

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY

PARENTING AND TELEVISION: AN INVESTIGATION
OF FACTORS RELATED TO MOTHERS'
KNOWLEDGE OF CHILDREN'S
TELEVISION VIEWING

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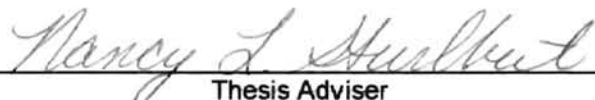
Stillwater, Oklahoma

1994

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
MASTER OF SCIENCE
July, 1996

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Thesis Approved:



Thesis Adviser







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PREFACE

This study was conducted to examine factors related to mothers' knowledge of their children's television viewing. Parent-child pairs were asked about the child's typical viewing frequency and content. Mothers filled out questionnaires regarding their attitude toward controlling children's TV viewing, the amount of time they spent viewing television with their children, and their estimations of what their children watched on television. This research was performed in order to gain more information about parenting and television. Many people are owed thanks for their efforts on this project.

I sincerely wish to thank my advisor, Dr. Nancy Hurlbut, for her time and patience during the seemingly endless revisions of this work. I also wish to thank my committee, Dr. Rex Culp and Dr. Kay Murphy, for their insightful suggestions and comments. Special thanks goes to Dr. Richard Potts, whose guidance and expertise proved invaluable in every step of this study.

I would also like to thank my parents, Paul and Clara Welch, and my brother, Johnny Welch, for their support throughout my time at OSU. Thanks also to Jamie and Richard Alexander, who have helped make all my college years extremely bearable.

I would like to express my gratitude to John and Sue Taylor, whose graduate scholarship for research in parenting helped to make this study possible. Special thanks also goes to the parents and children who participated in this study, and to the teachers and administrators who allowed me into their school and classrooms.

Finally, I would like to offer personal thanks to Richard, who endured all the revisions, frustrations, and late nights patiently, and really made it all worthwhile. His love and support truly made this "the most fun."

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study was designed to investigate the relationship between maternal perceptions of children's television (TV) viewing and children's self-reported viewing behaviors in order to better work with parents and children regarding television use in the family. Television viewing is a common activity for most American families. Most households own at least one television, and viewing often begins in infancy and continues throughout the lifespan (Liebert & Sprafkin, 1988; Leung, Fagan, Cho, Lim, & Robson, 1994). While the amount of time children spend viewing is large, parental mediation of children's viewing remains low, with only about 10% of parents attempting positive guidance techniques in order to mediate or control what their children watch (Singer & Benton, 1989). Since so few parents are estimated to mediate children's TV viewing, it is important to investigate parental rationales behind their guidance techniques. Do so few parents mediate because they aren't aware of what their children are watching? Is it because parents are unconcerned or unaware of the potential effects of television on children? Possibly, parents may believe that their children can effectively monitor themselves. There are numerous possible rationales behind parental mediation choices. Additional information is needed in order to more fully understand the interactions that occur between parents, their children, and television viewing.

The main construct of interest in this study was parental knowledge of children's television viewing. Specifically, parental knowledge was examined as it interacted with and was impacted by covieing (watching television with another person), a maternal attitude of pro TV control, and child's age and gender.

Television has become almost universal in American society. Its use transcends age, gender, and culture. We become regular viewers as toddlers, and continue viewing an estimated 23-28 hours per week during our pre-school and elementary school years (Leung et al, 1994; Levin & Carlsson-Paige, 1994). In fact, TV viewing has been found to be the second most time consuming activity in childhood (Huston, Watkins, & Kunkel, 1989). It is because of these high statistics that many researchers have investigated links between television viewing and behavioral and other outcomes in children.

Traditionally, studies of children and television have seemed to focus on children becoming more aggressive, less fit, and lower achieving in academic circles due to the time they spend watching TV. However, increasing amounts of literature demonstrate that television's influence is not unmitigable (Wright, St. Peters, & Huston, 1990). Researchers have found both value and positive potential in television viewing by children. The difference in outcome, however, seems to lie both in what and how the children are watching.

Parental intervention has been demonstrated to be key in monitoring both the content and amount of children's viewing. One frequently studied area is the link between television viewing and aggression. Although data indicate that children who view televised aggression do behave more aggressively after watching, they also indicate that children can learn other lessons about aggressive behavior if a parent or another competent viewing partner is present and active during the child's viewing. That is, lessons learned from a television can be reshaped by an intervention in which the TV situation is discussed or otherwise confronted.

It is important to note, however, that parental mediation is not solely for the purpose of combating aggressive or negative TV images. Parents can structure a child's TV "diet" so that the child receives positive or educational

messages (or other concepts valued by the parents). Under such an environment, TV viewing can benefit the child (Wright, St. Peters, & Huston, 1990).

Parental mediation of television viewing can facilitate both negative and positive effects. However, few parents regulate children's viewing, and the regulation that does occur is estimated to be somewhat ineffective (St. Peters, M., Fitch, M., Huston, A., Wright, J., & Eakins, D., 1991). Most research on parental mediation of children's viewing has investigated the type of guidance used by the parents; however, additional research needs to be done to fully examine parental rationales behind selecting one guidance form over another.

Other studies have addressed the issue of the correspondence between parent and child reports of children's TV viewing behaviors. However, these studies were primarily concerned with investigating measurement instruments (Greenberg, Ericson, & Vlahos, 1972; Bechtel, Achelpohl, & Akers, 1972; Andersen, Field, Collins, Lorch, & Nathan, 1985; Alexander, Wartella, & Brown, 1981). Additionally, the data from most of the existing studies were collected on samples of children who were TV viewers in a decade prior to the de-regulation of children's television, which may differ from the results of current television studies which are post deregulation (Levin & Carlsson-Paige, 1994).

The present study helps fill a gap in the literature by examining a modern American sample of 6-, 8-, and 10 year old children from a public school in a small, midwestern town of approximately 1200 people. The focus of this study was on the relationship between children's reports of their own TV viewing behaviors and mothers' reports of those behaviors. It was predicted that the correspondence between mother and child reports of children's TV viewing would vary according to child's age and gender, and mothers' attitudes regarding

parental control of children's television viewing. It was further predicted that the act of coviewing would both effect and be effected by these variables.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BASE

Individuals live their lives within many levels of environmental influence (Bronfenbrenner, 1989). Children and their TV viewing behaviors can also be conceptualized as existing within the larger contexts of the child's world, including such factors as family, friends, and school. This chapter utilizes ecological systems theory by Bronfenbrenner in conjunction with the model of determinants of children's media use (Wright, St. Peters, & Huston, 1990) to explain the theoretical base of this study. First, the relevant concepts of ecological systems theory will be reviewed, followed by an explanation of the applied model.

Ecological Systems Theory

Ecological systems theory describes development by examining the influences, past and present, on an individual. There are many levels of influence acknowledged by this theory. These levels include macro-, micro-, meso-, and exosystems. These levels represent such influences as cultural norms (macrosystem), the family (microsystem), school (mesosystem), and social networks (exosystem), (Bubolz & Sontag, 1993). Additionally, it is important to note that this theory follows development throughout the lifespan, and accepts the influence of past experience as a legitimate element in a person's current development. This theory also includes the unique characteristics of the individual as vital to one's own developmental course. Therefore, the environment at all levels and over the entire course of one's life is thought to interact with one's personal characteristics to influence individual development (Bronfenbrenner, 1989).

Ecological theory believes that people develop through a combination of internal and external factors over time. The point in time in which a developmental change occurs is a result of (a) the time and factors which spurred the change, (b) the person him or herself, (c) the environments in which he or she now and has previously existed, and (d) the influences within those environments (Bronfenbrenner, 1989).

Ecological theory, as it takes into account all influences on development (i.e. current influences from society at all levels, past influences, and individual characteristics) is an example of a contextualist theory. Developmental influences are interwoven across all levels and times. One segment of an influence over development is inextricable from another. That is, no one influence can stand alone. A person develops as a result of the interaction between all influential factors.

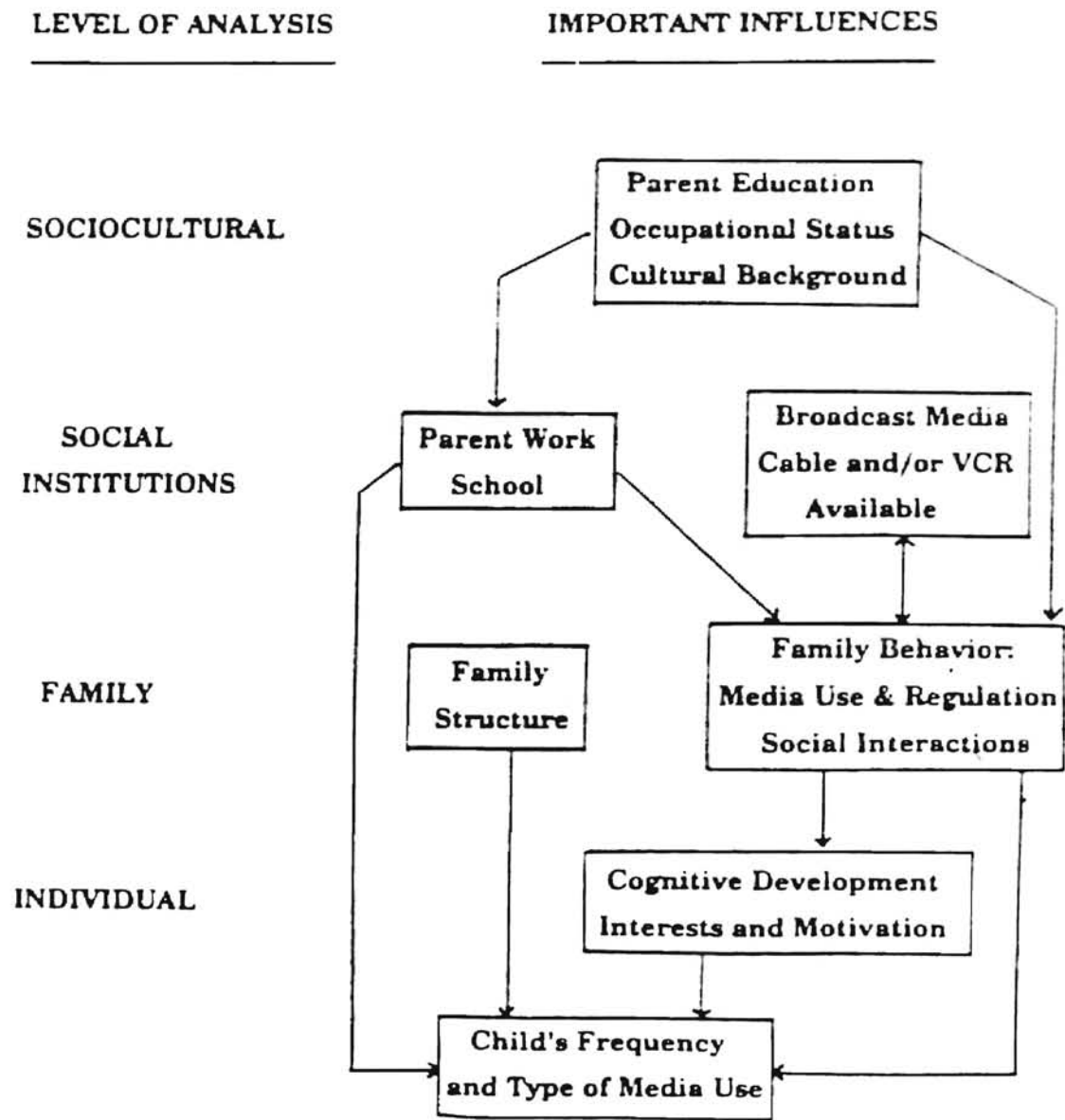
Ecological theory has been used by several television researchers to explain and investigate the role of television in family and society (Condry, 1989; Wright, St. Peters & Huston, 1990). Television as an environmental force is a concept that has been advocated in several other research studies over many years (Abelman, 1990; Leichter, Ahmed, Barrios, Bryce, Larsen, & Moe, 1985; Hess, 1962). Within these studies, television has been conceptualized as an external force holding positions in the environment comparable in influence to those of the family and school. The following is a concrete model diagramming the ways in which television has been hypothesized to influence the family system.

Model of Determinants of Children's Media Use

The model of determinants of children's media use is used by Wright, St. Peters, and Huston (1990) to guide their study of the development of children's uses of television. This model demonstrates how multiple influences in a child's environment impact each other and the child viewer to create individual viewing patterns. All levels of the environment are active.

The current study is focused on maternal perceptions of children's uses of television, so the model, designed to examine determinants of children's use of television, generalizes well to the present study. The model, accurately reflecting the theory, shows that multiple internal and external factors interact with and react to each other. The model has taken the more general concepts of ecological systems theory and applied them to television, just as one may apply the concepts to a particular family or group.

As pictured in the model, the child's frequency and type of media use is impacted upon directly or indirectly by many environmental influences at each level of analysis. Maternal attitude and amount of coviewing are two environmental factors within the level of the family (microsystem), and the variable of child's age is located within the individual level. Therefore, the individual and family levels will be the main foci of the study, with other constructs of interest being indirectly contributed from all other sections of the model.



Model of Determinants of Children's Media Use

(Wright, St. Peters, & Huston, 1990)

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Overview

Television provides a broad spectrum of program content for all modern viewers, including children. This diversity in available programming has been cited as one reason for research into parental knowledge of children's viewing (St. Peters, Fitch, Huston, Wright, & Eakins, 1991). Parents cannot be assured that their children are watching only programs that are "parentally approved." Therefore, if parents are concerned about the influences of television on children, a first step is to be aware of what their children are watching. Current research literature indicates several areas that seem to be related to this parental awareness. Following is a review of relevant literature regarding parental knowledge, guidance, and attitudes about television as related to the age and gender of the child.

Coviewing

One purpose of this study was to examine the issue of coviewing (a specific type of parental guidance) as it related to parental knowledge. Additionally, coviewing was examined as it related to mothers' pro TV control attitudes and the age and gender of the child.

A child's viewing habits will change over the course of a lifetime. Viewing is estimated to begin when children are very young and steadily increase in amount until school age, at which time it drops slightly and then continues its increase until approximately age 12 (Huston et al., 1992). In addition to the variation in viewing quantity, other changes in viewing behaviors may occur as the child develops.

One change is variation in the child's viewing companions. For instance, while younger children are estimated to spend some of their viewing time with their parents, even more of their time is spent coviewing with siblings (St. Peters et al., 1991). Older children are more likely to begin viewing without their parents, though still perhaps influenced by their parents' viewing preferences (Huston et al., 1992; St. Peters et al., 1991). Overall, the amount of coviewing decreases as children age (St. Peters et al., 1991).

The literature also differentiates coviewing patterns by program type. For instance, young children are more likely to be exposed to "adult" type programs (soap operas, news) while viewing with a parent than when viewing alone. Children are also more likely to view children's programming alone than with parents (St. Peters et al., 1991).

It is important to note when reviewing coviewing data that estimates may be inflated and do not accurately reflect the amount of time parents actually spend watching TV with their children (Dorr, Kovaric, & Doubleday, 1989). This inaccuracy may stem from the error of social desirability, as the parents' answers reflect what they believe is socially acceptable, and not reality. Therefore, the literature seems to indicate that parents may not be aware of what their children view simply because the parents are not present while the child watches TV. It is hypothesized in the current study that parents who have low correspondence scores on the parent and child television measure will also have low scores on the coviewing scale.

Parental Guidance and Regulation

In addition to coviewing, many types of guidance and regulation exist for monitoring children's viewing. A second purpose of this study is to investigate factors that may influence parents to regulate their children's TV viewing. One

common type of parental influence related to coviewing is that of allowing children to learn by parental example. Research has shown that parental viewing examples influence both what the children watch on television, and how much is watched (Dorr, Kovaric, & Doubleday, 1989). This is especially important to know since most parents generally do not employ restrictions or control over children's viewing, but allow their children to learn viewing patterns by parental example (Plomin, Corley, DeFries, & Fulker, 1990). This would imply that having parents present while the child views television could have more positive effects on viewing habits than the child viewing alone, depending upon what the parent models. However, researchers have found that parental presence or absence typically makes little difference for one important reason: parents seldom regulate children's viewing. Studies have reported estimates that up to 85% of parents do nothing to restrict or guide their children's television viewing, and that only 10% of parents use any type of positive guidance technique (Singer & Benton, 1989). Therefore, having parents present but inactive in their child's viewing may yield only negligible benefits, and could even be detrimental as the parents' presence may reinforce the idea that television is a worthwhile activity and that its programs are valuable to watch, regardless of the parents' actual beliefs. Parental presence seems to matter less than parental input (Huston et al., 1992).

Actually, children are more likely to be exposed to adult-type programs when viewing with parents than when viewing alone (St. Peters et al., 1991). In fact, parents are present only about one-fourth of the time when children are viewing children's television programming (St. Peters et al., 1991). Two additional factors that have been shown to effect parental guidance are the number of television sets in the home, and the number of hours that the parents themselves view (Gross & Walsh, 1980). Both of these factors are related to

children's increased viewing and decreased parent/child communication about what is viewed.

When parents do actively influence their children's TV viewing, three types of parental guidance have been explored in three separate studies (Abelman & Pettey, 1989; Bybee, Robinson, & Turrow, 1982; van der Voort, Nikken, & van Lil, 1992).. The guidance techniques are: (1) restrictive guidance, or imposing restrictions on children's viewing, (2) evaluative guidance, or discussing programming with the child for the distinct purpose of helping the child in his or her evaluation of the program, and (3) unfocused guidance, which may involve simple covieing or informal talking with the child about the program. The studies, based on such varied populations as gifted children, children of academicians, and a Danish replication study, all reported unfocused guidance being the most frequently employed method and evaluative the least used. In addition, the age of the child, parental gender and educational level, characteristics of the child, and viewing characteristics of the parents in all three studies seemed to have some effect on which guidance technique was employed. These studies demonstrate the ways in which parents may guide their children's viewing, and some factors which may influence their decisions to do so. An interesting finding in the guidance literature is the reciprocal nature of parents and children in program selection. For instance, parents may guide what their young children watch because they are more likely to be controlling the set; however, children's viewing preferences also appear to change what parents are watching (McDonald, 1986).

While there have been numerous training programs developed to help parents educate their children about TV, there is little evidence that parents are taking an active part in their children's viewing (Huston et al., 1992). When parents do express concern over their children's viewing, it is most likely over

program content rather than about the amount of time spent viewing (Bower, 1973). Despite that finding, it is also known that parents are not likely to perform actions to prevent children from viewing inappropriate scenes, such as changing channels to avoid violent or explicit (Bower, 1973).

Another study (Corder-Bolz & O'Bryant, 1978), in an attempt to demonstrate the value of adult intervention in children's television, showed that children who watched a program with an adult who made comments that were informational or attitudinal in nature seemed to experience an increase in the amount of information learned as well as in the "number of positive attitudes formed." This study reported that the children who received intervention techniques fared better than the no-intervention group. However, achieving this type of intervention in an applied or home setting requires some type of parental motivation to do so.

Parents who recognize the value of viewing television and its potential positive effects have been shown to have higher frequencies of parent-child coviewing (Dorr, Kovaric, & Doubleday, 1989). However, the literature reports that most parents do not seem to regard television as having either negative or positive effects on their children (St. Peters et al, 1991). Thus, it is not likely (1) that many parents hold positive attitudes about children's viewing or (2) that they attempt to facilitate or control the viewing of certain programs.

Although many techniques exist by which parents may guide and/or regulate their children's viewing, research demonstrates little use of any method beyond coviewing or modeling. Parents rely heavily upon their own example to teach their children about television, and at times are guided by their children's choices.

As most parents engage only in unfocused guidance and incidental modeling, it is predicted that the families in this study will also participate in such

techniques. Therefore, it was again hypothesized that parents' scores would reflect low levels of coviewing and that parent/child correspondence scores will also be low.

Age and Gender Effects

A third purpose of this study was to examine the effects of child's age and gender on parental accuracy in reporting children's television viewing. Variation in parental accuracy in predicting children's viewing behaviors may be related to the age and gender of the child. Gross & Walsh (1980) found that parental control over a child's viewing did vary by the child's gender. Their data indicate that parents attempted to control girls' TV viewing more than they did for boys. Girls were allowed to watch fewer shows with adult content and were subject to more rules about viewing. Additionally, more control of "the knob" was given to parents when a girl was watching the TV than when a boy was viewing. These findings, therefore, give support to the hypothesis that parents may be more accurate in predicting the viewing behaviors of girls than for boys, due to their heavier involvement in regulating girls' viewing.

Age of the child has also been found to influence parents' regulation of viewing (Dorr, Kovaric, & Doubleday, 1989). Studies have reported that younger children receive the lowest levels of coviewing, even though they would seem to be a group with high coviewing needs. Young children may also be subject to the viewing preferences of older siblings, as older children and more powerful members of the household have more power in deciding what is watched (St. Peters et al., 1991). Studies have reported that 5 year old children coview approximately 85% of their viewing time, but 62% of that coviewing experience is spent with siblings, not parents (Field, 1987). A separate study found that 6-17 year olds also spent the majority of their coviewing time with siblings (Lawrence & Wozniak, 1989). In addition to this, children also achieve greater

independence with age, and may therefore spend even less time viewing with their parents. Thus, parental accuracy in predicting children's viewing behaviors may fluctuate as determined by age of the child. It was predicted from these findings that parents would be most accurate in reporting the viewing content of younger children and girls, and less accurate in reporting behaviors of boys and older children.

Measurement of TV Viewing

Methods typically used in television research include diaries, self-reports, informant-reports, observations, and combinations of the above. Several studies have examined the effectiveness of one measure over another. Andersen et al. (1985), after researching the correlations between time-lapse video observations in the home, global viewing measures, and viewing diaries, stated that in order for parents to be more accurate in reporting children's viewing, they should be provided with behavior and time specific instruments. It was found that diaries (the more specific instrument) were more accurate than were measures that asked more general questions (Anderson et al., 1985).

Other-reports (or parent reports) are typically filled out by the mother to report the viewing behavior of a child or the family. However, maternal reports of children's viewing behaviors have not been found to correlate highly with children's reports, except on perceptions of non-violent shows viewed (Greenberg et al., 1972). Data also indicate that parents tend to over-report the time that they spend watching TV with their children, and that individuals tend to overestimate their own viewing when using diary and general report estimates (Bechtel, Achelpohl, & Akers, 1972). Therefore, using the appropriate measurement tool could be very important to television research.

Young children's general estimates of viewing are less consistent with their diary records than are older children's (Alexander et al., 1981). However, age change apparently was not totally reflective of the child's accuracy in self-reporting in this study. Mothers consistently reported more TV viewing by the children than did the children themselves (Alexander et al., 1981).

From the studies of the major types of television instruments, the recommended methods seem to include using a measure that is as specific as possible, and is a self-report rather than an other-report. The TV questionnaire used in this study is such a measure. Most types of reports are subject to the common errors of memory, social desirability, and variations within the reporting subjects. However, these types of errors can be reduced with a short, specific questionnaire designed to assess typical behaviors. Therefore, the three measures chosen for use in the current study are all short and specific.

Summary

Young children spend a good deal of time with television, and their interactions with TV are mediated by a variety of techniques. Parents may employ several methods to aid their children in understanding television, although most parents do nothing to educate their children about TV or mediate children's viewing. The literature demonstrates a need to encourage and explore parental covieing, as well as to achieve greater reliability in measurement instruments. The current study proposed to do both in an effort to combine several factors related to parental guidance and knowledge. The tested hypotheses were (1) The correspondence between mothers' perceptions of their children's viewing frequency and content and their children's self-reports will vary according to the age of the child; (2) The correspondence between mothers' perceptions of their children's viewing frequency and content and their

children's self-reports will be more accurate for girls than for boys; (3) Scores on the pro TV control attitude measure will be positively correlated with coviewing scores; (4) Scores on the pro TV control attitude measure will be positively correlated with the correspondence between mother and child viewing estimates; and (5) Scores on the coviewing scale will be positively correlated with the correspondence between mother and child viewing estimates.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The participants in this study were from a convenience sample that consisted of 104 children (57 females; 47 males) ranging in age from 76 to 139 months and their mothers. All children were enrolled in public school grades 1-4 in a small, mid-western town of approximately 1,200 people. The participants were predominantly white (>4% Native American; >2% Hispanic) and of lower and middle socioeconomic status ($M=35.45$), as determined by the Hollingshead Index of Socioeconomic Status (Hollingshead, 1975). The sample consisted of both mothers who reported working in and away from the home.

Instruments and Measures

Demographic Questionnaire

A demographic questionnaire was filled out by each participating mother. The questionnaire consisted of information from which the Hollingshead scores were derived and some additional questions regarding family size and child care use (see Appendix A).

TV Viewing Questionnaire (child form)

This instrument is a Likert-type scale and was developed by Potts & Martinez (1993). It was designed for children aged 6-10 years. The instrument involves a list of current programs that are aired throughout the week at various times (see Appendix B). The questionnaire was compiled from shows mentioned by a convenience sample of 6-10 year-old children, and from a recent issue of a

TV guide. From this list, the child told the researcher how much he/she watched each program by answering "a lot," "sometimes," or "never." A sample item would appear: **Animaniacs 2 1 0.**

Children's TV Viewing Questionnaire (parent form).

This instrument consisted of two sections. Section one is part one of a parental questionnaire developed to accompany the above. The original questionnaire was also developed by Potts & Martinez (1993). It listed categories of television programs from which the parents were to answer on a scale of 4-0 how often his or her child viewed the program ("almost always," "fairly often," "sometimes," "rarely," or "never."). The adapted questionnaire listed specific programs, as did the children's instrument and was rated in the same manner (see Appendix C). This instrument was adapted and checked for validity by Potts (Potts, personal communication, August 2, 1995). A sample item would appear: **Animaniacs 4 3 2 1 0**

Section two added a coviewing component to Potts & Martinez' (1993) measure. This part of the measure asked that the mother rate each show listed by amount of coviewing that occurs between herself and her child. For each show, she circled 2=often, 1=sometimes, or 0=never to indicate the frequency with which she coviews each show (see Appendix C). A sample item would appear: **Animaniacs 4 3 2 1 0 2 1 0.**

Measure of Maternal Attitudes (parent form)

This instrument was designed by Holman & Braithwaite (1982) to measure parental attitudes about television and the ways in which they believe it may effect children, and was implemented in a study about children's TV

viewing. The measure was a Likert-type scale in which parents chose to strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with a statement (see Appendix D). The instrument was obtained with the assistance of Braithwaite (Braithwaite, personal communication, September 11, 1995). A sample item would appear: **Television encourages laziness 4 3 2 1**

Validity

Face validity has been established for each of the above measures. In addition, each instrument directly facilitates obtaining the correlation between mother's perceptions of what their children are viewing and their children's self-reports by directly questioning the individuals about habitual behavior. They would therefore be reported as "measuring what they are intended to measure."

Reliability

Reliability had not been previously tested for any of the above instruments with the exception of the children's version of the TV viewing questionnaire. Twenty-four of the children in the present study participated in the test-retest reliability portion. Correlations between time one and time two scores for each of the 40 programs were computed. All correlations were significant at $p < .02$, and 31 of the 40 shows were significant at $p < .002$. The correlations ranged from .42 to .95 ($M = .72$).

Procedure

Questionnaires were sent to the parents of each child enrolled in the first through fourth grades in the local elementary ($N = 154$). One-hundred four of the questionnaires were returned for use in the study. The mother completed her survey independently. The child completed the survey in an interview format at

the school. The interviewer asked the child if he or she watched a particular show, and helped each child report how much he or she watched. The child was shown three visual aids, which demonstrated "a lot," "sometimes," and "never". The average time for completion of the child's survey was one session of ten minutes. Mothers received a five dollar gift certificate to a local store for their participation, and the child was allowed to chose a sticker as thanks for their time and help.

Design

This was a correlational study. Mothers' reports of children's viewing were correlated with children's reports. Additionally, difference scores were correlated with mothers' coviewing score, pro TV control attitude scores, and child's age and gender. $p > .05$.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using Pearson correlations and one tailed t-tests.

The data were analyzed as follows:

- (1) Mothers' reports of children's viewing content and frequency correlated with children's self-reports.
- (2) Difference score correlated with mothers' estimates of coviewing.
- (3) Difference score correlated with mothers' pro TV attitude scores.
- (4) The effect of child's age on the difference score.
- (5) The effect of child's gender on the difference score using a one tailed t-test.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

The analyses were designed to test the correspondence between mothers' and children's reports concerning children's television viewing. How the degree of correspondence was related to child's age, gender, reported covieing, and maternal pro TV control attitude was also examined. The analyses included Pearson product moment correlations and t-tests.

Initial analysis of the mother and child reports investigated the correlation between mother reports of the type and frequency of children's TV viewing and children's reports of their own viewing on each of the 40 programs. Mother and child scores positively correlated on 35 of the 40 programs. Nineteen of the programs were correlated at $p < .05$, and an additional 16 of the 40 were significant at $p < .001$. This indicates that mothers and children were generally in agreement about the type and amount of children's TV viewing across the sample of programs.

The degree of mother-child correspondence in the study was measured with a difference score. This difference score was obtained by converting the mother scale from a five point to a three point scale to match the children's scale. This was done by collapsing the mothers' categories of "rarely" and "never" together (score=0), and "almost always" and "fairly often" together (score=2). The answer of "sometimes" remained the same (score=1). The mother's score on the 0-1-2 scale was then subtracted from the child's score, and averaged across all 40 programs for each mother/child pair. The average difference score was .282 (SD=.32) and ranged from -.44 to 1.21.

Relation of Child Variable and Difference Score

Age. It was predicted that mothers' perceptions of their children's viewing frequency and content would vary according to the age of the child, with mothers showing the highest correspondence, or smallest difference score, with the youngest children. This was not supported, as the correlation between age and the difference score was not significant, $r = -.06$, $p = .26$.

Gender. It was predicted that the degree of correspondence between mothers' perceptions of their children's television viewing frequency and content and children's self-reports would vary according to gender, with mothers having the highest correspondence with girls. A one tailed t-test on the difference score revealed a significant effect of gender, $t(92) = 1.64$, $p < .05$. The difference score was lower for girls ($M = .23$, $SD = .27$) than for boys ($M = .34$, $SD = .36$), indicating fewer differences in responses between mother-daughter pairs than mother-son pairs.

Relation of Maternal Variables to Difference Score

Coviewing. A total coviewing score was created by summing the reported coviewing levels for each program. It was predicted that mothers' coviewing of programs with their children would be negatively correlated with the difference scores, that is, more coviewing would lead to closer correspondence in viewing estimates. A Pearson correlation indicated support for this hypothesis, $r = -.247$, $p < .02$.

Attitude. A measure of maternal attitudes specific to parental control of children's TV viewing was constructed by summing their scores on seven items from the attitude scale which reflected this pro TV control orientation. It was predicted that mothers' scores on the attitude measure would be correlated with the difference score. This hypothesis was not supported, as the Pearson correlation did not reveal significance, $r = .04$; $p > .1$.

It was also predicted that mothers' scores on the attitude scale would be correlated with the coviewing score. A Pearson correlation revealed support for this prediction, $r=.20$; $p<.05$. This demonstrated that mothers whose attitude scores reflected high TV control also were likely to report high levels of coviewing.

Additional analyses indicated that an attitude of pro TV control was negatively correlated with child's age, $r=-.21$, $p<.02$. Mothers appear to be less concerned with monitoring or controlling the viewing of older children.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

The main findings of this study center around the relationship between five variables: degree of correspondence in mother-child TV viewing reports (difference score), child gender, child age, reported coviewing, and maternal attitude. Each of the investigated variables revealed patterns that will be discussed below.

Correlation of TV Viewing Reports (Difference Score)

Previous studies of the correspondence between parent and child reports of children's TV viewing have generally not reported high correlations (Greenberg et al., 1972). Therefore, it was predicted that mother and child reports would not be highly correlated. However, the data indicated that 35 of the 40 television programs were found to be significantly correlated for mother-child pairs on average. This finding stands in contrast to much of the available literature on parent-child TV viewing reports.

One possible reason for the significant correlation between mothers and children in this study could be the method used. A program-specific instrument was used and was designed to measure habitual viewing behaviors, instead of general ones. This perhaps aided in obtaining a more accurate estimate of typical viewing. This correlation is very interesting given that participants had to choose between three levels of viewing, thus reducing the possibility that the correlations occurred at random, as may occur in instruments that simply ask participants to choose between only two levels of viewing.

Gender

Previous findings have revealed that parental control of children's viewing appears to vary by gender, with more attempts to control girls' viewing than boys' (Gross & Walsh, 1980). In accordance with this literature, the current study predicted that mothers would be more likely to be informed of what their female children are watching than about their male children's behaviors. This study did find that mothers' estimates of children's viewing were more closely related to their daughters' estimates than their sons, indicating that mothers do in fact know more about what their girls are watching than about what their boys are watching.

However, data did not indicate exactly why mothers are more informed about daughters' viewing. One possible explanation could be explored by examining gender differences in maternal coviewing; however, no gender differences were found to be related to reported coviewing. Even though mothers are more accurate about their female children's viewing patterns, it does not appear to be as a function of amount of coviewing. Therefore, it would seem important to investigate other mother/daughter and mother/son interactions in order to more effectively determine in what ways mothers and daughters are differently communicating about their viewing patterns. Possible explanations that could be explored in future research could include assessment of mother-daughter communication about and during television viewing. Perhaps mothers periodically "check in" on daughters more than sons, even though they do not remain to coview the entire program.

Age

The literature has indicated that age of child is an important factor in parental regulation of children's television viewing. Young children tend to

experience the least amounts of parental coviewing, and tend to watch television most often with older siblings (St. Peters et al, 1991). However, it is also known that children tend to spend less time with their parents as the children age and achieve greater independence. So even though the youngest children may not be coviewing with parents for most of their viewing time, they are still more likely to be viewing television in their own home, in close proximity to their parents. It was thus hypothesized that, although younger children seldom receive parental coviewing, parents are more likely to be knowledgeable about what they view simply because younger children are more likely to view in the home. As such, parents are aware of what young children watch and thus more accurate in reporting their viewing as compared their accuracy concerning older children's viewing.

Despite this prediction, no significant findings emerged relating age of child to the difference score. One possible explanation for these data could be the age range of the children in the study. The subjects ranged in age from approximately 6- to 11- years of age. This age range may not span a significant enough developmental difference, and parents may not make large changes in their TV regulation and monitoring between the youngest age and the oldest children in the sample. Additionally, differences in time spent with parents may not be as varied as was previously predicted, revealing that children in the present age range may be spending approximately the same amount of time in and out of the home.

Coviewing

As stated previously, coviewing amounts appear to shift as a function of child characteristics. Frequent coviewing may allow a parent to be more knowledgeable about a child's viewing behaviors than would less coviewing,

regardless of specific child variables. Thus, it was predicted that parents with high scores on the coviewing instrument should also show greater correspondence with their children's TV viewing reports.

This hypothesis was supported, as coviewing and difference scores were discovered to have a negative relationship, with more coviewing being associated with smaller TV viewing difference scores. This finding is particularly interesting given that the literature indicates that parents generally overestimate coviewing amounts. However, if the parents in the current study had done so, it seems unlikely that difference scores would have been so low. One possibility for the low differences between mother's reports and children's could be that other types of parental mediation were used by the mothers in the study, but not measured. Another possible explanation could be the effectiveness of the instrument used in precisely measuring the variables. The instrument was very specific and designed to measure typical viewing behaviors.

Attitude

It was predicted that maternal attitudes, specifically attitudes favoring parental involvement with and regulation of children's TV viewing, would predict mothers' accuracy in reporting their child's viewing. This was not supported. However, an attitude of pro TV control was positively correlated with amount of coviewing which, as discussed previously, was predictive of smaller TV viewing difference scores. This suggests, but does not confirm, a sequence in which mothers' TV control attitudes lead to more coviewing behaviors, which in turn leads to more correspondence with their children's TV viewing reports.

Previous studies have found that parents who believe in the potential positive effects of television on children tend to coview more with their children (Dorr, Kovaric, & Doubleday, 1989). Interestingly, although pro TV control

attitudes were related to coviewing, they were not related to an increase in mothers' accuracy in reporting what children's viewing behaviors.

Theory

The current study was guided by a model of ecological systems theory applied to television viewing. By utilizing the model, children's type and frequency of viewing were examined as they are influenced by maternal attitudes, child's age and gender, and parental coviewing.

The model was designed for use in examining the development of children's uses of television, and not specifically for investigating mothers' knowledge about their children's viewing habits. However, many shared variables exist between the model and the present study. The primary variables of interest are discussed below.

Mothers' knowledge about children's TV viewing behaviors as related to child's age was examined within the Cognitive Development/Interests and Motivation section of the model. Although the model proposes that cognitive development (measured here by age) relates directly to children's media use, this connection was not supported for mother's knowledge of children's media use.

Both coviewing and maternal attitude were predicted to act as influences on the frequency and type of children's media use within the family level of the theoretical model. The model worked well to demonstrate the influence of coviewing on mothers' knowledge of children's media use, although predictions about maternal TV control attitudes were not supported by the model for this particular study. However, it is possible that maternal attitudes about TV control are reflected in coviewing behaviors. Therefore, a potential link between

maternal attitudes and mothers' knowledge of children's media use could exist through coviewing.

The investigation of the correlation between mothers' estimates of children's viewing and the children's self-reports is best interpreted by ecological systems theory. This theory takes into account many factors that may influence mothers' accuracy in predicting children's viewing behaviors, although the present study examined only a limited few. One of these variables, child's gender, was examined as a possible predictor of mothers' knowledge of children's viewing behaviors. The results of the current study do indicate that child's gender is one of many influences impacting maternal knowledge of children's viewing in ecological systems theory.

Other influences on maternal knowledge of children's viewing include maternal attitude about TV control and child's age. The findings from the current study suggest that mothers become less concerned about controlling the TV as their children age; additionally, mothers who are more concerned about TV control tend to coview more than do unconcerned mothers. Therefore, mothers' pro TV control attitude and child's age act together within the micro-system (the family) to form one additional environmental influence on maternal knowledge of children's TV viewing behavior.

In sum, ecological theory appears to be an appropriate theory to investigate mothers' knowledge of children's television viewing. Additionally, the model of determinants of children's media use seems to work well when expanded to include not only the determinants of children's media use, but parental knowledge of that use. While some hypotheses were supported when applied to the model, other hypotheses were not. It is possible, however, that the unsupported hypotheses may work in accordance with the model, but other factors may mediate their influence.

Conclusion

The findings from this study address several possible influences on parental knowledge of children's viewing behaviors, even though many others still exist. The literature has indicated that the influences and motivations that cause some parents to become active participants in children's viewing and others to remain distant vary from family to family and probably hinge on a variety of factors. However, by continuing research into families' uses of television, their attitudes, their interactions, and their personal characteristics, perhaps more can be learned about appropriate types of guidance.

The present findings suggest that, unlike previous findings, mothers were generally aware of their children's typical viewing levels for specific programs. The findings are encouraging in that parental awareness of children's viewing can be seen as an initial step in parental mediation of TV influences on children's behavior and cognition, which in turn, may have a positive effect on children's development.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
ATTITUDE MEASURE

Name _____

Participant # _____

Please provide us with some information about your household. All answers will be completely confidential.

1. Your occupation (Please describe your job. Consult the list below for **examples** of what we mean by specific occupations.):

Accountant	Dishwasher	Nursing Aide
Actor	Electrician	Postal Clerk
Aeronautical Engineer	Farm Laborer	Public Relations
Assembly Line Worker	Forester	Professor
Bank Teller	Garbage Collector	Receptionist
Busboy	Guard/Watchman	Secretary
Carpenter	Hairdresser	Security Guard
Cashier	Health Administrator	Sheriff/Bailiff
Clergy	Homemaker	Shoe Repairman
Clerical, supervisor	Housekeeper	Surveyor
Child Care Worker	Janitor	Teacher, secondary
Cook	Key Punch Operator	Truck Driver
Dentist	Manager, administration	Waiter
Dietitian	Musician/Composer	

2. Are you currently employed or unemployed in this occupation (please check one)?

employed unemployed

3. Please place a check mark next to the highest level you completed in school:

some high school
 high school graduate
 partial college or specialized training
 2-year college graduate
 4-year college graduate
 graduate degree

4. How many **older** brothers or sisters does your child have currently living in the home?

How many **younger** brothers or sisters does your child have currently living in the home?

5. Is yours a two-parent household? ___yes ___no

If yes, please answer questions 6-8. If no, please go to question 9:

6. Occupation of your spouse/partner (Please describe. Consult the list under question #4 for examples of what we mean by specific occupations):

7. Is your spouse/partner currently employed or unemployed in this occupation (please check one)?

___employed ___unemployed

8. Highest level of education completed by your spouse/partner:

- ___some high school
- ___high school graduate
- ___some college or specialized training
- ___2-year college graduate
- ___4-year college graduate
- ___graduate degree

9. If you use any type of child care, please indicate below how many hours in a typical week your child is cared for by someone other than you:

- MTWTF mornings _____ hours per week
- MTWTF afternoons _____ hours per week
- MTWTF evenings _____ hours per week
- Saturday 6 AM-12 noon _____ hours
- Saturday 12 noon-12 midnight _____ hours
- Sunday 6 AM-12 noon _____ hours
- Sunday 12 noon-12 midnight _____ hours

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION AND EFFORT!

APPENDIX B
TV VIEWING QUESTIONNAIRE
(CHILD FORM)

TV Viewing Questionnaire

Your Name _____

Participant # _____

**How often does
child view?**

Show

2=often
1=sometimes
0=never

Monday-Friday (Afternoon)

Taz Mania	2	1	0
Rescue Rangers	2	1	0
Bonkers	2	1	0
Jenny Jones	2	1	0
Carmen Sandiego	2	1	0
Story Time	2	1	0
Wheel of Fortune	2	1	0
Entertainment Tonight	2	1	0
News	2	1	0
Jeopardy	2	1	0
Oprah Winfrey	2	1	0
Blossom	2	1	0
Hard Copy	2	1	0
Full House	2	1	0

Tuesday Evening

Bill Nye,			
The Science Guy	2	1	0
Coach	2	1	0
Frazier	2	1	0
NYPD Blue	2	1	0
Jay Leno	2	1	0
Real Stories of the Highway Patrol	2	1	0

Thursday Evening

Seinfeld	2	1	0
Rescue 911	2	1	0
Living Single	2	1	0
ER	2	1	0

Saturday Morning

Aladdin	2	1	0
Life with Louie	2	1	0
The Mask	2	1	0
X Men	2	1	0
Beakman's World	2	1	0
Victory Garden	2	1	0

Saturday Evening

Hope & Gloria	2	1	0
Dr. Quinn	2	1	0
Cops	2	1	0
Walker, Texas			
Ranger	2	1	0

Sunday Afternoon/Evening

Xena, Warrior			
Princess	2	1	0
Cybill	2	1	0
Lois & Clarke	2	1	0
Nature	2	1	0
Sports	2	1	0
Married, With			
Children	2	1	0

APPENDIX C
TV VIEWING QUESTIONNAIRE
(PARENT FORM)

TV Viewing Questionnaire

Your Name _____

Your Child's Name _____

Participant # _____

In this section, please estimate how often your child views each of the TV programs listed, and how often you watch them together. It is very important that you fill out this questionnaire according to what **you believe** your child watches, so you should not ask your child what he or she watches or discuss television with him/her before filling out this questionnaire. Please answer as honestly as possible, as there are no right or wrong answers.

Please use the following scales when responding to the questions. Circle the number that corresponds to your answer.

	How often does your child view?					How often do you view this program together?		
	4=almost always					2=often		
	3=fairly often					1=sometimes		
	2=sometimes					0=never		
	1=rarely							
	0=never							

Show

Monday-Friday (Afternoon)

Taz Mania	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Rescue Rangers	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Bonkers	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Jenny Jones	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Carmen Sandiego	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Story Time	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Wheel of Fortune	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Entertainment Tonight ⁴	3	2	1	0		2	1	0
News	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Jeopardy	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Oprah Winfrey	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Blossom	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Hard Copy	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Full House	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0

Tuesday Evening

Bill Nye,								
The Science Guy	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Coach	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0

Frazier	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
NYPD Blue	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Jay Leno	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Real Stories of the Highway Patrol	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Thursday Evening								
Seinfeld	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Rescue 911	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Living Single	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
ER	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Saturday Morning								
Aladdin	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Life with Louie	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
The Mask	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
X Men	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Beakman's World	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Victory Garden	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Saturday Evening								
Hope & Gloria	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Dr. Quinn	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Cops	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Walker, Texas Ranger	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Sunday Afternoon/Evening								
Xena, Warrior Princess	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Cybill	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Lois & Clarke	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Nature	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Sports	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0
Married, With Children	4	3	2	1	0	2	1	0

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APPENDIX D
TV ATTITUDE MEASURE

TV ATTITUDE MEASURE

Most people have some views about the effect that TV has on children generally. Below is a list of such views. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each by circling the number that is closest to what you think.

Use the following scale when answering the questions:

4=Strongly Agree
3=Agree
2=Disagree
1=Strongly Disagree

1. TV encourages laziness.	4	3	2	1
2. TV makes children demand things they see on TV.	4	3	2	1
3. TV shows children what life is all about.	4	3	2	1
4. TV discourages activities together as a family.	4	3	2	1
5. TV makes children unimaginative.	4	3	2	1
6. TV encourages hero-worship.	4	3	2	1
7. TV teaches children about other countries.	4	3	2	1
8. TV keeps children entertained.	4	3	2	1
9. TV encourages vanity.	4	3	2	1
10. TV gives children inquiring minds.	4	3	2	1
11. TV makes children competitive.	4	3	2	1
12. TV kills conversation between children and their parents.	4	3	2	1
13. TV increases knowledge of current affairs.	4	3	2	1
14. TV is habit forming for children.	4	3	2	1
15. TV makes children aggressive.	4	3	2	1
16. TV encourages family togetherness.	4	3	2	1
17. TV prevents children from learning to entertain themselves.	4	3	2	1
18. TV makes children lose touch with reality.	4	3	2	1
19. TV prevents children from making friends.	4	3	2	1
20. TV encourages fads.	4	3	2	1
21. TV educates children.	4	3	2	1

22. TV distracts children from more worthwhile activities.	4	3	2	1
23. TV broadens children's understanding of the world they live in.	4	3	2	1
24. TV encourages children to show off.	4	3	2	1
25. TV violence makes violence seem natural to children.	4	3	2	1
26. TV discourages children from thinking for themselves.	4	3	2	1
27. TV stops children from getting bored.	4	3	2	1
28. Parents, not children, should decide when the TV set is turned on.	4	3	2	1
29. It is important for parents to control what their children watch on TV.	4	3	2	1
30. Adults worry too much about the harmful effects of TV.	4	3	2	1
31. There is not an excessive amount of violence on TV.	4	3	2	1
32. Children should be allowed to watch TV whenever they want.	4	3	2	1
33. Children can not distinguish between what is on TV and what happens in real life.	4	3	2	1
34. Children take more notice of what their parents teach them than of what they learn on TV.	4	3	2	1
35. Children don't take much notice of most of the TV they watch.	4	3	2	1
36. TV is a great way of keeping children out of trouble.	4	3	2	1
37. Children should be protected by their parents from the harmful influences of TV.	4	3	2	1
38. Children can be taught not to believe everything they see and hear on TV.	4	3	2	1
39. Parents can't prevent TV from influencing children, even if they want to.	4	3	2	1
40. Parents are totally responsible for the TV programs that young children watch.	4	3	2	1
41. Parents should train their children to be critical of what they see on TV.	4	3	2	1
42. The television stations should be held responsible for what children watch on TV.	4	3	2	1
43. Children should be allowed to watch TV if that is what they like to do most.	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX E
CONSENT FORMS

Dear Mothers,

The Yale Elementary School is participating in a research project, "Parenting and Television," being conducted this year by Ginger Welch, a master's student in the Child Development program at OSU. Her advisor is Dr. Nancy Hurlbut, of the Family Relations and Child Development department at OSU. The study concerns what children watch on television. We would like for you and your child to participate in this study.

In this study, children between the ages of 6 and 10 years will be interviewed individually by me at school. Children's television viewing will be measured by asking them how often they watch each of several TV programs from a list. Furthermore, we would like to ask you to take a few minutes to fill out a similar questionnaire about your child's viewing habits. This questionnaire is included with this letter for you to fill out and return to your child's teacher if you choose to participate.

You will receive a five dollar gift certificate to Wal-Mart for your participation. In order to receive your gift certificate, please write your name and address on the small, white envelope enclosed, and return it with your questionnaire. It will be mailed back to you when your questionnaire is received. The envelope and questionnaire can be returned in the manila envelope.

With your permission, your child will be asked if he or she would like to participate in the interview, and will do so only if he or she chooses. Your child *can end the interview session* at any time and for any reason. The single interview session will last for about 10 minutes and will not interfere with important school events. Children's interviews and your questionnaire answers will be completely confidential and will be seen only by the researchers directly involved in the project. When the analyses of data are completed, we will be happy to report the general findings of the study and their significance to our understanding of children's television viewing to Yale Elementary.

We hope that you will let your child participate. If so, **please complete the attached form, the questionnaires, and the return envelope for your gift certificate.** Please return all items to your child's teacher in the envelope provided. Please keep this page for your own information. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact us at 744-7323 (Ginger) or 744-5031 (Dr. Hurlbut). Additionally, you may contact University Research Services, 305 Whitehurst, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078; Telephone: 405-744-5700.

Sincerely,

Ginger Welch

Please keep the letter for your own information. **Return** this page to your child's teacher, along with the completed questionnaires.

(your child's first and last name)

has my permission to participate in the study "Parenting and Television," being conducted by Ginger Welch of OSU concerning children's television viewing.

(Parent authorized to sign for child)

(date)

I also agree to participate in the aforementioned study being conducted by Ginger Welch of OSU concerning my child's television viewing. I have read and fully understand the consent form. I understand that my signature means that I am consenting to my child's participation and my own participation. I sign freely and voluntarily.

(your signature)

(date)

If you have any questions or concerns, please contact us at 744-7323 (Ginger) or 744-5031 (Dr. Hurlbut). Additionally, you may contact University Research Services, 001 Life Sciences East, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078; Telephone: 405-744-5700.

YOUR PARTICIPATION AND EFFORT ARE GREATLY APPRECIATED!

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 03-05-96

IRB#: HE-96-043

Proposal Title: PARENTING AND TELEVISION: AN INVESTIGATION OF FACTORS RELATED TO MOTHERS' KNOWLEDGE OF CHILDREN'S TELEVISION VIEWING

Principal Investigator(s): Nancy L. Hurlbut, Ginger L. Welch

Reviewed and Processed as: Expedited

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT NEXT MEETING.

APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR ONE CALENDAR YEAR AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.

ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reasons for Deferral or Disapproval are as follows:

Signature:



Chair of Institutional Review Board

Date: April 4, 1996

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VITA

Ginger Welch

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: PARENTING AND TELEVISION: AN INVESTIGATION OF FACTORS RELATED TO MOTHERS' KNOWLEDGE OF CHILDREN'S TELEVISION VIEWING

Major Field: Family Relations and Child Development

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Cushing, Oklahoma, on October 5, 1971, the daughter of Paul and Clara Welch.

Education: Graduated from Yale High School, Yale, Oklahoma in May 1989; received Bachelor of Science degree in Family Relations and Child Development from Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in May 1994. Completed the requirements for the Master of Science degree with a major in Family Relations and Child Development at Oklahoma State University in July 1996.

Experience: Kindergarten Teaching Assistant, Child Development Laboratories, Oklahoma State University from August 1994 to May 1995; Research Assistant, Department of Family Relations and Child Development, Oklahoma State University from August 1994 to present.

Professional Memberships: The Society for Research in Child Development, National Council on Family Relations, National Association for the Education of Young Children, Phi Kappa Phi.