A FACTOR ANALYSIS OF ATTITUDES OF AMERICAN INDIAN COLLEGE STUDENTS AND SENIOR CITIZENS TOWARD TELEVISION PORTRAYALS OF AMERICAN INDIANS

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Bachelor of Arts

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Stillwater, Oklahoma

1976

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, 1984

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PREFACE

This study is concerned with the evaluation of attitudes of American Indian College Students and Senior Citizens toward television portrayals of American Indians to gain some notion of how Indians perceive and react to various television messages about Indians. The main objective of this investigation is to determine the relationship among the Indian subjects' television program preferences, their age group, and their attitudes toward News and Entertainment Program portrayals of American Indians. Numerical values are placed on these variables using Likert-type scales. McQuitty's Elementary Linkage and Factor Analysis Design and the Type I Analysis of Variance Design are used for analysis.

The author wishes to express her appreciation to her major adviser, Dr. William R. Steng, Jr., for his guidance and assistance throughout this study. Appreciation is also expressed to the other committee members, Dr. Michael O. Buchholz and Dr. Walter J. Ward. Dr. Ward's encouragement and his assistance in designing the questionnaire were invaluable.

Thanks is also extended to the 198 American Indians who participated in this study. Their words of encouragement were greatly appreciated.

Finally, special gratitude is expressed to my parents, Della and Oscar Logan, for their understanding, encouragement and support. Without their assistance, this study would not have been possible.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The focus of this investigation was to: (1) determine the television program preferences of American Indian Oklahoma State University (OSU) undergraduate college students and American Indian Senior Citizens; and (2) measure and compare the effects of television program preferences on the attitudes of the Indian subjects toward television portrayals of American Indians to determine the relationship among television program preferences, age groups, and attitudes.

The effects of age on attitudes and the effects of television program preferences on American Indian attitudes was ascertained by measuring and comparing attitudes of the two age groups and determining television program preferences.

It is important for Indian and non-Indian communicators to know if favorable/unfavorable views of television are related to age or if these views are related to specific types of preferred television programming. The results of this study can provide communicators with information about types of television programs that significantly influence attitudes of American Indians toward television portrayals of American Indians.

This investigation focused on two age groups of American Indians, 138 OSU undergraduate students and 60 participants in two separate American Indian Senior Citizens programs in eastern Oklahoma. By

focusing on these two distinct age groups, this study determined if age made a significant difference in attitudes toward television portrayals of American Indians.

Using American Indian undergraduate students at OSU accomplished three specific goals: (1) it measured attitudes of young American Indians because the majority of students were from 18 to 22 years old; (2) it measured attitudes of Indians from a broad scope of both urban and rural areas; and (3) it enabled the use of particular methods of data-gathering that ensured a larger sample than available through other random methods.

The Senior Citizens were randomly selected from the Older Native Americans program based at the Native American Coalition in Tulsa and from the Senior Citizens program based at the Cherokee Tribal Complex in Tahlequah, Oklahoma.

Using these randomly selected Senior Citizens accomplished three specific goals: (1) it measured attitudes of substantially older than undergraduate college age American Indian adults because the participants were 55 years or older; (2) it measured attitudes that were geographically comparable to the attitudes gathered at OSU, thus limiting attitudinal differences due to regional differences; and (3) it enabled the use of particular methods of data-gathering that ensured a larger sample than available through other random methods.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

American Indians, being the original inhabitants of the United States, long have been part of the history, myth, and lore of this country. Unfortunately, the myth was incorporated into the ideal of what is the history of the United States. Through the media, these myths have lived and flourished, some say at the expense of American Indians.

The Kerner Report

In 1968, the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders published the Kerner Report. This report commented on the plight of minorities in this country. The Kerner Report analyzed the role of the media and their effects on the urban-area riots in the late 1960s. Although it seemed targeted at blacks, the findings and recommendations can be applied to American Indians. The Kerner Report (1, p. 372) contended that media coverage of the 1967 riots contained, ". . . mistakes of fact, exaggeration of events, overplaying of particular stories, or prominent displays of speculation about unfounded rumors of potential trouble."

The Kerner Commission (1, p. 383) charged the white-dominated media failed to communicate to "the majority of their audience--which is

white--a sense of the degradation, misery and hopelessness of life in the ghetto."

In reference to the media, the Kerner Commission (1) charged:

> They have not communicated to whites a feeling for the difficulties of being a Negro in the United States. They have not shown understanding or appreciation of--and thus have not communicated--a sense of Negro culture, thought or history (p. 383).

The Kerner Report also stated the media, with notable exceptions, did not exhibit "wisdom, sensitivity, and expertise" in telling the story of race relations in America.

In reference to the Kerner Report, Indian media historians Murphy and Murphy (2) wrote:

> If this charge is true for black Americans, it is also true for American Indians. How many Americans know of the conditions on reservations or among urbanized Indians? How many are aware of the true story of how Indians came to be dispossessed of their land? How many have any more than a naive, misleading vision of eighteenth--and nineteenth--century naked savages running through forests whooping and hollering and making off with the innocent children of equally innocent, brave, and honest white settlers? The story of America's birth and its early nationhood is laced with accounts of how white men tamed the wild land, educated the savages, the gradually assumed benign dictatorship over nomadic peoples unable to control their own destiny and unwilling to rear their children as God-fearing, civilized citizens (pp. 14-15).

As with American blacks, the media have failed to communicate effectively the culture, thought, and history of American Indians in this country. The media have failed to denounce effectively the myths and communicate the life and problems American Indians face today.

All components of the media have played major roles in projecting this country's image of the American Indian. Most evidence points toward the existence of a media-created, stereotyped negative Indian image.

In addition to newspapers, magazines, motion pictures, television, and radio, the book-publishing industry also has contributed to the false and negative Indian image. Indian scholars frequently point to the misinformation and prejudice propagated by academic textbooks dealing with Indians and Indian affairs (2). This study, though, is concerned only with two aspects of the media: television news and entertainment.

To understand fully the present status of Indians on television, it is necessary to review the medium from which the television entertainment Indian image evolved, motion pictures.

American Indians in Motion Pictures

Based on the results of his work on Indian stereotypes in motion pictures, Smith (3) noted three basic developmental periods in film:

> (1) between 1908 and 1929, the era of silent movies, when the western genre and negative Indian stereotypes were first developed; (2) between 1930 and 1947, in the sound dramas and serials, where a heightened use and solidification of stereotyping Indians existed; and (3) after 1948, the process of breaking down the stereotypes resulting in somewhat more sympathetic portrayals (pp. 82-83).

For American Indians, the western genre propagated the most notable bloodthirsty and treacherous image. The image was highly stereotyped and destructive for Indians. Smith (3, p. 83) noted John A. Price's contention that the birth of the western genre in film was "particularly significant because it set Indian portrayals on a rapid stereotypical course" soon followed by television.

Murphy and Murphy (2) stated motion pictures were possibly more responsible for creating the current popular image of Indians in this country than all print media combined. They wrote:

> Writers and dramatists, either intentionally or inadvertently, have propagated the stereotype: the filthy redskin, the noble savage tamed by white refinement and religion, the headdressed warrior who attacks a wagon train, or the swarming redskins attacking the isolated military outpost to the delight of rerun audiences everywhere (p. 12).

These images continue through motion picture reruns on television and still can be convincing to a new generation of viewers.

Though after 1950 the image of the American Indian was somewhat more sympathetic, the screen image today leaves much to be desired. Murphy and Murphy summed it up this way:

> . . . today's screen Indian is often a sullen, broken spirit who drinks cheap wine and lives on the handouts of a sometimes benign, sometimes malicious tribal government, or he is the militant Red Power publicity seeker, burning buildings, taking hostages, stealing government documents, or desecrating church buildings (p. 13).

At one time, tribal affiliation determined where an Indian lived, what language he spoke, what he ate, who he married, what he wore, what he believed, and even how he was buried. Filmmakers ignored the importance of tribal cultural differences. In "The Role of American Indians in Motion Pictures," Keshena (4) wrote:

> Movie makers focused on the tribes of the Sioux and Apache, who thus became the white man's Indian, molded and cast in the white man's mind as he wanted them to be, but projected before the viewer's eye as convincingly authentic. Indians from all tribes were cast in the image of a prearranged reality (p. 26).

Other negative and erroneous stereotypes continue to surface on television. In television programs depicting the time immediately after the taming of the west, American Indian characters were rarely seen. In the Berry and Mitchell-Kernan (5) book, Joann S. Morris discussed this further:

> When included, their role is still not a positive or popular one. They are frequently represented as half-breeds,

> perhaps in an attempt to depict the merging of two cultures. That many American Indian people who survived the transition period underwent massive cultural shock is never addressed. When the culture conflict is acknowledged, it is generally represented by a character who is pathetic, alcoholic, and occassionally begging (pp. 189-190).

During interviews with a variety of television industry personnel conducted by Thomas Baldwin and Colby Lewis, it was discovered that among the networks' guidelines regarding the portrayal of minorities there existed many specific "do's" and "don'ts" regarding American Indians (5). Berry and Mitchell-Kernan (5) noted that Baldwin and Lewis learned:

> . . . in westerns, certain types of violence are not to be inflicted on Indians. One such guideline states that 'Your Indians have to decide to give up before a fight.' Not only are American Indians shown as savages, but as inept savages at that, helpless victims of the white man's superiority (p. 190).

Television Portrayals of Indians

Other than their presence in westerns, American Indians virtually were absent in other roles in television during the 1950s. The broadcast image of the Indian was so negatively stereotyped and distorted in film and television during this era that the Indian population in Oklahoma in 1960 urged the Oklahoma Legislature to "officially denounce the potential effect on American youth of 'repetitious distortion of historical facts'" (3, p. 87). In the early 1960s, the Association on American Indian Affairs in New York City campaigned "to improve the American Indian image on television and in other media" (3, p. 87). After a year, though, the results were negligible.

Murphy and Murphy (2) noted Edward R. Murrow's 1958 comments on the image of Indians in film and television. Addressing a national convention of the Radio-Television News Directors Association, Murrow said:

> If Hollywood were to run out of Indians, the program schedules (for television) would be mangled beyond all recognition. Then, some courageous soul with a small budget might be able to do a documentary telling what, in fact, we have done--and still are doing--to the Indians in this country. But that would be unpleasant. And we must at all costs shield the sensitive citizens from anything that is unpleasant (p. 14).

As a note, ten years later the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders published the Kerner Report making similar observations about minorities in this country.

Even though the negative, unrealistic portrayal of American Indians appears influenced by economic and programming exigencies in television, instead of a "manifest desire" to denigrate Indians, the television image persists (3).

The Report of the U. S. Commission on Civil Rights (6) noted, after monitoring television from 1969 to 1977, that minorities, which were identified as black, Hispanic Americans, Asian and Pacific Island Americans, American Indians, and Alaskan natives, were stereotyped and underrepresented on television. Stereotyping minorities was found especially evident in television drama. For example, minorities were disproportionately seen in comic and teenage roles, subordinate roles. Additionally, they were shown as more violent than non-minorities.

According to the Report of the U. S. Commission on Civil Rights (6), minorities were shown in occupations of lower status and in particular, American Indians were disproportionately seen in unidentifiable occupations. Unlike non-minorities, minorities infrequently were seen in business or professional roles.

Throughout the history of the American Indian portrayal on television, whites have portrayed Indians. This became evident when a few pro-Indian dramas appeared on television during the mid-1950s to

early 1960s. Shows like Brave Eagle and Broken Arrow had Indian characters who had leading and substantial speaking roles, but the roles were played by whites (3).

News Coverage of Indians

The U. S. government's relationship with American Indians was initially covered by newspapers and later television. Throughout history, this coverage was biased and often more propaganda than news.

For example, newspaper accounts of the Little Bighorn battle in 1876 referred to American Indians as "red devils" and pictured them as "marauding savages" as opposed to the U. S. soldiers being "gallant defendants" (2). According to Murphy and Murphy (2), the biased news accounts during this era were part of the government's campaign to take land from the Indians. They wrote:

> The tale of brave Custer and his band of heroes was carried in papers from east to west. It strengthened the whites' fear of the Indians. It also fed its readers' curiosity and sold newspapers (p. 5).

One reporter exemplifies both the negative and positive aspects of media coverage of that era. In 1871, Teresa Howard Dean was sent by the Chicago Herald to Pine Ridge, South Dakota. Prior to the assignment, Dean covered weddings, church and social events, and Indian affairs (2). After boarding at the Indian school and becoming acquainted with the Indian students and conditions under which they lived, her copy soon reflected her impressions. She wrote of the hunger caused by the lack of provisions, education far inferior to that offered by the nearby Catholic mission school for white children, the nonarable lands assigned by the government, and the inability of the local Indian agent

to deal with the Ghost dance religion in any way other than to send for the army (2).

At times, Dean's copy reflected her failure to see Indians as human beings. After seeing a Sioux man identiry the bodies of his sister and her three children slain near the Wounded Knee battle site, she wrote:

> He looked at me with an expression that was unmistakeable agony and his lips quivered. For the first time, I realized that the soul of a Sioux might possibly in its primitive state have started out on the same road as did the soul of a white man (2, p. 7).

A recent Report for the U. S. Commission on Civil Rights (7) noted Indian complaints about the prevalent, distorted, non-Indian view of American Indian history, law, and rights in this country. Mel Tonasket, a member of the Confederated Tribes of the Colville Reservation in Washington, stated:

> I think a lot of the backlash coming from the common citizens is mainly out of ignorance, because of the lack of educational systems to teach anything about Indians, about treaties . . . When the population really doesn't know what the rights are and what the laws say, they have to make judgment decisions based on what the media put out to them or what a politician says (7, p. 2).

Commenting on the problems of Indians and the media, veteran newspaper reporter Richard La Course, a Yakima Indian and former director of the American Indian Press Association, said:

> I think it originates in school systems. There is what amounts to a cultural filter which makes this individual TV reporter, that individual writer, perhaps a news director of a radio show incapable of actually perceiving what this day means . . . what its inferences are, what issues need to be investigated . . . I think all of us have these cultural filters (7, p. 3).

A lack of information about the history, law, and culture of various Indian tribes has distorted and prejudiced citizen and government perception of issues between Indians and non-Indians and has

affected federal decision-making (7). The job of accurately reporting these types of issues is complicated by the unique status of American Indians in this country.

For example, broad concepts, which are unique to federal Indian law, include the governmental status of tribes, the United States trust relationship to the tribes, the inherent nature of tribal government powers, the limitations of state power within Indian reservations, and the plenary power of Congress over Indian affairs (7).

The Report for the U. S. Commission on Civil Rights (7) noted the difficulty in defining American Indians as minorities:

> In some instances Indians can be defined as a racial minority, and in other settings they are a political grouping. When the Federal Government is dealing with Indians as part of its special relationship and responsibility to tribes, Indians are considered a political grouping. It is not, therefore, unconstitutional racial discrimination to provide an Indian preference employment policy within Federal agencies designated to service tribes. If, however, a local or State government or governmental unit outside of the special 'trust' relationship excluded Indians from voting or held Indians to more stringent bail requirements than non-Indians, such actions are viewed as unconstitutional racial discrimination (p. 181).

American Indian civil rights activism is, and has been, distinctly different from that of other minorities. It is contended in the Report for the U. S. Commission on Civil Rights (7) that:

> Other minorities are not political entities--governments--and their primary goal has been to make the existing system include them and work for them. Indians, on the other hand, are political entities whose primary objective has been to preserve their own institutions and associated value systems. Their political distinctness, however, has not prevented racism, the same condition facing other minorities, from permeating Indian policy and working serious and long term effects on the tribes (p. 181).

Another example of the complex and unique status of American Indians in this country is the conflict Indian tribes, especially in the northwest, have had with states over fishing rights throughout

this century. If coverage of such issues is to be accurate, the media must take into consideration the federal government's contradictory roles. The federal government is: (1) counsel for tribes in much of the litigation; (2) mediator in the fishing crisis through the establishment of a federal task force; (3) regulator of the fishery; and (4) financer of state fishery programs (7).

Reporting of Wounded Knee

Critics of the media's handling of American Indian news stories point to the 1973 occupation of Wounded Knee, South Dakota, by Sioux tribal members and the American Indian Movement (AIM). In one account, an on-the-scene reporter at the Pine Ridge Reservation in South Dakota is quoted as saying that correspondents covering the occupation:

> . . . wrote good cowboy and Indian stories because they thought it was what the public wanted . . . the truth is buried in too many centuries of lies like fossils embedded in layers of shale (2, p. 8).

Correspondents from the Associated Press, United Press International, Newsweek, Time, the Washington Post, and the New York Times were at Pine Ridge, as were the three major networks and many foreign press correspondents (2). Within hours, some 300 journalists entered the captured hamlet to interview the AIM activists while others "clustered" around the Bureau of Indian Affairs office (8).

Murphy and Murphy (2, p. 8) have stated Wounded Knee and the following events gave birth to several Indian newspapers, "because white-dominated media played the story as they had played the urban unrest in the late 1960s." The authors stated that Indians resent this misinterpretation and other inaccurate and misinformed reporting.

In the introduction to Voices from Wounded Knee, these feelings were stated:

> The people of the United States, by and large, would rule strongly in favor of native demands at Wounded Knee if they could only find out what happened there. But with the press and television personnel moving along to bigger and better and more violent headlines, with the U. S. Government managing the news emerging from the Pine Ridge Reservation, and with even the reports on the resulting trials of the participants absent from the media, the people of the United States will not have the information on which to base an intelligent judgment (9, p. 1).

Charges have been made that the media were used by the militant AIM members at Wounded Knee. It has been charged the takeover and the ensuing activities were all staged for the media. Both sides, AIM members and tribal officials, claim their respective sides of the story were not accurately reported. One AIM supporter viewed the media coverage this way:

> It was terrible. The TV correspondents who were on the scene filmed many serious interviews and tried to get at the essence of the story, but that stuff never got on the air. Only the sensational stuff got on the air. The facts never really emerged that this was an uprising against the Bureau of Indian Affairs and its puppet tribal government (10, p. 23).

Richard Wilson, president of the Sioux tribal government, viewed the media coverage this way:

> The TV coverage was atrocious. They never contacted me to get the elected tribal government's views. I was here in my office every day. I held five news conferences during that period, and practically nobody came. The TV men were too busy sneaking past government roadblocks at night trying to get into Wounded Knee. Anyway, my news conferences didn't have blood flowing all over them, so they weren't newsworthy (10, pp. 23-24).

It can be said that events like Wounded Knee puts most newsmen in the undesirable position of walking the thin line between covering and creating news.

Significantly, 93 percent of those questioned in a Harris poll said they were following the progress of the Wounded Knee strife through the media (11). It should be noted that however distorted the reporting was, most Americans were informed of the low average per capita reservation income, the high average unemployment rate among Indians, the high rate of tuberculosis on reservations, and the high rate of suicide among Indians (2). Until the media covered the occupation of Wounded Knee, Americans never before were informed on such a national scale of such problems (2).

In another incident at Wounded Knee in 1975, evidence points to the fact that most journalists failed to gather facts and double-check their sources of information. Thus, the incident was distorted and inaccurately reported. Two FBI agents and another man were found shot to death on the Sioux Reservation in South Dakota. Only hours after the shootings, stories reported that the incident "stemmed from" the 1973 Wounded Knee disturbances (2). This was never proved. Press releases by the FBI and other government agencies resulted in the shootings being called an "ambush" and press statements that the shots came from "sophisticated bunkers" (2). No bunkers were ever found and no evidence of "ambushing" was ever established.

Murphy and Murphy (2, p. 10) contend that, "The misinformation that emerged from these and other reports both developed from and led to more misinformation and stereotyping."

In this example, most of the information about the shootings came from government sources, specifically the FBI. Reporters based their stories on information found in press releases distributed by the FBI.

Within the past 15 years, the image of the Indian in news has changed. Richard La Course comments:

> The white community has the collective jitters about Indians in general. The old stereotype of the Indian wrapped in a blanket, dragging a spear in the dust, has been replaced by that of a young, long-haired man wearing an upside-down flag and carrying a weapon. This is the image conveyed by national TV and the wire services (2, p. 156).

Rupert Costo, editor-in-chief of Wassaja, an Indian newspaper, believes the militant Indian image is just as misleading and distorted as other images. In the late 1960s, a group of Indians took over the island of Alcatraz in San Francisco Bay. In summation, the Indians stated they had a right to take over any abandoned government land, according to a Sioux treaty. Costo, an Indian historian, studied the treaty and says the treaty did not give them any right to Alcatraz. Costo is critical of the media coverage of the Alcatraz takeover:

> I talked to the majority of the reporters for both television and newspapers, and asked them if they had read the treaty and not one of them had . . . They didn't know what they were talking about yet they quoted these Indians and took their word as gospel (12).

In addition to news reporters "being ignorant" of Indian affairs, Costo contends reporters present stories about militant Indians as if they speak for all Indians, which is inaccurate (12).

Indians in Oklahoma

Howard (13) in The Cutting Edge theorizes that it is much easier for "educationally and occupationally mobile" members of other ethnic groups, for example, Puerto Ricans, Mexican-Americans, and American Indians, to "lose themselves" in the dominant white group than it is for blacks.

But evidence indicates that American Indians in Oklahoma face major problems in the areas of employment, health care, the law, government and tribal affairs, and most of all, education (14).

Indian education is marked by a high dropout rate, which during the past few years has fallen. The average educational level for Indians has risen from the seventh grade to the ninth grade (15). Thirty percent of the Indian students who graduate from high school go into some post-high school educational program (15). American Indian educators point to that statistic as high for Indians.

According to the 1980 Census, 1,418,195 American Indians live in the United States (16). American Indians are the smallest identified minority group of the 1980 Census. Oklahoma has the second largest population of American Indians at 169,464, second only to California (16).

The category "American Indian, Eskimo, and Aleut" includes persons who classified themselves as such in one of the specific race categories. In addition, persons who did not report themselves in one of the specific race categories but reported the name of an Indian tribe were classified as American Indian (16).

American Indians living in Oklahoma have a severe unemployment and underemployment problem. A Report of the Oklahoma State Advisory Committee to the U. S. Commission on Civil Rights (14) claimed that much of the blame for the high unemployment rate can be attributed to discrimination against American Indians by private employers in Oklahoma. Additionally, American Indian employees in federal agencies are concentrated at the lower grade and wage board levels (14).

These educational and employment problems do not point toward American Indians in Oklahoma as being "educationally and occupationally mobile," as Howard (13) might suggest.

Studies have found that public schools in Oklahoma, with few exceptions, do not respond to educational and cultural needs of American Indian children attending those schools (14). Evidence indicates that Indian children have a negative self-image (14). The Civil Rights Commission study did not explore the relationship between American Indian children's self-image and the media's image of American Indians (14).

In his study of North America, Washington Post editor Garreau (17) observed that "Drunk Indian" is still one phrase used in a lot of the Plains states. Garreau wrote:

> Oklahoma, until 1890, formally Indian Territory, is one of the more schizophrenic places on the continent. A certain amount of that is tied to the disdain in which Indians are held, at the same time as many whites acknowledge having some Indian blood in them somewhere along the line (p. 342).

It has yet to be determined how much the Oklahoma media portrayal of American Indians contributes to the schizophrenic state Garreau observed.

Minority Evaluation of the Media

After more than 20 years of research, social scientists are recognizing the fact that television can shape children's values, attitudes, and, subsequently, their behavior.

Yet, the Report of the U. S. Commission on Civil Rights (6) noted how little research has been conducted of the effects on children of television portrayals of minorities. There is scant data in social

science literature that records the effects of American Indian television portrayals on American Indian children. Little if any research has been conducted with Indian children in spite of the fact that, as some believe, of all ethnic groups, American Indians are probably the most under-represented and negatively depicted in the "alternate reality" created by television (5).

Television's cultural impact on children has long been a concern of public interest groups. Director of the National Indian Youth Council, Gerald Wilkinson (6, p. 49), voiced such concerns when he said, "Indian young people will act out not what their parents and grandparents say is Indian, but what the subleties of TV dictate to be Indian."

Due to this lack of research on how television portrayals of American Indians affects American Indians, the author, in forming her hypotheses, relied heavily on studies concerning television's effects on black and Hispanic American children and adolescents.

Tan (18), in his study, "Evaluation of Newspapers and Television by Blacks and Mexican-Americans," found that blacks were more critical of the media than were Mexican-Americans. He found that media evaluation by these two groups is explained partly by the "social stratification system" in the United States (18). Tan concluded, blacks were more critical of the media because, historically, blacks have experienced more rigid social exclusion than other minority groups.

Tan (18) also found that evaluation of the media was related to self-esteem and ethnic identification variables. Blacks who were critical of the media tended to have high self-esteem and were better-educated and younger than blacks who were less critical of the media.

Among Mexican-Americans, those who were younger and had higher self-esteem were more critical of the media.

Tan (18) found that young minority group members exhibit a high ethnic identification level and were more critical of the media.

Heavy TV entertainment viewing has been found to be accompanied a low self-esteem among black but not white audiences (19, p. 129). Tan (18) explains further findings:

> There is also evidence that blacks and Mexican-Americans were exhibiting patterns of selective exposure to TV entertainment contents. As expected, those who were critical of TV were less likely to be heavy viewers of TV entertainment than those who were not critical (p. 681).

Tan's findings are congruent with the selective exposure hypothesis of dissonance theory. Leon Festinger defines dissonance

> . . . as a form of cognitive imbalance which is aroused when attitudes, beliefs, behaviors or cognitions simultaneously held by an individual are incongruent with each other (18, p. 673).

If the media's ethnic image is highly incongruent with the ethnic group member's self-image, then that group member would most likely be a "light TV viewer" and vice versa. A strong relation exists between the image presented and perceived and the viewing time of an individual.

Ethnic minority children have been found to have a distinctive orientation toward television and other mass media (20). Additionally, ethnic minority children were found to have information needs that give particular prominence to television as a source of guidance (20).

Beuf (21) found, for both girls and boys, "heavy TV viewers" were more likely to choose stereotypical careers for themselves than "light TV viewers". Since minority children tend to be heavy TV viewers, it can be suggested that stereotyped images on television could greatly affect these children.

Studies have found that stereotyped images also affect journalist perceptions of news preferences (22). A suggestion of a subtle bias is evident in news stories, questions and choice of pictures (22).

Berry and Mitchell-Kernan (5, p. 39) noted C. X. Clark's contention that television maintains and reinforces racism by "failing to provide minority groups with legitimation through recognition and respect." By recognition, Clark means "acknowledgement of a group's uniqueness and relevance." Recognition implies "a conscious choice to acknowledge the existence and value of a group of people," in this case, American Indians (5, p. 39).

Berry and Mitchell-Kernan (5) noted Joann S. Morris' contention:

> If American Indian children spend many hours of their youthful lives watching television programs that tell them that their own tribe and entire race are to be despised and ignored, there is little doubt that the mental health of these children will be gravely affected (p. 197).

Although many American Indian communities attempt to instill a sense of pride in their young ones, television can undermine such efforts if the primary message conveyed by television, for both child and adult, is that to be an American Indian is neither good nor valued.

Summary

The media have failed to report accurately the story of minorities in this country. The American Indian story is no exception. In the past, blatant and subtle stereotyped images of Indians have been presented in the media. Admittedly, the media's image of Indians has changed in the past few years but some argue the new image is distorted and stereotyped as well.

Minorities' attitudes toward the media have been found to be related to self-esteem, ethnic identification variables, age, and media habits. This study seeks to determine the relationship among television program preferences, age group and attitudes of American Indians toward television portrayals of American Indians.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study sought to determine if relationships exist among age group, television program preferences of American Indians and their attitudes toward the portrayals of American Indians by television entertainment and news shows.

This section describes the planned methodology of the study, including: (1) variables and their relationship; (2) hypotheses; (3) methods of measurement; (4) data-gathering procedure, and (5) analytical techniques.

Variables and Their Relationship

This study evaluated television program preferences of American Indians and their attitudes toward television portrayals of American Indians. The relationship among age group, television program preferences, and attitudes was measured by placing numerical value on these concepts. These concepts can be defined as measurement variables. Kerlinger (23, p. 26) defines a variable as "a symbol to which numerals or values can be assigned." Kerlinger (23) defines the most important variables:

> The most important and useful way to categorize variables is as independent and dependent . . . An independent variable is the presumed cause and the dependent variable is the presumed effect (p. 35).

In this study, the independent variables, the presumed causes, were age group and television program preferences. The dependent variables, the presumed effects, were favorable/unfavorable attitudes toward television portrayals of American Indians.

A major purpose of this study was to gain some notion of how American Indians perceive and react to various television messages about American Indians.

Kerlinger (23, p. 37) explains the use of independent and dependent variables, "Note that if one has a knowledge of independent variables measures and a relation . . . one can predict with considerable accuracy the dependent variable measures."

By placing measures on television program preferences, attitudes toward television portrayals of American Indians can be predicted.

Survey research best describes the type of research to be used in this study. Kerlinger (23) says:

> Survey research studies large and small populations (or universes) by selecting and studying samples chosen from the population to discover the relative incidence, distribution, and interrelations of sociological and psychological variables (p. 410).

Survey research studies variables as they exist because "many important variables cannot be studied experimentally because they are not manipulable" (23, p. 346). Non-manipulable or attribute variables are measured rather than actively manipulated because it is impossible, or at least difficult, to manipulate such variables (23). Kerlinger (23) gives examples of attribute variables:

> All variables that are human characteristics--intelligence, aptitude, sex, socio-economic status, field dependence, education, need for achievement, and attitudes, for example--are attribute variables (attributes) ready-made. They are, so to speak, already manipulated (p. 38).

Since attributes or sociological facts are non-manipulable variables, this study attempted to determine which psychological variables, which may be manipulable in certain circumstances, affect American Indian attitudes toward television portrayals of themselves.

Hypotheses

As previously mentioned, a major purpose of this study was to gain some power of prediction of how American Indians perceive and react to various television messages about American Indians.

One assumption was that favorable attitudes toward television portrayals of American Indians are accompanied by strong television program preferences or a strong preference for viewing certain television programs.

Findings in previous studies suggests two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: The age group of American Indians, College Students and Senior Citizens is positively related to television evaluations (i.e., as age increases, television evaluations become more favorable; the Senior Citizens, who on the whole comprise an older age group, will have more favorable attitudes than College Students toward television portrayals of American Indians).

Hypothesis 2: American Indian television program preferences are positively related to their television evaluations (i.e., strong television program preferences are accompanied by favorable evaluations of television portrayals of American Indians).

Based on research findings, self-esteem and education are inversely related to attitudes. The better educated one is, the less favorable one's attitude will be toward the medium. Additionally, the higher one's self-esteem is, the less favorable one's attitude will be toward the medium.

For the hypotheses, the following assumptions were made by the author of this study:

1. Overall, the younger age group, College Students, are better-educated than the older age group, Senior Citizens.

2. Overall, the younger age group, College Students, have higher self-esteem than the older age group, Senior Citizens.

Methods of Measurement

A five-point Likert-type scale was used to measure attitudes toward television entertainment and news shows. Kerlinger (23) describes a Likert scale as:

> . . . a set of attitude items, all of which are considered of approximately equal 'attitude value,' and to each of which subjects respond with degrees of agreement or disagreement (intensity). The scores of the items of such a scale are summed, or summed and averaged, to yield an individual's attitude score. As in all attitude scales, the purpose of the summated rating scale is to place an individual somewhere on an agreement continuum of the attitude in question (p. 496).

Shaw and Wright (24) explain measurement of attitudes:

> When we attempt to measure attitudes, we assign numerals to persons according to a set of rules that are intended to create an isomorphism between the assigned numeral and the person's attitude toward the object in question. Since an attitude is a hypothetical, or latent, variable rather than an immediately observable variable, attitude measurement consists of the assessment of an individual's responses to a set of situations . . . In short, the typical attitude scale measures the acceptance of evaluative statements about the attitude object . . . It is doubtful that complex social behavior can be predicted without a knowledge of attitude. To study attitude requires that they be measured (p. 14).

The subjects, in this study, were asked to mark the appropriate place that represented their attitude along the five-point agreement continuum.

An example of a scale item is:

> Generally, I am satisfied with the way Indians are portrayed in television entertainment shows.
>
> Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree
> 5 4 3 2 1

The respondents were told to mark No. 3 position if they felt "neutral" about the statement.

To guard against response set, that is, marking the same position on all items or answering for reasons other than the content of the item, to avoid a sense of acquiescence, and to avoid responding as deemed socially desirable, eight items were worded favorably toward television (four for entertainment shows and four for news programs) and eight items were worded unfavorably toward television (four for entertainment shows and four for news programs).

However, the highest scale value, five, was always given to the response choice indicative of the most favorable attitude. The most favorable--strongly agree or strongly disagree--dependent upon whether the item was worded positively or negatively.

Bryant (25) noted the two criteria suggested by Jahoda, Deutsch, and Cook for selecting items for a scale:

> First, the items must elicit responses which are psychologically related to the attitude being measured. . . . A second criterion requires that the items differentiate among the people who are at different points along the dimension being measured (p. 31).

The items will be checked for internal consistency. Jahoda, Deutsch, and Cook suggest:

> Items which fail to show a substantial correlation with the total score, or which show little discriminatory power in relation to high or low scores are eliminated to

> ensure that the questionnaire is 'internally consistent' --that is, that every item is related to the same general attitude (25, p. 31).

A five-point Likert-type scale was used to measure television program preferences, the likeliness of watching a particular type of television program. The survey subjects were asked to mark the appropriate place that represented their television program preferences along the five-point continuum. One example of a scale item is:

How likely is it that you would watch . . . Situation Comedies?

Very Likely Would Watch					Hardly Ever Would Watch
5	4	3	2	1	

Respondents were told to mark the No. 3 position if they did not care one way or another about the type of show. As in the attitude scale, the numerals under the scale position, as shown above, were not included on the survey to avoid any response bias which could result from disclosure of the scoring system.

The highest scale value, five, was always given to the response choice indicative of strong television program preferences, which was Very Likely Would Watch.

Data-Gathering Procedure

The data-gathering procedure was conducted in the following steps: (1) assembled a large number of relevant scale items; (2) administered this survey to a test group; (3) checked items for discriminatory power and internal consistency; (4) readministered the survey instrument; and (5) analyzed the data collected.

Assembling a large number of relevant scale items required a careful review of the literature available on related subjects, discussion with Indian communicators and media observers, and the author's personal experiences and ideas.

The survey was administered to a small test group with characteristics similar to the random sample. The adequacy, validity and discriminatory power of items was tested by using the test group.

Bryant (25) suggests the following criteria be used in developing survey items:

1. Items must be within the framework of the respondents' experiences to enable informed responses.
2. Items must suggest a particular response.
3. Items must be clearly written without being too general or specific.
4. Items must not be objectionable or offensive.
5. Items should be easily understood and simply-worded.
6. Items should be unbiased.
7. Items should suggest one idea.
8. Items should progress in a logical sequence.
9. Items should not be factual, irrelevant to the attitude object, or non-discriminatory (p. 32).

Based on the criterion of internal consistency, the most differentiating statements were selected for the final form for the survey.

In the final form, the four-page survey was divided into two parts: (1) scale items for television program preferences, and (2) attitude scale items for television entertainment and news programs (see Appendix A).

The types of television programs reviewed in the first part of the questionnaire were: (1) Evening Crime and Adventure Shows; (2) Movies; (3) Situation Comedies; (4) Musical Variety Shows; (5) Game Shows; (6) Soap Operas; (7) Sports; (8) Local News; (9) National News; (19) Public Affairs Programs; and (11) Religious Programs.

The subjects for this study were selected randomly. Kerlinger (23, p. 118) defines sampling as "taking any portion of a population or universe as representative of that population or universe." Random sampling is defined as:

> . . . that method of drawing a portion (or sample) of a population or universe so that each member of the population or universe has an equal chance of being selected (25, p. 118).

Kerlinger (23) writes:

> A sample drawn at random is unbiased in the sense that no member of the population has any more chance of being selected than any other member . . . The means of most of the samples will be relatively close to the mean of the population (p. 119).

The 138 College Students tested were selected randomly from a computer listing of American Indian undergraduate students enrolled at Oklahoma State University (OSU). This listing was provided by the Registrar's Office at OSU.

The 60 Senior Citizens tested were selected randomly from two separate American Indian Senior Citizens programs in eastern Oklahoma. They were selected randomly from the Older Native Americans program at the Native American Coalition in Tulsa and from the Senior Citizen program at the Cherokee Tribal Complex in Tahlequah, Oklahoma.

The 198 subjects were mailed an introduction letter, the four-page survey, and a self-addressed stamped envelope. They were requested to return the completed survey as soon as possible. The subjects were either contacted again by a follow-up letter or phone call two weeks after initial contact in which they were reminded to return the completed questionnaire. The subjects were offered another copy of the questionnaire if the original one was misplaced or damaged.

Analytical Techniques

For analysis, the 11 program preference items consisting of entertainment and news programs were categorized into seven different categories of programs: (1) Evening Crime and Adventure Shows; (2) Movies; (3) Light Entertainment; (4) Soap Operas; (5) Sports; (6) News and Public Affairs Programs; and (7) Religious Programs.

Situation Comedies, Musical Variety Shows, and Game Shows were categoried under Light Entertainment. Local News, National News, and Public Affairs Programs were categoried under News and Public Affairs Programs. The other items were categorized under their own headings.

The seven categories of programs were intercorrelated and McQuitty's Elementary Linkage and Factor Analysis was used to analyze the data. Typal representatives of each cluster of programs were extracted to determine what category of television programs were similarly preferred by the respondents in each age group. The author will explain this procedure in depth in the next chapter.

The Type I Analysis of Variance Design also was used to analyze data collected. This statistical procedure reveals the effects of two factors, age group and television program preferences, working in concert, with repeated measured on one factor. Each respondent rated his/her preference for seven television program categories; thus each respondent was measured on his/her preference for these categories.

Using the Analysis of Variance design, the Between Subjects Effects and Within Subjects Effects were calculated. If the calculated F-ratio for Between Age Groups was significant, the assumption of no difference was rejected if observed differences in scores occurred by chance fewer than five times out of 100, the .05 level of significance.

The F-ratios for Between Television Program Categories and Interaction also was calculated. If the calculated F-ratios were significant at the .05 level, then Gap Tests were used to determine where these observed significant differences were located.

For each age group, the television program category preference scores were summed and averaged to yield the subjects' program preference mean. Based on calculations, it was determined how strong television program category preferences were for each age group.

Also for each age group, the attitude or agreement scores toward television news and entertainment program portrayals of American Indians were summed and averaged to yield the subjects' agreement mean. Through calculations, it was determined how favorably/unfavorably each group evaluated television portrayals of American Indians.

F-ratios were calculated to determine if significant differences existed between each group's agreement scores, between the agreement scores for the two types of programming (News and Entertainment), and for Interaction.

If statistically significant differences between the observed scores existed, the assumption of no difference was rejected and the appropriate conclusion was drawn. The assumption of no difference was rejected if observed agreement scores occurred by chance fewer than five times out of 100, the .05 level.

Gap Tests again were used to determine where the significant differences were located.

With these analysis tools, not only were two hypotheses tested but several questions about American Indians and television were answered. What category of television program was preferred by the

respondents? How strong were their television program preferences? What type of programming favorably and unfavorably affected the respondent's attitudes toward the television portrayals of American Indians?

The television evaluation provided information about how American Indians perceive they are being portrayed in television. The age group and television program category preference variables provided an explanation for the way Indians perceive themselves in television.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Television Program Preferences

In Part I of the questionnaire, respondents registered degrees of preference for 11 types of television programs which were later grouped under seven categories. The categories were as follows:

1. Evening Crime and Adventure Shows
2. Movies
3. Light Entertainment
4. Soap Operas
5. Sports
6. News and Public Affairs Programs
7. Religious Programs

The respondent's preferences were registered on five-point scales, running from 1--Hardly Ever Would Watch, to 5--Very Likely Would Watch (see Appendix A).

The author first attempted to determine if a significant difference existed between each age group's registered preference scores for the seven television program categories seen on television.

For each age group, the program preference scores were summed and averaged to yield each respondent's mean program preference score.

These mean program preference scores are shown in Table I where ECA stands for Evening Crime and Adventure Shows; M stands for Movies;

LE, Light Entertainment; SO, Soap Operas; SP, Sports; NPA, News and Public Affairs Programs; and R, Religious Programs.

TABLE I

MEAN PROGRAM PREFERENCE SCORES FOR SEVEN CATEGORIES OF TELEVISION PROGRAMS AS REGISTERED BY 198 RESPONDENTS

Age Group	Television Program Categories						
	ECA	M	LE	SO	SP	NPA	R
College Students	2.88	4.17	2.79	3.06	3.59	3.43	2.15
Senior Citizens	3.07	4.03	3.29	3.38	3.52	4.25	3.43
Mean Total	2.98	4.10	3.04	3.22	3.56	3.84	2.79

The Type I Analysis of Variance Design is a two-factor mixed design with repeated measures on one factor. This statistical procedure was used because the respondents, in this study, were asked to rate more than one aspect of a stimulus. Thus, the repeated measures on one factor. In this two-factor design, one factor was Age Group with two levels, College Students and Senior Citizens. The other factor was Television Program Categories comprising seven categories. Each respondent was measured on his/her preference for viewing the seven television program categories if they were on television.

Based on calculations using the Type I Analysis of Variance Design, the analyst found the F-ratio of 19.71 at the .05 level revealed a significant difference between the College Students and Senior Citizens registered preferences for the given categories of television programs.

Additionally, the F-ratio of 34.91 at the .05 level suggested significant differences existed between the registered scores for each category of television programs (see Appendix B).

Furthermore, since the analyst found interaction significant at F 6.57 at the .05 level, she knew that preference in television program categories depended on the age group of the respondents.

Therefore, the analyst used Gap Tests to determine where the specific differences among television program preference scores were located. According to the analyst's findings, the registered preference scores of each age group for the different television categories were found to be significantly different in only four of the seven categories. The four categories are shown in Table II.

TABLE II

SIGNIFICANT MEAN PROGRAM PREFERENCE SCORES BETWEEN THE COLLEGE STUDENTS AND SENIOR CITIZENS

Category	College Student Means	Senior Citizens Means
Light Entertainment	2.79	3.29
Soap Operas	3.06	3.38
News and Public Affairs Programs	3.43	4.25
Religious Programs	2.15	3.43
Mean Totals	2.86	3.59

The significant mean preference scores not only suggest the Senior Citizens significantly differed in their preference for Light Entertainment, Soap Operas, News and Public Affairs Programs, and Religious Programs but that the group as a whole exhibited significantly stronger television program preferences.

The College Students mean total of 2.86 fell between "Don't Care One Way or Another" about the television program category and "Unlikely Would Watch" the television program on the five-point scale.

The Senior Citizen's mean total of 3.59 fell between "Likely Would Watch" and "Don't Care One Way or Another" about the television program on the five-point scale. However, slight this registered difference appears, it is significant.

McQuitty's Elementary Linkage

In this study, the author also attempted to determine what category of television programs were similarly preferred by the respondents in each age group.

To do this, program preference scores of all respondents for each of the seven categories of television programs were intercorrelated. The program preference score of each category was correlated with the program preference score of every other category, in each age group, resulting in a 7 x 7 R correlation matrix for each age group. The College Student Correlation Matrix is shown in Table III. The Senior Citizen Correlation Matrix is shown in Table IV.

Through the size of correlation coefficients in Tables III and IV, the author sought to use McQuitty's Elementary Linkage-Factor Analysis to identify clusters or categories of television programs

TABLE III

PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS OF TELEVISION PROGRAM PREFERENCE SCORES FOR SEVEN TELEVISION PROGRAM CATEGORIES, AS REGISTERED BY 138 COLLEGE STUDENTS

Categories*	Categories						
	ECA	M	LE	SO	SP	NPA	R
ECA		.25	.23	.05	.12	-.03	.09
M	.25		.19	.24	.08	-.10	.11
LE	.23	.19		.32	.08	.19	.40
SO	.05	.24	.32		-.17	-.09	.19
SP	.12	.08	.08	-.17		.18	-.06
NPA	-.03	-.10	.19	-.09	.18		.21
R	.09	.11	.40	.19	-.06	.21	

*Type I: LE, SO, SP, NPA, R; Type II: ECA, M.

TABLE IV

PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS OF TELEVISION PROGRAM PREFERENCE SCORES FOR SEVEN TELEVISION PROGRAM CATEGORIES, AS REGISTERED BY 60 SENIOR CITIZENS

Categories*	Categories						
	ECA	M	LE	SO	SP	NPA	R
ECA		.43	.07	-.01	.25	-.03	-.30
M	.43		-.01	.12	.23	-.08	-.11
LE	.07	-.01		.20	.23	.83	.06
SO	-.01	.12	.20		-.22	.11	.42
SP	.25	.23	.23	-.22		.31	-.40
NPA	-.03	-.08	.83	.11	.31		.23
R	-.30	-.11	.06	.42	-.40	.23	

*Type I: LE, SP, NPA; Type II: ECA, M; Type III: SO, R.

that drew similar agreement from the average respondent in each group. In this study, the McQuitty procedure seeks a structure "in which each element is more like other elements in its cluster than like any element in another cluster, with respect to the dependent response to it" (26, p. 22).

For this study, the linkage procedure sought to extract clusters of television program categories--categories that hopefully "comported to some obviously common characteristics" (26, p. 22).

College Students

The first step in extracting clusters in linkage analysis involves identifying the variable in each column of the R-matrix that is most like the variable at the head of the column. This is accomplished by underlining the highest positive correlation coefficient in each column.

In Table III, the underlined coefficient of .25 in column 2 means that Movies were more correlated with Evening Crime and Adventure Shows than with any other television program category in the College Student Group, while Light Entertainment was most correlated with Soap Operas in the fourth column (.32).

Next, the author selected the highest underlined coefficient in the R-matrix. This was .40, the correlation between Religious Programs and Light Entertainment. This "reciprocal pair" of categories of television programs represented the core of the first cluster. The first cluster extracted was called Type I.

To find other items most like Religious Programs and Light Entertainment, the analyst scanned rows 3 and 7 of the R-matrix and attached all underlined coefficients to Religious Programs and Light

Entertainment. It was found, for example, the Soap Opera Category is attached to Light Entertainment with the underlined coefficient of .32. With the addition of Soap Operas, the analyst scanned row 4 of the R-matrix for underlined coefficients of which there were none.

Now that categories of television programs most correlated with Light Entertainment of the reciprocal pair have been attached, the analyst searched for categories most correlated with Religious Programs, the second category of television programs in the core of Type I categories. News and Public Affairs Programs are most related to Religious Programs at .21. With the addition of News and Public Affairs Programs, the analyst scanned row 6 of the R-matrix and attached Sports to News and Public Affairs Programs at .18. After scanning row 5 for underlined coefficients and finding none, the Type I cluster was exhausted and completed.

Every category in Type I is more like the other four categories in the cluster than like any of the other two categories not included in the cluster. The five categories in Type I represent a composite of common characteristics.

In other words, if a College Student respondent registers a certain preference for one category of television programs, he/she will most likely register a similar preference for other categories of television programs in the same cluster.

Before discussing the underlying dimension of Type I categories, the author "linkaged-out" one other type of category from the R-matrix in Table III.

To linkage out the other type of category, the analyst looked for the next highest coefficient in the matrix which was not used in the

first type. The next highest coefficient forms the core of the second type of category. The analyst then proceeds as previously described until the second type of television program category is completed. If any coefficients remain in the intercorrelation matrix, the analyst extracts a third type, etc., remembering that no matrix coefficient can be used in more than one cluster of categories.

In this study, Evening Crime and Adventure Shows and Movies comprised a reciprocal pair forming the core of Type II categories at r = .25.

Type I. Elementary factor analysis begins with an intercorrelation matrix for each cluster of categories of television programs--in this case, an R-matrix for each of the two types of categories extracted in the linkage. For example, Type I was comprised of Light Entertainment, Soap Operas, Sports, News and Public Affairs Programs, and Religious Programs. From the R-matrix in Table III, a 5 x 5 submatrix was constructed for Type I categories, as shown in Table V.

In Table V, the columns of correlation coefficients are totaled and the highest total of .99 is underlined. The highest total--which is Light Entertainment--is the reference factor for the five Type I categories. It is most representative of the cluster and has the highest average correlations with the other four Type I television program categories. This does not mean necessarily that Light Entertainment has the highest correlation with each and every Type I category, only the highest average with all of them.

For example, Religious Programs are more correlated with News and Public Affairs Programs (r = .21) than is Light Entertainment (r = .19).

Additionally, News and Public Affairs Programs are more correlated with Sports (r = .18) than is Light Entertainment (r = .08).

TABLE V

PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS OF TELEVISION PROGRAM PREFERENCES BETWEEN 10 PAIRS OF TYPE I CATEGORIES OF TELEVISION PROGRAMS AS REGISTERED BY 138 RESPONDENTS

Categories	Categories				
	LE	SO	SP	NPA	R
LE		.32	.08	.19	.40
SO	.32		-.17	-.09	.19
SP	.08	-.17		.18	-.06
NPA	.19	-.09	.18		.21
R	.40	.19	-.06	.21	
Totals	.99	.25	.03	.49	.74

With Light Entertainment as a reference factor, one gets an idea of the pattern or structure of preferences for Type I categories of television programs for the College Students. Taking into consideration and scanning the other four categories in Type I, as shown in Table V, it is evident that, overall, these can be termed a "light stuff" cluster of items.

Type II. From the R-matrix in Table III, p. 37, a second cluster was extracted. As stated previously, Evening Crime and Adventure Shows and Movies comprised a reciprocal pair forming the core of Type II categories.

Therefore, either Evening Crime and Adventure Shows or Movies is best representative of the second cluster. Based on this reference factor, the author concluded that Type II television program categories could be slightly more serious in nature considering these television formats than was evidenced by Type I.

Senior Citizens

Again, to extract clusters through linkage analysis, the author selected the highest underlined coefficient in the R-matrix shown in Table IV, p. 37. For the Senior Citizens, this was .83, the correlation between News and Public Affairs Programs and Light Entertainment. This reciprocal pair of television program categories represented the core of the first cluster in the Senior Citizens group. This first cluster extracted can be called Type I.

By scanning rows 2 and 6, the analyst found that Sports was attached to News and Public Affairs Programs with the underlined coefficient of .31. Following McQuitty's procedure, the analyst found no more underlined coefficients to attach to the first cluster identified as Type I. Thus, Type I was completed. Again, the three categories in Type I represent a composite of common characteristics.

In addition to the Type I categories, the analyst linkaged-out two other types of television program categories from the R-matrix in Table IV. Evening Crime and Adventure Shows and Movies comprised the core of Type II categories at r = .43. Type III categories comprised another pair of reciprocal pair of items (Religious Programs and Soap Operas) correlated at .42. For this study, Type III categories were

included with Type II to form only one additional cluster of four categories.

Type I. From the R-matrix in Table IV, a 3 x 3 submatrix was constructed for Type I categories, as shown in Table VI. The columns of correlation coefficients are totaled and the highest total of 1.14 is underlined. The highest total--which is News and Public Affairs Programs--is the reference factor for the three Type I categories. Again, it is more representative of the cluster and has the highest average correlations with the other two Type I television program categories.

TABLE VI

PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS OF TELEVISION PROGRAM PREFERENCES BETWEEN SIX PAIRS OF TYPE I CATEGORIES OF TELEVISION PROGRAMS AS REGISTERED BY 60 RESPONDENTS

Category	Categories		
	LE	SP	NPA
LE		.23	.83
SP	.23		.31
NPA	.83	.31	
Totals	1.06	.54	<u>1.14</u>

With News and Public Affairs Programs as a reference factor, one gets the notion of the pattern or structure of preferences for Type I categories of television programs for Senior Citizens. Taking into

consideration and scanning the other two categories in Type I, as shown in Table VI, it is evident that Senior Citizens prefer to be informed more than entertained. Therefore, one can refer to this cluster of categories as "heavy stuff."

Type II. From the R-matrix in Table IV, p. 37, a 4 x 4 submatrix was constructed for Type II categories, as shown in Table VII.

TABLE VII

PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS OF TELEVISION PROGRAM PREFERENCES BETWEEN EIGHT PAIRS OF TYPE II CATEGORIES OF TELEVISION PROGRAMS AS REGISTERED BY 60 RESPONDENTS

	Category			
Category	ECA	M	SO	R
ECA		.43	-.01	-.30
M	.43		.12	-.11
SO	-.01	.12		.42
R	-.30	-.11	.42	
Totals	.12	.44	<u>.53</u>	.01

In Table II, the columns of correlation coefficients are totaled and the highest total of .53 is underlined. With the highest total, Soap Operas is the reference factor for the four Type II categories. Soap Operas is most representative of the second cluster extracted and has the highest average correlations with the other three Type II categories of television programs.

Based on the reference factor, the author concluded that Type II categories for the Senior Citizens were less serious in nature than those evidenced by Type I, News and Public Affairs Programs.

Elementary Factor Analysis

As this point, the linkage portion of McQuitty's procedure was completed, leaving only the elementary factor analysis. Factor analysis reveals typal relevancies, which are numerical values for each television program category. Up to this point, the author described the seeming underlying structure of typal categories of television programs.

Common dimensions that underlie several variables are identified. In this study, the variables were television program categories that clustered in each of the two types for each age group.

At this point, the author entered the typal relevancy stage of McQuitty's procedure. With the reference factor for each type of category established, she merely had to list the correlation coefficient of each television program category with the reference television program category in each type for each age group, as shown in Tables VIII and IX.

The underlined coefficients in Tables VIII and IX, again, point out television program categories that clustered with the representative or reference television program category of Type I and Type II.

For the College Students, Type I reference category--Light Entertainment--also included Soap Operas, Sports, News and Public Affairs Programs and Religious Programs. This cluster of Type I categories tended to indicate the average respondent preferred the Light

TABLE VIII

CORRELATION OF EACH CATEGORY OF TELEVISION PROGRAM WITH THE TYPE I AND TYPE II REFERENCE CATEGORIES FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

Category	Type I	Type II
ECA	.24	1.00
M	.19	.25
LE	1.00	.23
SO	.32	.05
SP	.08	.12
NPA	.19	-.03
R	.40	.09

TABLE IX

CORRELATION OF EACH CATEGORY OF TELEVISION PROGRAM WITH THE TYPE I AND TYPE II REFERENCE CATEGORIES FOR SENIOR CITIZENS

Category	Type I	Type II
ECA	-.03	-.01
M	-.08	.12
LE	.83	.20
SO	.11	1.00
SP	.31	-.22
NPA	1.00	.11
R	.23	.42

Entertainment category which included the following types of programs: Situation Comedies, Musical Variety Shows, and Game Shows.

It is notable that one can define Type I categories as more entertaining than informative and are on-the-air less than one hour. Therefore, College Students prefer programs that entertain them and do not require their attention for more than one hour.

For Senior Citizens, both reference television program categories for Type I and Type II suggest the average responding Senior Citizen prefers programs that require a great deal of time and attention. For example, the Type I representative category was News and Public Affairs Programs. To appreciate this category, a respondent must listen to and comprehend the information dispensed on these television programs.

Soap Operas, the Type II representative category, is a type of program that requires time and attention and also patience. Soap Operas are slow-moving and ofter repetitive when soap opera writers reinforce storylines.

These findings suggest Senior Citizens are willing to give their time and attention to a television program that slowly develops the characters, plot, and storyline. In addition, Senior Citizens are patient enough to wait for the long-coming end results of such storylines.

News and Entertainment Portrayals

Part II of the questionnaire contained a consensus of 16 statements that American Indians have made about the way American Indians are treated or portrayed on television news and entertainment programs. The respondents registered their degrees of agreement with these

statements on five-point scales, running from 1--Strongly Disagree, to 5--Strongly Agree.

The 16 statements were divided into two categories--News and Entertainment--of which eight statements were favorable toward the medium's portrayal of American Indians and eight items were unfavorable.

In this section, the author attempted to determine if a significant difference, in each age group, existed between the respondents' mean agreement scores toward television news and entertainment program portrayals of American Indians.

For each age group, the agreement scores toward News and Entertainment portrayals were summed and averaged to yield each respondent's mean agreement score. Each age group's mean agreement score toward each News item is shown in Table X.

Each age group's mean agreement score toward each Entertainment item is shown in Table XI.

Again, using the Type I Analysis of Variance design, the analyst found the Between Age Groups' F-ratio of .86 was not significant at the .05 level (see Appendix B). Therefore, there was no significant difference between the College Students and Senior Citizens' agreement scores toward the News and Entertainment items.

A comparison of mean agreement scores and mean totals for each age group is shown in Table XII.

Between the two categories, News and Entertainment, the F-ratio of 71.26 at the .05 level suggested significant differences existed between the registered attitude scores for News and Entertainment by all respondents. There was no interaction; therefore, as a whole, News program portrayals of American Indians are viewed more favorably by all

TABLE X

MEAN AGREEMENT SCORES TOWARD NEWS PROGRAM PORTRAYALS OF AMERICAN INDIANS AS REGISTERED BY 198 RESPONDENTS

Item Number	Item	College Students Mean Scores	Senior Citizens Mean Scores
1.	TV news provides adequate coverage of newsworthy events about Indians.	2.20	2.58
2.	TV news hardly ever presents the Indians' side of the story.	2.70	2.55
3.	News about Indians is reported accurately on television.	2.61	2.60
4.	TV news almost always gives a fair and balanced report of news about Indians.	2.51	2.35
5.	TV news, too often, reports Indian news stories from the white viewpoint.	2.13	1.58
6.	TV news leans too heavily on stories about Indians than only serve to reinforce white biases about Indians.	2.51	1.98
7.	TV news reporters, for the most part, show an understanding of Indian affairs.	2.43	2.28
8.	Too often, Indians on TV news are the bad guys, reflecting the old "cowboys and Indians" theme in the movies.	2.52	2.17
Mean Total		2.45	2.26

TABLE XI

MEAN AGREEMENT SCORES TOWARD ENTERTAINMENT PROGRAM PORTRAYALS OF AMERICAN INDIANS AS REGISTERED BY 198 RESPONDENTS

Item Number	Item	College Students Mean Scores	Senior Citizens Mean Scores
9.	Even when a television show is supposed to be about Indians, it reflects more the white viewpoint of Indians than the Indian point of view.	1.96	1.67
10.	There are not enough Indians seen on television shows.	1.91	1.32
11.	Generally, I am satisfied with the way Indians are portrayed in television entertainment shows.	2.17	2.28
12.	The number of Indians portrayed on TV shows is way below their proportion in the population.	2.07	1.88
13.	Generally, there is nothing wrong with white actors portraying Indians in television shows.	2.33	2.23
14.	Television entertainment, for the most part, portrays Indians as an important part of life in the United States.	2.13	2.17
15.	For the most part, when television entertainment portrays Indians, it shows them in a realistic light.	1.88	2.32
16.	Overall, television presents a stereotyped image of Indians.	1.80	2.33
Mean Total		2.03	2.03

respondents than Entertainment program portrayals of American Indians. The author must point out overall the mean total for News, 2.36, fell between "Disagree" and "Neutral" while the mean total of 2.03 also fell between "Disagree" and "Neutral." So, although the respondents significantly differed in their agreement toward News and Entertainment, they still unfavorably viewed or disliked television News and Entertainment portrayals of American Indians.

TABLE XII

MEAN ATTITUDE SCORES FOR NEWS AND ENTERTAINMENT PROGRAMS AS REGISTERED BY 198 RESPONDENTS

Age Group	News	Entertainment
College Students	2.45	2.03
Senior Citizens	2.26	2.03
Mean Total	2.36	2.03

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The focus of this investigation was to: (1) determine the television program preferences of American Indian OSU undergraduate college students and American Indian senior citizens; and (2) measure and compare the effects of television program preferences on the attitudes of the Indian subjects toward television portrayals of American Indians to determine the relationship among television program preferences, age group, and attitudes.

Television Program Preferences

With the use of the Type I Analysis of Variance design and based on the respondents' registered scores, it was determined that only four of the television program categories significantly differed from each other: Light Entertainment, Soap Operas, News and Public Affairs Programs, and Religious Programs. In addition, the television program preference scores of College Students significantly differed from the preference scores of the Senior Citizens. The Senior Citizens registered a stronger preference for viewing television programs than College Students.

Based on McQuitty's linkage procedure, representative television program categories were determined for each age group. Light Entertainment best describes the Type I category of television programs preferred

by College Students. The representative television program for the Type II category was either Evening Crime and Adventure Shows or Movies.

The representative television program for the Type I category of programs for Senior Citizens was News and Public Affairs Programs. For Type II, the representative program was Soap Operas.

News and Entertainment Portrayals

Using the Analysis of Variance design, it was determined that the College Students and Senior Citizens did not significantly differ in the agreement toward television portrayals of American Indians.

News program portrayals of American Indians were viewed more favorably than Entertainment program portrayals. Overall, though, the respondents registered their belief that both News and Entertainment programs do not portray American Indians favorably or positively.

Hypotheses

For this study, the author sought to prove two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: The age group of American Indians, College Students and Senior Citizens is positively related to television evaluations (i.e., as age increases, television evaluations become more favorable; the Senior Citizens, who on the whole comprise an older age group, will have more favorable attitudes than College Students toward television portrayals of American Indians).

Based on research findings, there was no difference between College Student and Senior Citizen evaluations of television portrayals of American Indians. Although News programs were viewed significantly more favorable than Entertainment programs, both age groups registered notably unfavorable attitudes toward the treatment of American Indians on television.

Hypothesis 2: American Indian television program preferences are positively related to their television evaluations (i.e., strong television program preferences are accompanied by favorable evaluations of television portrayals of American Indians).

Although the research findings suggested the Senior Citizens registered a stronger preference for television programs than College Students, their evaluations of television portrayals of American Indians did not differ.

College Students, overall, registered their strongest preference for Light Entertainment programs that do not require much of their time or attention. This age group, on the other hand, registered their agreement that Entertainment programs do not portray Indians realistically.

Senior Citizens, overall, registered their strongest preference for News and Public Affairs Programs. This age group gives more of their time and attention to television. And notably, they registered a significantly higher agreement score for News program portrayals of American Indians.

With a response rate of 84% for College Students and 70% for Senior Citizens, the author concluded the respondents, overall, exhibited a strong desire to respond and reveal their thoughts and attitudes toward television portrayals of American Indians. This strong desire could be attributed to the lack of information available about television portrayals of American Indians.

After researching the topic of this investigation, the author realized how little research has been conducted on the effects of television on American Indians, especially children.

Due to the lack of positive American Indian images or role models, American Indian children are unable "to perceive themselves or their tribesmen in a positive manner and their sense of self-worth is lessened" (5, p. 198).

The author concurs with Morris in the Berry and Mitchell-Kernan (5) publication, when she writes:

> If one's self-esteem is low, one's desire and ability to improve, grow, and accept challenges are hampered. If one does not feel worthy, life holds few positive adventures. Educators have seen the dramatic effects of a low sense of self-esteem in the statistics available on the high school drop-out rate for American Indian youth, which is at least three times higher than the national average (p. 198).

Some of the major problems facing American Indian youth today are a high drop-out rate, high suicide rate, and alcoholism. In most cases, these problems can be attributed to low self-esteem and a feeling, by the youth, of alienation from and rejection by the majority culture.

Of course television cannot take the blame for all these problems, but more research needs to be conducted on how television affects the self-esteem of American Indian children and adolescents. Additionally, researchers need to look at what specific factors (societal, environmental, etc.) reinforce positive behavior in American Indian youth.

Non-Indian children also ingest the negative message delivered on the television screen. Therefore, more research should be conducted on how television portrayals of American Indians effects the non-Indian child. Some of these ill-informed youngsters are likely "to taunt and tease American Indian classmates" (5, p. 199).

Morris contends:

> Many are the instances where native children begin denying they are American Indian after such altercations. Non-Indian youths eventually grow up and, if no one has provided them

> with alternative, positive attitudes toward American Indians, they may go through their entire adult life harboring negative feelings toward them (5, p. 199).

More instructional materials need to be developed which teach children to appreciate and accept people whose cultures differ from theirs. Additionally more curriculum materials should be developed that teach self-esteem. More work in these areas can benefit both Indian and non-Indian youngsters.

Educators should teach the youngest television generation about the realities of television; its strengths and weaknesses, the problems it can solve and the problems it can create. For example, children should understand that in most cases, stories are not fully told on television due to the time element. Children should be encouraged to use television as only one of many mediums to gain information. If children learn to do this, they will recognize inaccurate portrayals and information because they will know that television can only present a part of an entire picture.

Either directly or indirectly, television espouses the values of the dominant society, the white viewpoint. Many white values have been demonstrated "to be in almost direct opposition to traditional American Indian values" (5, p. 198).

Morris writes:

> While most American Indian cultures revere cooperation, sharing, the wisdom that comes with old age, and living in balance with nature, for example, television programming instills the opposing white values of competition, materialism, youthfulness, and progress at the expense of nature (5, p. 198).

These cultural differences are evident when television portrays American Indians. The strongest agreement scores registered by the

respondents, in this study, centered on this aspect of television. The respondents agreed "TV news, too often, reports Indian news stories from the white viewpoint." The respondents did not think the Indian viewpoint was presented and understood in news stories about Indians.

Additionally, the respondents agreed "TV news leans too heavily on stories about Indians that only serve to reinforce white biases about Indians." It appears the respondents believe Indian news stories are inaccurately reported but in addition, they believe there is a conscious or unconscious decision on the part of broadcasters to encourage these inaccuracies.

The respondents also agreed that "Even when a television show is supposed to be about Indians, it reflects more the white viewpoint of Indians than the Indian point of view." Again, the respondents do not believe the Indian point of view, his culture and values, are presented or understood by broadcasters.

In addition, the respondents registered strong support for the notion that "There are not enough Indians seen on television." As stated previously, the lack of visibility can be just as harmful as negative portrayals.

The two major functions of television are to entertain and to inform. Yet, if shown at all, American Indians are not accurately or positively depicted in both these areas.

Television networks must be held responsible and accountable for those images and messages on the screen. They must become responsive to the American Indian community, particularly, and to the general public.

Colleges and universities that educate the future leaders of the television networks also have "a responsibility to promote the positive aspects of cultural diversity" and the need for improved images of minorities (5, p. 201).

Researchers, educators, and parents must involve themselves more in influencing and pressuring television networks to give equal time to diverse cultures and values, and particularly, to improve the image of the American Indian.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

I. Below are listed several types of TV entertainment and news shows. For each one, please check the blank which best describes how likely it is that you'd watch such a program, on the average.

For example, if it is very likely you would watch, on the average, a religious program then you would check the blank like this:

Very likely would watch __X__ _____ _____ _____ _____ Hardly ever would watch

Please indicate your viewing preferences for the following types of TV entertainment and news shows. If the program happens to be one that you don't care about, one way or another, please put a check over the middle blank.

A. Evening Crime and Adventure Shows

Very likely would watch _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Hardly ever would watch

B. Movies

Very likely would watch _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Hardly ever would watch

C. Situation Comedies

Very likely would watch _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Hardly ever would watch

D. Musical Variety Shows

Very likely would watch _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Hardly ever would watch

E. Game Shows

Very likely would watch _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Hardly ever would watch

F. Soap Operas

Very likely would watch _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Hardly ever would watch

G. Sports

Very likely would watch _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Hardly ever would watch

H. Local News

Very likely would watch _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Hardly ever would watch

I. National News

Very likely would watch _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Hardly ever would watch

J. Public Affair Shows

Very likely would watch _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Hardly ever would watch

K. Religious Programs

Very likely would watch _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Hardly ever would watch

II. Below are several statements people have made about the treatment of Indians in television news and entertainment shows. Please place a check mark over the blank that best expresses your degree of agreement with each statement. If you feel "neutral" about the statement, please place your check over the middle blank, but only if you feel neutral.

A. Television News

1. TV news provides adequate coverage of newsworthy events about Indians.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

2. TV news hardly ever presents the Indians' side of the story.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

3. News about Indians is reported accurately on television.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

4. TV news almost always gives a fair and balanced report of news about Indians.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

5. TV news, too often, reports Indian news stories from the white viewpoint.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

6. TV news leans too heavily on stories about Indians that only serve to reinforce white biases about Indians.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

7. TV news reporters, for the most part, show an understanding of Indian affairs.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

8. Too often, Indians on TV news are the bad guys, reflecting the old "cowboys and Indians" theme in the movies.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

B. Television Entertainment

1. Even when a television show is supposed to be about Indians, it reflects more the white viewpoint of Indians than the Indian point of view.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

2. There are not enough Indians seen on television shows.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

3. Generally, I am satisfied with the way Indians are portrayed in television entertainment shows.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

4. The number of Indians portrayed on TV shows is way below their proportion in the population.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

5. Generally, there is nothing wrong with white actors portraying Indians in television shows.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

6. Television entertainment, for the most part, portrays Indians as an important part of life in the United States.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

7. For the most part, when television entertainment portrays Indians, it shows them in a realistic light.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

8. Overall, television presents a stereotyped image of Indians.

   Strongly Agree ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Disagree

APPENDIX B

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLES

TABLE XIII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE: NEWS AND ENTERTAINMENT PROGRAM PORTRAYALS OF AMERICAN INDIANS

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	P
Total	395	15,722.8	---------- Not Needed ----------		
Between Subjects	197	12,503.3	---------- Not Needed ----------		
Between Age Groups	1	54.85	54.84	.86	Not Signif.
Between Subjects Error	196	12,448.45	63.51		
Within Subjects	198	3,219.5	---------- Not Needed ----------		
Between News and Entertainment	1	846.58	846.58	71.26	Significant
Interaction - Age Group & News - Entertainment	1	43.7	43.7	3.68	Not Signif.
Within Subjects Error	196	2,329.22	11.88		

TABLE XIV

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE: TELEVISION PROGRAM CATEGORIES

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	P
Total	1,385	2,828.84	---------- Not Needed ----------		
Between Subjects	197	558.17	---------- Not Needed ----------		
Between Age Groups	1	51.04	51.04	19.71	Significant
Between Subjects Errors	196	507.13	2.59		
Within Subjects	1,188	2,270.67	---------- Not Needed ----------		
Between TV Program Categories	6	333.05	55.51	34.91	Significant
Interaction-Age Groups & TV Program Categories	6	62.65	10.44	6.57	Significant
Within Subjects Error	1,176	1,874.97	1.59		

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