALSE than true
 C = in the MIDDLE
 D = more TRUE than false
 E = usually TRUE

1. ____ Once I am involved in a task, nothing can distract me from it. (Task Orientation)
2. ____ I persist at a task until it's finished. (Task Orientation)
3. ____ I can make myself at home anywhere. (Approach/Withdrawal)
4. ____ I can always be distracted by something else, no matter what I may be doing.
(Task Orientation)
5. ____ I stay with an activity for a long time. (Task Orientation)
6. ____ I usually move towards new objects shown to me. (Approach/Withdrawal)
7. ____ If I am doing one thing, something else occurring won't get me to stop. (Task Orientation)

A = usually FALSE
B = more FALSE than true
C = in the MIDDLE
D = more TRUE than false
E = usually TRUE

8. ___ My first reaction is to reject something new or unfamiliar to me.
(Approach/Withdrawal)
9. ___ Things going on around me can not take me away from what I am doing. (Task Orientation)
10. ___ Once I take something up, I stay with it. (Task Orientation)
11. ___ I am hard to distract. (Task Orientation)
12. ___ On meeting a new person I tend to move towards him or her.
(Approach/Withdrawal)
13. ___ It takes me no time at all to get used to new people. (Approach/Withdrawal)
14. ___ I move a great deal in my sleep. (Activity-Sleep)
15. ___ I move towards new situations. (Approach/Withdrawal)
16. ___ I move a lot in bed. (Activity-Sleep)
17. ___ In the morning, I am still in the same place as I was when I fell asleep. (Activity-Sleep)
18. ___ I don't move around much at all in my sleep. (Activity-Sleep)
19. ___ My first response to anything new is to move my head toward it.
(Approach/Withdrawal)

PARENTING STYLE: Now we have a questionnaire that is designed to measure how often you exhibit each of these behaviors with your child. Please rate *how you* exhibit this behavior and place your answer on the line next to each item.

I EXHIBIT THIS BEHAVIOR:

A = Never
B = Once In Awhile
C = About Half of the Time
D = Very Often
E = Always

1. _____ I am responsive to our child's feelings and needs. (Authoritative-Connection)
2. _____ I use physical punishment as a way of disciplining our child. (Authoritarian-Physical Coercion)
3. _____ I take our child's desires into account before asking the child to do something. (Authoritative-Autonomy)
4. _____ When our child asks why he/she has to conform, I state: because I said so, or I am your parent and I want you to. (Authoritarian-Punitive)
5. _____ I explain to our child how we feel about the child's good and bad behavior. (Authoritative-Regulation)
6. _____ I spank when our child is disobedient. (Authoritarian-Physical Coercion)
7. _____ I encourage our child to talk about his/her troubles. (Authoritative-Connection)
8. _____ I find it difficult to discipline our child. (Permissive)
9. _____ I encourage our child to freely express himself/herself even when disagreeing with parents. (Authoritative-Autonomy)
10. _____ I punish by taking privileges away from our child with little if any explanations. (Authoritarian-Punitive)
11. _____ I emphasize the reasons for rules. (Authoritative-Regulation)
12. _____ I give comfort and understanding when our child is upset. (Authoritative-Connection)
13. _____ I yell or shout when our child misbehaves. (Authoritarian-Verbal Hostility)
14. _____ I give praise when our child is good. (Authoritative-Connection)
15. _____ I give into our child when the child causes a commotion about something. (Permissive)
16. _____ I explode in anger towards our child. (Authoritarian-Verbal Hostility)
17. _____ I threaten our child with punishment more often than actually giving it. (Permissive)
18. _____ I take into account our child's preferences in making plans for the family. (Authoritative-Autonomy)
19. _____ I grab our child when being disobedient. (Authoritarian-Physical Coercion)
20. _____ I state punishments to our child and does not actually do them. (Permissive)
21. _____ I show respect for our child's opinions by encouraging our child to express them. (Authoritative-Autonomy)
22. _____ I allow our child to give input into family rules. (Authoritative-Autonomy)
23. _____ I scold and criticize to make our child improve. (Authoritarian-Verbal Hostility)

24. _____ I spoil our child. (Permissive)
25. _____ I give our child reasons why rules should be obeyed. (Authoritative-Regulation)
26. _____ I use threats as punishment with little or no justification. (Authoritarian-Punitive)
27. _____ I have warm and intimate times together with our child. (Authoritative-Connection)
28. _____ I punish by putting our child off somewhere alone with little if any explanations.
(Authoritarian-Punitive)
29. _____ I help our child to understand the impact of behavior by encouraging our child to
talk about the consequences of his/her own actions. (Authoritative-
Regulation)
30. _____ I scold or criticize when our child's behavior doesn't meet our expectations.
(Authoritarian-Verbal Hostility)
31. _____ I explain the consequences of the child's behavior. (Authoritative-Regulation)
32. _____ I slap our child when the child misbehaves. (Authoritarian-Physical Coercion)

DEMOGRAPHICS: Now we would like you to answer a few more questions about yourself.

1. What gender are you? (circle one)

Female Male

2. What is your age? _____

3. How many siblings does your child have? _____

a. What number was your child _____ in the birth order? _____

4. What is your household annual income (this includes both spouse salaries or any salary that contributes to the household expenses)? _____

5. How many people live in your household, including you? _____

6. What is your occupation? _____

PROBLEMACTIC CONTENT: Now, we would like you to answer a few questions about television. When you answer these questions **ONLY** think about _____, the child that brought this survey home from school.

1. Does your child, _____ watch any of the following TV programs?

- Kim Possible
- W.I.T.C.H.
- Darcy's Wild Life
- Bratz
- Winx Club
- Teenage Mutant Ninja Turtles
- G.I. Joe Sigma Six
- Power Rangers
- Ed, Edd n Eddy
- Spider-Man and his Amazing Friends
- Grim Adventures of Billy and Mandy
- Catscratch
- Spongebob Squarepants
- Fairly Odd Parents
- Cartoon Cartoon Show

Please circle one.

Yes

No

If you answered **NO** to this question, you can **STOP** the survey now and return it to the child's classroom.

RESTRICTIVE MEDIATION: The following questions are also about television. When you answer these questions only think about the kinds of programs listed above and about your child, _____. Use the following options to answer the question and place your answer on the line next to each item.

- A = Never
- B = Once In Awhile
- C = About Half of the Time
- D = Very Often
- E = Always

1. _____ Do you have guidelines in place about the times of day that your child can watch these types of television programs?
2. _____ Do you have guidelines in place about how much of this type of television your child can watch (for example, hours or minutes per day, hours or minutes per week)?
3. _____ Do you have guidelines in place about what television stations your child can and cannot watch?
4. _____ Do you restrict your child to only watching television shows that have a specific TV rating (like TVPG or TV14, etc.) ?
5. _____ Do you restrict your child from watching some of these television programs?

RESTRICTIVE COMPLIANCE:

6. _____ Does your child follow these guidelines/restrictions at home?
 7. _____ Does your child follow these guidelines/restrictions when they are not with you?
-

ACTIVE MEDIATION: Here are just a few more questions about television. Use the following options to answer the question and place your answer on the line next to each item.

- A = Never
- B = Once In Awhile
- C = About Half of the Time
- D = Very Often
- E = Always

For the TV shows we mentioned earlier, how often do you...

1. ____ Explain why some things actors do are good.
2. ____ Tell your child that you like the show.
3. ____ Explain why some things actors do are bad.
4. ____ Tell your child that something on TV isn't really so.
5. ____ Explain the motives of TV characters.
6. ____ Explain what something on TV really means.

ACTIVE COMPLIANCE: Does your child...

7. ____ accept your evaluations of the show's content?
 8. ____ understand your evaluations of the show's content?
 9. ____ remember your evaluations of the show's content when you are
at home?
 10. ____ remember your evaluations of the show's content when they are
not with you?
-

INTENTIONAL CO-VIEWING: Here are just a few more questions about television. Use the following options to answer the question and place your answer on the line next to each item.

- A = Never
B = Once In Awhile
C = About Half of the Time
D = Very Often
E = Always

For the TV shows we mentioned earlier, how often do you...

1. ____ Watch the show together for the benefit of the child
2. ____ Watch the show together to monitor the content your child is viewing
3. ____ Watch the show together so that you can intervene program messages when necessary
4. ____ Watch the show together because it's important to watch it together

COVIEWING COMPLIANCE: Does your child...

5. ____respond positively to you watching TV with them?
6. ____respond negatively to you watching TV with them?
7. ____seek you out at home to watch TV with them?
8. ____seek out other adults to watch TV with them when they are not with you?

PASSIVE CO-VIEWING: Finally, here are just a few last questions about television. Use the following options to answer the question and place your answer on the line next to each item.

- A = Never
B = Once In Awhile
C = About Half of the Time
D = Very Often
E = Always

For the TV shows we mentioned earlier, how often do you...

1. ____ Watch the show together because you both like the program.
2. ____ Watch the show together because of a common interest in the program.
3. ____ Watch the show together just for fun.
4. ____ Watch the show together because they are yours and your child's favorite.

APPENDIX B

Child Interview

Parental Guardian who filled out survey was (circle one):

Male:	Father	Stepfather	Male Guardian
Female:	Mother	Stepmother	Female Guardian

TEMPERAMENT: HOW TO ANSWER:

On the following pages are some sentences. They are about how children like you may behave. Some of the sentences may be true of how you behave and others may not be true for you. For each sentence we would like you to say if the sentence is usually true for you, is more true than false for you, is in the middle, is more false than true for you, or is usually false for you. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers because all children behave in different ways. All you have to do is answer what is true for you.

(PROVIDE CHILD WITH A RESPONSE FORM)

Here is an example. Suppose a sentence said:

"I eat the same things for breakfast every day."

If the sentence were usually false for you, you would point to:

"A," usually FALSE.

If the sentence were more false than true for you, you would point to:

"B," more FALSE than true.

If the sentence were in the middle for you, you would point to:

"C", in the MIDDLE

If the sentence were more true than false for you, you would point to:

"D," more TRUE than false.

If the sentence were usually true for you, you would point to:

"E," usually TRUE.

PLEASE REMEMBER THESE THREE THINGS AS YOU ANSWER:

1. Give only answers that really tell about you. It is best to say what you really think.
2. Don't spend too much time thinking over each question. Give the first answer as it comes to you. Of course, the sentences are too short to say everything you might like. But give the best answer you can. Some sentences may seem just like others because they are about the same things. But, each sentence asks about a different part of the way you behave. Therefore, your answers may be different.
3. Remember, A = usually FALSE
 B = more FALSE than true
 C = in the MIDDLE
 D = more TRUE than false
 E = usually TRUE

Italics for SECOND and THIRD graders and for QUESTIONS!

1. ___ Once I am involved in a task, nothing can distract me from it. (Task Orientation)
Once I am involved in something, nothing can take me away from it.
2. ___ I persist at a task until it's finished. (Task Orientation)
I continue something until it's finished.
3. ___ I can make myself at home anywhere. (Approach/Withdrawal)
4. ___ I can always be distracted by something else, no matter what I may be doing.
(Task Orientation)
I can always be interrupted by something else, no matter what I may be doing.
5. ___ I stay with an activity for a long time. (Task Orientation)
6. ___ I usually move towards new objects shown to me. (Approach/Withdrawal)
7. ___ If I am doing one thing, something else occurring won't get me to stop. (Task
Orientation) *happening*
8. ___ My first reaction is to reject something new or unfamiliar to me.
(Approach/Withdrawal) *dislike*
9. ___ Things going on around me can not take me away from what I am doing. (Task
Orientation)
10. ___ Once I take something up, I stay with it. (Task Orientation)

A = usually FALSE
B = more FALSE than true
C = in the MIDDLE
D = more TRUE than false
E = usually TRUE

11. ___ I am hard to distract. (Task Orientation)
I am hard to interrupt.
12. ___ On meeting a new person I tend to move towards him or her.
(Approach/Withdrawal)
13. ___ It takes me no time at all to get used to new people. (Approach/Withdrawal)
14. ___ I move a great deal in my sleep. (Activity-Sleep)
a lot
15. ___ I move towards new situations. (Approach/Withdrawal)
16. ___ I move a lot in bed. (Activity-Sleep)
17. ___ In the morning, I am still in the same place as I was when I fell asleep. (Activity-Sleep)
18. ___ I don't move around much at all in my sleep. (Activity-Sleep)
19. ___ My first response to anything new is to move my head toward it.
(Approach/Withdrawal)

(PUT RESPONSE FORM AWAY)

DEMOGRAPHICS: Now we want to ask you a few more questions about yourself.

1. **Gender of the child. (circle one)**

Female Male

2. How old are you? _____

3. How many brothers and sisters do you have? _____

(if only 1, ask if older or younger)

a. How many are older than you? _____

b. How many are younger than you? _____

PROBLEMATIC CONTENT: Now, we would like you to answer a few questions about television.

1. Do you watch any of these TV programs? ("Yes" or "No" for each show)

--Depending on the gender of the child, first go through their gender list, then the mixed list, then the opposite gender list.

GIRL

- Kim Possible
- W.I.T.C.H.
- Darcy's Wild Life
- Bratz
- Winx Club

BOY

- Teenage Mutant Ninja Turtles
- G.I. Joe Sigma Six
- Power Rangers
- Ed, Edd n Eddy
- Spider-Man and his Amazing Friends

MIXED

- Grim Adventures of Billy and Mandy
- Catscratch
- Spongebob Squarepants
- Fairly Odd Parents
- Cartoon Cartoon Show

Please circle the child's answer.

Yes

No

If the child answered NO to this question, you can STOP the survey now.

The following questions are also about television. You can answer these five ways.

(GIVE CHILD RESPONSE CARD)

For example, if I asked:

“Do you like hot fudge on an ice cream sundae?”

If your answer is NEVER, you would point to:

"A," NEVER.

If your answer is ONCE IN AWHILE, you would point to:

"B," ONCE IN AWHILE.

If your answer is ABOUT HALF OF THE TIME, you would point to:

"C", ABOUT HALF OF THE TIME.

If your answer is VERY OFTEN, you would point to:

"D," VERY OFTEN.

If your answer is ALWAYS, you would point to:

"E," ALWAYS.

When you answer these questions only think about the kinds of TV shows we just talked about. Remember, this is not a test. There are no “right” or “wrong” answers. Are you ready?

RESTRICTIVE MEDIATION:

- A = Never**
B = Once In Awhile
C = About Half of the Time
D = Very Often
E = Always

1. ____ Does your ____ have rules about what times during the day you can watch these television shows?
2. ____ Does your ____ have rules about how many hours or minutes each day or week you can watch these television shows?
3. ____ Does your ____ only let you watch some of these TV shows?
4. ____ Does your ____ have rules about what television stations you can and cannot watch?
5. ____ Does your ____ only let you watch television shows that have certain TV ratings (like TVPG or TV14, etc.)?

Parent TV Ratings are attached at the end of the survey.

RESTRICTIVE COMPLIANCE: If the child answered B, C, D or E on any of the previous five questions, please have them answer these two additional questions.

6. ____ Do you follow your ____'s rules about these kinds of TV programs when you are at home?
7. ____ Do you follow your ____'s rules about these kinds of TV programs when you are not with your ____?

ACTIVE MEDIATION: Here are just a few more questions about television. Remember to use the card to answer the question. Remember, point to A if your answer is...

- A = Never
- B = Once In Awhile
- C = About Half of the Time
- D = Very Often
- E = Always

When watching the TV shows we talked about earlier,

1. ____ how much does your ____, explain why some things TV characters do are good.
2. ____ how much does your ____, tell you that they like the show.
3. ____ how much does your ____, explain why some things TV characters do are bad.
4. ____ how much does your ____, tell you that something on TV isn't really so.
isn't real, doesn't usually happen
5. ____ how much does your ____, explain why TV characters do the things they do.
6. ____ how much does your ____, explain what something on TV really means.

ACTIVE COMPLIANCE: If the child answered B, C, D or E on any of the previous six questions, have them answer these four additional questions.

7. ____ Do you accept what your ____ tells you about these shows?
8. ____ Do you understand what your ____ tells you about these shows?
9. ____ Do you remember what your ____ tells you about these shows when you are at home?
10. ____ Do you remember what your ____ tells you about these shows when you are not with your ____?

PASSIVE CO-VIEWING: Here are just a few more questions about television.
Remember to use the card to answer the question.

- A = Never**
- B = Once In Awhile**
- C = About Half of the Time**
- D = Very Often**
- E = Always**

When watching the TV shows we talked about earlier,

1. ____ how often does your ____, watch these TV shows with you?
2. ____ how often does your ____, watch these shows with you because you both like the program.
3. ____ how often does your ____, watch these shows with you because you both like something specific in the program.
4. ____ how often does your ____, watch these shows with you just for fun.
5. ____ how often does your ____, watch these shows with you because they are yours and your ____'s favorite.

CO-VIEWING COMPLIANCE: If the child answered B, C, D or E on any of the previous five questions then please ask the next four questions below.

6. ____ Do you like it when your ____ watches these TV shows with you?
7. ____ Do you try to find your ____ to watch TV with when you are at home?
8. ____ Do you try to find other adults to watch TV with you when you are not with your ____?

Thank you. We are all done.

PUT AWAY RESPONSE FORM

Response Form

A = usually FALSE

B = more FALSE than true

C = in the MIDDLE

D = more TRUE than false

E = usually TRUE

Response Form

A = Never

B = Once in Awhile

C = About Half of the Time

D = Very Often

E = Always

Parental TV Ratings



All Children

This program is designed to be appropriate for all children. Whether animated or live-action, the themes and elements in this program are specifically designed for a very young audience, including children from ages 2 - 6. This program is not expected to frighten younger children.



Directed to Older Children

This program is designed for children age 7 and above. It may be more appropriate for children who have acquired the developmental skills needed to distinguish between make-believe and reality. Themes and elements in this program may include mild fantasy violence or comedic violence, or may frighten children under the age of 7. Therefore, parents may wish to consider the suitability of this program for their very young children.



Directed to Older Children - Fantasy Violence

For those programs where fantasy violence may be more intense or more combative than other programs in this category, such programs will be designated TV-Y7-FV.



General Audience

Most parents would find this program suitable for all ages. Although this rating does not signify a program designed specifically for children, most parents may let younger children watch this program unattended. It contains little or no violence, no strong language and little or no sexual dialogue or situations.



Parental Guidance Suggested

This program contains material that parents may find unsuitable for younger children. Many parents may want to watch it with their younger children. The theme itself may call for parental guidance and/or the program contains one or more of the following: moderate violence (V), some sexual situations (S), infrequent coarse language (L), or some suggestive dialogue (D).



Parents Strongly Cautioned

This program contains some material that many parents would find unsuitable for children under 14 years of age. Parents are strongly urged to exercise greater care in monitoring this program and are cautioned against letting children under the age of 14 watch unattended. This program contains one or more of the following: intense violence (V), intense sexual situations (S), strong coarse language (L), or intensely suggestive dialogue (D).



Mature Audience Only

This program is specifically designed to be viewed by adults and therefore may be unsuitable for children under 17. This program contains one or more of the following: graphic violence (V), explicit sexual activity (S), or crude indecent language (L).

FOOTNOTES

¹ This exact correlation was double checked and confirmed to be the accurate correlation between these parenting styles and child compliance to active mediation.

² This exact correlation was double checked as well and confirmed to be the accurate correlation between these parenting styles and compliance to co-viewing mediation.

TABLE 2

Zero-Order Correlations

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
<u>Parenting Styles</u>																		
1. Authoritative																		
2. Authoritarian	-.37**																	
3. Permissive	-.05	.17																
<u>Temperament</u>																		
4. Task Orient Parent	.18	-.09	-.11															
5. Task Orient Child	.02	-.11	.02	-.05														
6. Activity S Parent	.14	-.05	.21*	-.19	-.04													
7. Activity S Child	.09	-.04	-.09	.11	-.13	.11												
8. Appr/Withd Parent	.16	-.23*	-.27**	.17	.19	-.02	.04											
9. Appr/Withd Child	.17	-.20*	-.18	.03	.01	.10	.000	.02										
10. Goodness of Fit	-.05	-.05	.03	.08	.04	-.08	-.07	.15	-.03									
<u>Mediation Style</u>																		
11. Restrict Parent	.16	-.24*	-.36**	.12	.14	-.11	.004	.22*	.14	.02								
12. Restrict Child	.17	-.19	-.15	-.04	.16	-.09	-.06	.05	.13	-.08	.46**							
13. Active Parent	.34**	-.15	.09	.04	.04	.12	.04	-.07	-.04	.13	.25*	.11						
14. Active Child	.19	.04	.05	-.05	.08	-.004	.07	-.14	.02	-.09	.14	.46**	.20					
15. Passive Parent	.10	.04	.30**	.10	-.01	.08	-.17	-.08	-.18	.02	.03	-.04	.49**	.23*				
16. Passive Child	.03	.09	.09	-.04	.08	-.05	.03	-.16	.10	-.21*	.01	.34**	.09	.65**	.30**			
17. Intention Parent	.18	-.15	-.01	.15	.04	.04	.05	-.10	-.02	.08	.33**	.23*	.62**	.22*	.56**	.24*		
<u>Child Compliance</u>																		
18. Restrict Parent	-.03	-.11	-.31**	.003	-.07	.04	-.11	.06	.17	.06	.27*	-.04	-.15	-.22	-.25	-.10	-.001	
19. Restrict Child	.10	.02	-.20*	.05	.16	-.07	-.02	.17	.03	.10	.15	.22*	.04	.10	.03	.17	.05	.20
20. Active Parent	.21	-.27**	-.27*	.07	.04	-.21	-.06	.20	.01	.18	.21	-.02	.08	-.21	-.12	-.28*	.04	.35*
21. Active Child	-.08	-.04	-.16	.04	.14	-.29**	-.13	.07	.004	-.01	.21	.24*	.08	.15	.07	.22	.16	.24
22. Co-view Parent	.32**	-.14	-.14	.02	.15	.24*	-.11	.31**	-.09	.46**	.11	-.001	.09	-.02	.07	-.19	.20	-.02
23. Co-view Child	.04	-.003	.07	-.01	.07	-.07	.01	-.01	.18	.02	-.10	.04	.03	.36**	.26*	.41**	.15	.01

Note. Please note sample size differences by variable. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Variable	19	20	21	22	23
19. Restrict Child					
20. Active Parent	.22				
21. Active Child	.49**	.06			
22. Co-view Parent	.11	.28*	-.25*		
23. Co-view Child	.20	-.19	.32**	-.02	

TABLE 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Sample Size, Ranges, and Reliabilities for Study Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Range</i>	α
<u>Parenting Styles</u>					
1. Authoritative	4.14	0.44	102	2.67 – 4.87	.81
2. Authoritarian	1.66	0.35	102	1.08 – 2.73	.69
3. Permissive	2.02	0.57	102	1.20 – 3.80	.67
<u>Temperament</u>					
4. Task Orient Parent	3.27	0.77	102	1.67 – 5.00	.81
5. Task Orient Child	3.28	0.71	102	1.67 – 5.00	.61
6. Activity S Parent	3.21	1.32	101	1.00 – 5.00	.91
7. Activity S Child	3.30	1.19	102	1.00 – 5.00	.83
8. Appr/Withd Parent	3.29	0.70	102	1.00 – 5.00	.68
9. Appr/Withd Child	3.45	0.62	102	1.83 – 5.00	.46
10. Goodness of Fit	2.25	1.15	102	0.17 – 5.58	
<u>Mediation Style</u>					
11. Restrict Parent	3.46	1.14	91	1.00 – 5.00	.85
12. Restrict Child	2.90	1.00	98	1.00 – 5.00	.69
13. Active Parent	3.11	0.90	89	1.50 – 4.67	.88
14. Active Child	2.73	0.98	98	1.00 – 4.83	.85
15. Passive Parent	2.51	0.96	89	1.00 – 5.00	.89
16. Passive Child	2.57	1.05	98	1.00 – 5.00	.85
17. Intention Parent	2.62	0.88	90	1.00 – 5.00	.87
<u>Child Compliance</u>					
18. Restrict Parent	4.04	0.88	56	1.00 – 5.00	.80
19. Restrict Child	4.46	0.78	96	1.50 – 5.00	.73
20. Active Parent	3.64	0.74	69	1.50 – 5.00	.85
21. Active Child	4.09	0.79	96	1.75 – 5.00	.72
22. Co-view Parent	2.98	0.73	75	1.33 – 4.33	.61
23. Co-view Child	2.80	0.83	90	1.33 – 5.00	.50

Note. Please note sample size differences by variable.

TABLE 3

Mean Differences of Child Compliance for each Mediation Style

Test	Child Compliance	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>d</i>
<u>Parent Reports</u>						
1	Restrictive	4.09	0.81	3.72**	49	0.53
	Active	3.62	0.78			
2	Restrictive	4.10	0.69	8.99**	50	1.26
	Co-view	2.85	0.70			
3	Active	3.61	0.76	6.00**	62	0.76
	Co-view	2.94	0.72			
<u>Child Reports</u>						
1	Restrictive	4.45	0.78	4.57**	93	0.47
	Active	4.07	0.79			
2	Restrictive	4.49	0.73	15.98**	87	1.70
	Co-view	2.80	0.83			
3	Active	4.12	0.76	13.67**	88	1.45
	Co-view	2.78	0.82			

Note. Paired samples t-tests were used to test the mean difference of child compliance for each mediation style for reports from parents and reports from children. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

TABLE 4

Attenuated Correlations between Parenting Styles and Child Compliance to Parental Mediation

Child Compliance	Parenting Styles		
	Authoritative	Authoritarian	Permissive
<u>Restrictive Compliance</u>			
Restrictive-Parent ($n = 56$)	-.04	-.15	-.42**
Restrictive-Child ($n = 96$)	.13	.03	-.29**
<u>Active Compliance</u>			
Active-Parent ($n = 69$)	.25*	-.36**	-.36**
Active-Child ($n = 96$)	-.10	-.06	-.23*
<u>Co-viewing Compliance</u>			
Co-view-Parent ($n = 75$)	.46**	-.22*	-.22*
Co-view-Child ($n = 90$)	.06	-.01	.12
<u>Overall Compliance</u>			
Overall-Parent ($n = 83$)	.19	-.25**	-.49**
Overall-Child ($n = 98$)	.03	-.04	-.24**
Mean	4.14	1.66	2.02
SD	0.44	0.35	0.57

Note. All correlations are corrected for attenuation so that the correlation represents what the correlation would be if the measurement of the variables was perfect. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

TABLE 5

Differences in Parent and Child Reports of Parental Mediation Style and Child Compliance to Mediation

Absolute Mean Value Difference	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>d</i>
<u>Mediation Style Differences</u>					
Restrictive	1.01	0.70	13.63**	89	1.44
Active	0.93	0.81	10.80**	87	1.15
Passive	0.88	0.78	10.62**	87	1.13
<u>Child Compliance Differences</u>					
Restrictive	0.79	0.78	7.41**	53	1.01
Active	0.95	0.68	11.28**	65	1.39
Co-view	0.85	0.66	10.70**	67	1.30
Overall	0.70	0.56	11.36**	81	1.25

Note. One sample t-tests were run on each absolute mean value difference to determine whether the mean differences were significantly different from zero. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

TABLE 6

Differences across Mediation Style of Parent and Child Reports on Parental Mediation Style and Child Compliance to Mediation

Test	Difference Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>d</i>
<u>Mediation Style Differences</u>						
1	Restrictive	1.00	0.71	0.69	87	0.07
	Active	0.93	0.81			
2	Restrictive	1.00	0.71	1.09	87	0.01
	Passive	0.88	0.78			
3	Active	0.93	0.81	0.51	87	0.05
	Passive	0.88	0.78			
<u>Child Compliance Differences</u>						
1	Restrictive	0.78	0.76	-1.97	45	0.29
	Active	1.04	0.74			
2	Restrictive	0.74	0.73	-0.50	43	0.08
	Co-view	0.81	0.64			
3	Active	0.91	0.69	0.74	56	0.10
	Co-view	0.82	0.64			

Note. Paired sample t-tests were used to analyze whether differences in the reports from parents and children occur more often for certain mediation styles. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

TABLE 7

Mean Differences between Parent and Child Reports on each type of Parental Mediation Style and Child Compliance to each Mediation Style

Test		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>d</i>
<u>Mediation Style</u>						
1	Restrictive Parent	3.45	1.13	4.52**	89	0.48
	Restrictive Child	2.92	1.01			
2	Active Parent	3.12	0.90	2.65*	87	0.28
	Active Child	2.79	0.98			
3	Passive Parent	2.52	0.95	-0.54	87	0.06
	Passive Child	2.59	1.03			
<u>Child Compliance</u>						
1	Restrictive Parent	4.06	0.86	-1.96	53	0.27
	Restrictive Child	4.34	0.83			
2	Active Parent	3.60	0.73	-3.78**	65	0.46
	Active Child	4.09	0.82			
3	Co-view Parent	3.01	0.73	2.59*	67	0.31
	Co-view Child	2.69	0.71			
4	Overall Parent	3.49	0.66	-2.92**	81	0.32
	Overall Child	3.77	0.59			

Note. Paired sample t-tests were used to analyze whether each type of parental mediation style and child compliance to each mediation style were different depending on whether the parent or child made the report. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

TABLE 8

Regression Analyses with Parenting Style and Mediation Style Regressed on Child Compliance to Mediation

Test	Independent Variables	Restrictive Compliance			Active Compliance			Co-view Compliance		
		β	n	R^2	β	n	R^2	β	n	R^2
Parent	Authoritarian	.002	56	.07						
	Restrictive Mediation	.268								
Child	Authoritarian	.064	96	.05						
	Restrictive Mediation	.228*								
Parent	Authoritative				.199	69	.04			
	Active Mediation				.029					
Child	Authoritative				-.106	96	.03			
	Active Mediation				.166					
Parent	Permissive							-.168	75	.03
	Passive Co-viewing							.117		
Child	Permissive							.055	90	.17**
	Passive Co-viewing							.403**		

Note. Six separate simple simultaneous linear regression analyses are presented in the above table. For each type of child compliance there are two regression analyses, one for the parent reports and one of the child reports. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

TABLE 9

Regression Analyses with Parenting Style and Intentional Co-viewing Regressed on Co-viewing Child Compliance

Independent Variables	Parent Co-view Compliance			Child Co-view Compliance		
	β	<i>n</i>	R^2	β	<i>n</i>	R^2
Authoritarian	-.132	75	.06	.049	83	.03
Intentional Co-viewing	.200			.159		
Authoritative	.322**	75	.14**	-.032	83	.02
Intentional Co-viewing	.208			.156		

Note. Four separate simple simultaneous linear regression analyses are presented in the above table.

* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

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