

PERSONALITY TRAITS AND PROGRAM PREFERENCES  
REGARDING VIOLENCE ON TELEVISION

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PERSONALITY THE PERSONAL PROGRAMS AND PREFERENCES  
REGARDING VIOLENCE ON TELEVISION

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## PREFACE

This study examines and seeks to identify and describe the people who make up the audience of violent programs, primarily in terms of their personality traits and, secondarily, of their demographic characteristics.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

All mass media such as movies, radio, magazines, newspapers, comic books, and, most recently, television are agencies transmitting entertainment, while at the same time providing an audience with information and ideas. The history of the twentieth century reflects public concern each time a new communications medium has made an appearance in American culture. Each new medium has, in its time, aroused anxiety. Television constitutes no exception. From its inception, television--its programs and its public--has been the subject of widespread comment and speculation.

In the '50s, some critics claimed that television would kill the art of conversation. They also warned that television would ruin everyone's eyesight and cautioned that so much sitting while watching television augured ill for the national lower back. In contrast, today's prognosticators warn that sex and violence on television will destroy the moral fiber of the country, and commercials in children's shows are turning youngsters into tiny consumers with distorted values. Television stands accused of yet another crime.

Television is to blame for at least a part of the current energy crisis. The man cites a Nielsen report that viewing has increased 16 minutes a day--almost 100 hours a year--in the average U.S. home. With the average TV set consuming as much as 350 watts an extra 100 hours a year in almost 65 million homes, extra viewing alone burns up more than 2 billion kilowatt-hours a year. Energy crisis? Blame television. What to do?<sup>1</sup>

Since McLuhan, the critics have agreed television is highly involving, but there are different levels of involvement. Watching "Hamlet" or "Richard III" on television is a different type of experience from watching "The Untouchables."

Claims have been made, and surveys purportedly confirm, that television programming has focused increasingly upon the depiction of values and conduct that are at variance with those sanctioned by the democratic personality and community of our culture.<sup>2</sup>

Predispositions of an individual may cause selective exposure at a given time. Television viewing habits or tastes can best be seen as an interplay between certain personality traits and the demographic background of an individual viewer. "Many social scientists have found that certain personal attitudes and forms of behavior correlate with the characteristics of various socioeconomic groups."<sup>3</sup>

The question is whether the phenomenon of selective exposure, as known in communication research, can be applied to televised violence.

The media and their audiences come together through a process of mutual selection. The media tend to select their audiences primarily by means of content. The audiences also tend to select among and within the media primarily on the basis of content.<sup>4</sup>

In other words, does violent content select its own audience? If so, what are the characteristics of the predispositions which an individual brings to media exposure toward violence? Are those "violence" viewers different from "nonviolence" viewers? Those who watch violent programs may or may not be in different socio-economic groups which possess certain specific beliefs, values, and behavioral patterns that differentiate them from groups which do not watch violent programs.

The study examined who watches violence, the personality traits and demographic factors of people attracted to violence, and why people

watch violence. The analysis of selected variables was based on what people said about violent programs on television and on how they reacted to some psychological test items. An attempt was made to determine some of the actual viewing behavior. The problems involved in discovering the nature of televised violence were, hopefully, to be sharpened.

The programming content of the medium, what it is and what it should be, dominates the current dialogue among the broadcasters, producers, sponsors, critics, the Federal Communications Commission, and other interested parties.

Particularly violence and impulsive lust have been of public concern, although more pervasive questions are also being raised in positions of authority with respect to the young about a defection of emphasis upon human dignity and an encouragement of ego-centricity in contemporary television programming.<sup>5</sup>

One point of view is represented by former FCC Chairman, Newton Minow, in his description of the vast wasteland:

. . . a procession of game shows, violence, audience participation shows, formula comedies about totally unbelievable families, blood and thunder, mayhem, violence, sadism, murder, Western bad men, Western good men, private eyes, gangsters, more violence, and cartoons. And, endlessly, commercials . . . many screaming, cajoling and offending. And most of all, boredom.<sup>6</sup>

The various voices are strong and clear, but certainly not in harmony. In short, the claim is that television is currently being used to weaken and lower prevailing standards of community responsibility in America and thus impede the democratic socialization of youth and adults.

President Lyndon B. Johnson created the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, with the charge "to undertake a penetrating search--a search into our national life, our past as well as our present, our traditions as well as our institutions, our culture,

our customs, and our laws."<sup>7</sup> To that end, the Commission established a Task Force on the Media to investigate the effects of media portrayals of violence upon the public and the role of the mass media in the process of violent and nonviolent change. The Commission conducted hearings in order to sound out the best minds regarding the media, especially in television.

One basic question was: Do media portrayals of violence cause violence? The networks, requiring a valid scientific methodology, claim no objective correlation between the two; the scholars are not that certain; and others argue that an obvious relationship exists, if they would but look at the evidence.

In fact, assassinations, a series of shocking and senseless acts of violence, stimulated the public generally and there was obvious and inescapable concern with violence. The viewing public has been exposed in recent times to a series of shocking multiple murders: the assassinations of Medgar Evers, Malcolm X, George Lincoln Rockwell, President John F. Kennedy, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Senator Robert F. Kennedy.

In the days following the assassination of Sen. Kennedy, a deep sense of concern engulfed the nation. The unrest and upheaval of sizable segments of our population, the challenge to, and charge of, the existing order--all characteristic of the period in which we live--focused attention on the acute problems of disorder and conflict far too frequently expressed in terms of violence.<sup>8</sup>

As a frustrated nation felt constrained to examine the climate in which these frightening events occurred, many sought quick and easy answers to what is generally acknowledged to be a complex question. What motivates people and nations to resort to force or violence in an attempt to cope with life's conflicts and problems? The public reacted; they would like to eradicate violence. This reaction led to new and

and intense pressure upon the mass media, particularly television medium. Some critics of television were quick to blame the industry in an attempt to assert a direct causal relationship between television programming and the increasing nationwide coincidence of violence, rising crime rates, and disrespect for law and civil authority. Some contend that television programming is conditioning this society to accept violence as a way of life.

Perhaps the commonest charge made against the media is that, by portraying violence, they lead people to imitate what they read in the newspaper, what they hear over the radio, or what they see on television. It is more often claimed that the violence in media entertainment gives rise to imitation and, thus, leads to juvenile delinquency or crime.<sup>9</sup>

Concern with this responsibility, real or imagined, led to inquiries, surveys, and investigations of various sorts. This concern brought about the adoption of recommendations and codes of ethics for the media, and to the drawing up or revision of censorship laws.

But what is the truth? Violence existed before the mass media. Aggression and/or violence is not a single, unitary, or monolithic phenomenon. Although aggression, violence, and hostility are loosely defined terms that suggest unitary concepts, they are obviously due to manifold causes. A proper question might be "What are the causes of violence?" rather than "What is the cause of violence?"

Acts of violence may seem to stem from a single cause, or a single historical trend. Their explosiveness often gives this impression. I believe, however, that a systems flow chart covering many social events over the past decade would reveal a confluence of multiple causes of violence, where several factors come together at approximately the same time and exceed the threshold of suppression through mutual reinforcement.<sup>10</sup>

Although the media should not be absolved from their responsibility, it would seem to be misleading to regard them as the roots of violent

behavior. This is a world of differences, a world of conflict, and a world of violence. This is an age in which millions can witness, through television, the murder of Lee Harvey Oswald, the Vietnam War, or the street fighting between police and college students. Violence surrounds our daily lives; it is in newspapers, on television, and occasionally witnessed in person. Violence is found in books and movies and is suggested, even, in children's toys.

According to a recent NBC television newscast, an eight-year-old boy murdered an elderly babysitter with a shotgun and a man with a fear of being touched went berserk, stabbing seven people in four days.<sup>11</sup> Various counts suggest literally hundreds of such incidents on any given channel in a given week. Certainly individual crimes of violence are increasing. Violence, in general, is given instant exposure on television. Particularly, in this country, the television audience has been exposed to an uninterrupted series of visual portrayals of violence. Each viewer has available a ready means of learning violent responses to conflict, or releasing aggressive fantasies, and perhaps gratifying violent wishes.

Violence is a phenomenon which serves multiple functions. The forms of violence are amazingly varied: fistfights, stabbings, shootings, rapes, arson, bombings, riots, and wars. What all these events have in common is the presence of aggression motivating violence, a destructive, sometimes deadly, mutation of a normally constructive human trait.

The results of violent aggression are well-known and widely discussed; only the causes are unclear. Violence may not be the fault of the mass media. Because of their very nature, the media can and

sometimes do contribute to the spread of violence. On the other hand, the media can and sometimes do contribute to the prevention of violence. It would be a dangerous mistake to treat the media as scapegoats for the sins of society, though they cannot deny their responsibility for trying to use their influence in the direction of reason.

The discussion of the possible, presumed, and known effects of the portrayal of violence by the media may lead to one possible conclusion: ". . . that in this realm much is suspected, much is presumed, and little is actually known."<sup>12</sup> The discussion of violence by the media has helped distinguish the few areas of certainty from much broader areas of doubt. But the number of variables to be considered must be increased if more certainties are to be arrived at through valid research.

Since the media do not work in a vacuum, future research requires a closer look at the structure and functioning of the media themselves, of the societies in which they operate, and of the audiences which they reach. Neither society, medium, nor audience is the same everywhere at all times or under all conditions. Each seems to interact with the others.

The media are part of a system. Another part of the system is the society in which the media function. This society also includes other institutions besides the media, such as the family, the schools, the religious centers, the political regimes, occupations, and social clubs. Finally, the system includes the audiences of the various media. The audiences are made up of segments of society. All are variables. Therefore, the audiences are not a homogeneous mass. People use the media both in "good" and "bad" ways in terms of their past experiences,

present relationships, and future expectations. They are the products of their own past, observing, perceiving, and interpreting in their own unique ways. They are not at the mercy of the media, though some children and adolescents, for example, may be particularly susceptible or vulnerable. However, even more important are their environments. Studies of the effects of television on children, for example, have shown that what a child sees and the way he interprets it depend on "the problems he is faced with in his family, school, or play group."<sup>13</sup> It is they who use television, rather than television that uses them. Other research studies of the backgrounds of over-aggressive antisocial individuals have consistently disclosed:

. . . an early environment characterized by parental rejection, familial discord, the use of physically painful punishment or threats of physical punishment, inconsistency in treatment, parental permissiveness of aggression, a low level of parental expectation, a lack of parental supervision, parental examples of social deviance, and parental dissatisfaction with the child's role in life.<sup>14</sup>

The effect of real or fictional violence in the media depends on who watches it or listens to it or reads about it. When an individual turns to media he has already been exposed, more or less, to what these other parts of the system have to offer. Therefore, the question might be: What type of audience tends to view more violence? What personality traits contribute toward more viewing of televised violence?

Some suggest very strongly that it's not what a person reads or watches on television or in the movie houses that determines his behavior or personality; instead, his personality influences what he chooses to read or to watch on television or in the movies.<sup>15</sup>

What, if any, are the attitudinal differences toward violence between viewers of violence and viewers of nonviolence on television? In summary, does selective exposure also work toward the viewing of



televised violence? If so, what are the characteristics of personality among those who view violent programs? Some questions may seem obvious, but it is well to recall what Wendell Johnson said:

It is reasonable to say that most inventions and advances in our knowledge have been mainly discoveries of the obvious ... Anything that we have long overlooked but might easily have noticed usually seems simple, obvious, once we have it pointed out to us. We tend, therefore, to develop the illusion that we have always known it, and it is this that constitutes one of our greatest barriers to thorough and continuous learning.<sup>16</sup>

The data amassed by the various audience research services are rarely analyzed for the underlying factors in audience behavior. This is particularly the case in determining the interrelationships among such variables as social-class membership, personality traits, violence value judgments, age and sex factors, and violence preference on television. Therefore, future research should increase efforts to understand media audiences. All of the media are sensitive to audience reaction as interpreted through circulation figures and ratings. But these tell only whether audiences find their product acceptable; they provide no indication as to why certain media content is "used" or passed by. Nor do they tell producers anything about which audiences might prefer other treatments. Neither do they tell under what circumstances nor in what context a given type of violence tends to serve a given type of audience.

The study attempted to offer findings on television violence and its audience composition in terms of their predispositions in demographic background and personality-trait characteristics. It also sought to provide producers with a source of information and guidance in program planning and improvement of treatments dealing with violence. Thus, the purpose of this research study may be summarized as follows:

1. To define a possible relationship between personality traits possessed by people and their program preferences for televised violence.
2. To search for a relationship between demographic backgrounds and personality traits among viewers of violent programs.
3. To construct and predict a profile of the audience composition of fantasized television violence with respect to such demographic variables as sex, age, education, income, and occupation.
4. To identify the actual selector of violent programs and the reason or reasons for viewing.
5. To examine the differences between viewers of nonviolent and violent programs.

Thus, this study did not repeat the conventional post hoc search for the existence of causal relationship between violence-watching on television and its aggressive behavior. Rather, through ex post facto study, it examined those variables which might contribute to the viewing of televised violence in relationship to such factors as demographic background and personality traits. Also examined were (1) how violence is perceived in terms of degree of liking, (2) the reasons for viewing, and (3) the differences between viewers of nonviolent and violent programs.

No single study supplies all the answers. But as in all scientific inquiry, this study was meant to provide a stepping stone for further research.

FOOTNOTES

- <sup>1</sup>Richard K. Doan, "As We See TV," TV Guide (June 2, 1973), p. 1.
- <sup>2</sup>Leon Arons and Mark A. May, eds., Television and Human Behavior (New York, 1963), p. 101.
- <sup>3</sup>Charles R. Monroe, Profile of the Community College (San Francisco, 1972), p. 193.
- <sup>4</sup>W. I. Rivers, T. Peterson, and J. W. Jensen, The Mass Media and Modern Society, second edition (San Francisco, 1971), p. 278.
- <sup>5</sup>National Association for Better Radio and Television, Human Dignity and Television (Los Angeles, 1962), p. 111.
- <sup>6</sup>Newton N. Minow, as quoted in Gary A. Steiner, The People Look at Television (New York, 1963), p. 111.
- <sup>7</sup>Paul L. Briand, Jr., quoted in Robert K. Baker and Sandra J. Ball, Violence and the Media, Vol. 9A (Washington, D.C., 1969), p. i.
- <sup>8</sup>Alfred R. Schneider, quoted in Baker and Ball, p. 79.
- <sup>9</sup>Mary Burnet, as quoted in UNESCO, The Mass Media in a Violent World (Reports and Papers on Mass Communication, No. 63) (Paris, 1971), p. 17.
- <sup>10</sup>Roy R. Grinker, Sr., "What Is the Cause of Violence," in Jan Fawcett (ed.), Dynamics of Violence (Chicago, 1971), p. 59.
- <sup>11</sup>Fawcett, p. 1.
- <sup>12</sup>Burnet, p. 25.
- <sup>13</sup>W. Phillips Davison, International Political Communication (New York, 1965), p. 39.
- <sup>14</sup>James M. Lawrey and Charles W. Telford, Psychology of Adjustment (Boston, 1967), p. 106.
- <sup>15</sup>Baker and Ball, p. 92.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Behavioral research is defined as experimental, survey, or clinical study dealing with human behavior. In the past decade, a phenomenal number of persons have set forth their views regarding television. No single study can hope to discover what effects the viewing of televised fantasy-violence have on behavior or those things which affect the viewing of televised violence.

Research on the behavioral effects of television was preceded by two decades of research on the effects of film. Before the first television studies appeared at the end of the 1940s, there were already several hundred studies of motion pictures. It is safe to say that almost every important question raised by television research--addiction, effect on leisure time, contribution to knowledge, adjustment, and so forth--was previously raised and considered in connection with movies. Thus, television research began with a number of its chief questions pre-stated, a number of tentative hypotheses ready for testing, and some useful experience with methodology.<sup>1</sup>

When television emerges in a country, it usually goes through the whole media research cycle that other media have gone through. The first studies of its effects usually were descriptions of viewing behavior. How much time do audiences spend on television? At what hours do they view? What programs are watched? The next studies dealt with

audience reaction to television. What programs do people like most? What content do they believe? What frightens or amuses them? Finally, what is television's effect on values, knowledge, physical and mental health, and social behavior?

We can predict with some confidence what their viewing patterns are likely to be when TV becomes available, what changes television is likely to make in their schedules of leisure time, and what reactions to TV they are likely to have.<sup>2</sup>

But television's relationship as a contributing cause to social behavior, its contribution to values and knowledge, its interaction with maladjustment and mental illness, and personality and violence preference are all immensely complicated matters and far from completely understood.

There is a promising line of experimentation concentrating chiefly on the relationship of television to aggression. Different experiments were conducted by such scholars as Maccoby, Siegel, Bandura, Lovaas, Berkowitz, Feshbach, and others in the United States; Himmelweit in England; Emery, Thompson, and others in Australia.<sup>3</sup>

Surveys can give us information about past history and current conditions, and such studies usually rely on correlational analyses. Survey studies tend to compare viewers who watch violence with those who do not. The amount of television viewing and the type of shows viewed become the main independent variables. Sex, age, and socio-economic class are common ways of classifying viewers. Among the dependent behavioral variables studied are fear, social adjustment, emotional disturbance, aggressive tendencies, sociability, time spent in activities such as reading or doing homework, and academic success. The general attempt is to show the degree of correlation or association

between the independent and dependent variables. Of course, the relationships can be stated only as associations since the variables are not under experimental control. In general, the association between the types of shows watched and behavioral variables is studied.

The survey method often involves a large-scale study using questionnaires. Some surveys among children suggest that delinquent behavior occurs no more often among heavy viewers of television than among light- and non-viewers.<sup>4</sup> Although they may not watch television frequently, aggressive third-grade boys tend to prefer violent television programs.<sup>5</sup>

Two other studies report that high frustration levels are associated with a preference for programs stressing violence and action.<sup>6</sup> Aggressive personality predispositions in boys also have been found to be associated with a preference for aggressive content in pictorial media. Boys who like aggressive hero material tend to be emotionally disturbed, to blame others, and to come from unstable families.<sup>7</sup>

These results may be interpreted to mean that aggression on television is rewarding to frustrated, maladjusted, and aggressive children. They may also be interpreted as evidence that aggression is aroused by programs featuring violence. Another possible interpretation is that partially disturbed children find some solace in hostile television fantasy. Such programs may lower their tendency to aggressiveness and reduce frustration and tension. On the other hand, it may be argued that such programs further isolate the child and become substitutes for social activity.<sup>8</sup>

A study by Schramm shows that exposure to television images is rather widespread among children during their most impressionistic stage

of primary ego development.<sup>9</sup> This underscores the potential grip of the medium upon the personalities of children.

Still other studies have suggested some sort of emotional or personality difficulty which existed before, or at least independently of, the media, and which produced in such individuals a taste for the kind of media fare they seemed to prefer.<sup>10</sup> In short, the emotional needs of the audience were formed by certain personality traits and attitudes, and these in turn produced the media habits.

Some research also has tried to correlate television diffusion and juvenile delinquency simply through showing that the two have risen together over the recent past and that television has gradually established a position of actual, potential, and widening power with regard to information and ideas disseminated among pre-adults. This position comes close to or exceeds that of other sources. If we place both television and delinquency in their historical setting in America, the two seem to grow together. Comparatively, is there more violence in the world than there used to be? There is no sure means of knowing. The fact remains that many people believe there is. Many, too, believe that the mass communication media are to some extent responsible. It might be worthwhile, for a moment, to take a closer look at what has been found between television and delinquency.

The purported rise in delinquency and the increase in television viewing have occurred during the same time span, since World War II. In 1960, over 500,000 cases, excluding traffic offenses, were handled by juvenile courts in this country. According to government figures, 1960 was the twelfth consecutive year in which the number of delinquency cases increased over the previous year, the number of cases having

doubled since 1948. Increases in delinquency cases have exceeded the increase in juvenile population during all but one year in this period.<sup>11</sup>

During the same time, the size of television audiences also had risen. While the number of commercial television stations grew from 96 in 1950 to 541 in 1962, the percentage of households having television sets increased from 8 percent to 90 percent in this same 12-year period. The number of sets per home also increased. In 1955, only 2.3 percent of American homes had two or more sets; by the end of 1961, one out of every eight homes had at least one TV set.<sup>12</sup> NBC estimated there were 53,300,000 television sets in use in 1960; in 1971 the number had grown to 92,700,000 in homes, cafes, hotels, and elsewhere across the country.<sup>13</sup> According to Nielsen, television set usage per home has averaged over five hours a day on an annual average basis over the past five years.<sup>14</sup>

Data from the U. S. Attorney General show that while there was a diminution in violence in this country to about 1940, it has increased alarmingly since then. For example, in 1967, there were 250 acts of violence per 100,000 population--twice as many acts of violence as in 1940 and 86 percent above the figures for 1950.<sup>15</sup> According to the latest Uniform Crime Reports issued by the Federal Bureau of Investigation, an estimated 5,568,200 serious crimes were reported during all of 1970. This represents an increase of 11.3 percent over the total reported in 1969 and 143.9 percent over 1960.<sup>16</sup> Robert McNeil testified before the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence that Americans in their private lives behave more violently than citizens of many other civilized countries.<sup>17</sup>



The crime rate in the United States continued to rise during the first half of 1971, according to the FBI. There was an increase in every type of crime for this half-year period. Violent crimes as a group were up 11 percent; robbery was up 14 percent; murder and aggravated assault, 10 percent each; and forcible rape, 7 percent. Property crimes increased 6 percent as a group. Armed robbery, which makes up about two-thirds of all robbery offenses, increased 19 percent. Assaults with firearms, which account for about one-fourth of all serious assaults, rose 12 percent.<sup>18</sup>

Speaking to members of the National Commission on Causes and Prevention of Violence, Milton S. Eisenhower said that, if one selected just one type of violence in America, there would be 90 times as many occurrences in that one type as in the Netherlands, 60 times as much as in Japan, 40 times as much as in Great Britain.<sup>19</sup> Further, Justice Department statistics show the murder rate to be very high. This is due in part to the cult of the gun.<sup>20</sup> NBC reported on June 12, 1973, in its special "Murder in America," 18,000 people were murdered in this country in 1972. During the next hour, two more will be murdered.<sup>21</sup>

Some measures of intervention or of control over the mass media have been advocated. Most of these have suggested increased surveillance and classification of media material to facilitate individual selection of content and regulations concerning exposure to the media-- a kind of labeling process. The motion picture industry implemented a four-label classification system some time ago.

NBC has a nine o'clock rule before which programs dealing with violence, frank sexual content, and very distressing realities such as mental illness are not shown. Another practice, when scenes are coming

up in a news film which people might regard as particularly distressing, is for the newscaster or the announcer to say: "You are about to see scenes which some people may find distasteful and unpleasant and you may not wish to watch."<sup>22</sup>

Independent British Television will begin still another experiment with its own classification system for "X-rated" content. "While the shows considered most graphic or explicit are unfolding, a continuous white spot will be flashing in the upper corner of the television screen. Not even a red dot. Just a little white dot."<sup>23</sup>

American television viewers will, in the near future, be enriched by something called a "Violence Index." This is a rating system devised by social scientists, in conjunction with the National Institute of Mental Health, which will inform viewers how "violent" a dramatic program is. It is intended to guide them, and above all, their children, away from programs containing too much violence. This index is the direct result of the now formal claim that a "causal relationship" exists between the viewing of television violence and violence in real life, a claim based on the Surgeon General's 1972 report on a million-dollar study of "the impact of televised violence." But as Edith Efron put it: "It [the Violence Index] is a nonsolution to a nonproved problem produced by a non-investigation of a nonresolved controversy over a nondefined threat to non-identifiable people."<sup>24</sup>

#### Some Objections to Violence on Television

The major objectives to violence and destructive content in television may be summarized as follows:

1. The witnessing of acts of violence or destruction is essentially frightening and can provoke anxiety both in adults and children with consequences such as persistent nightmares or sleeplessness, distracting daydreams, or the development of nervous mannerisms. Viewing such incidents on television may be similar to actual presence at the scene and evoke comparable traumatic reactions in the viewer.

2. Portrayals of excessive violence in popular media may create general expectations in the public concerning the frequency and types of actual violence in society.

3. Depiction of criminal activity and violence may provide susceptible individuals with a "blueprint" for various crimes and lead to direct imitation of the observed behavior through immaturity or direct suggestibility.

4. The observation of aggression may generate a predisposition to comparable activity in individuals angered or emotionally frustrated shortly after watching a movie or television portrayal. Under circumstances of great emotional arousal, an individual may recall a scene from a recent movie or television play and behave impulsively in a comparable fashion. In some instances actual "conditioned" reactions may occur, i.e., aggression towards a person who bears even a superficial resemblance to a television character who was the object of aggression.

5. "Contagion" effects--group social reactions--may become occasioned by witnessing mob violence such as lootings or student sit-ins.

6. Arousal of hopes for achievement or for material success may lead urban ghetto-viewers into frustrations which then arouse aggression.

7. Beyond the "triggering" or imitative effects suggested above, it is possible that frequent exposure to acts of aggression, whether imaginary or actual, as in newsfilm of rioting or the fighting in Vietnam, may create a more pervasive physiological readiness to engage in aggressive behavior. The widespread availability of information as well as direct presentation of aggression may create a general cultural atmosphere of lowered inhibitions concerning such acts in contrast with the more normal restraints most people feel about harming others directly.<sup>25</sup>

#### Some Positive Effects of Television

Juxtaposed against this list of criticisms are a number of suggestions of the possible value of such TV content. Generally, television has few defenders in the intellectual community, but scientific concern raises some serious questions concerning the medium's adaptive utility from a psychological standpoint. Some positive effects which have been postulated are as follow:

1. As most people experience frustrations or periodic arousal of aggressive drives or anger, the opportunity to experience vicariously such situations through fictional means reduces the likelihood of direct expression. This is the well-known "catharsis" hypothesis. It suggests that man's enjoyment of violent events in all art forms or in sports such as boxing is explicable on the basis of an almost universal need for safety-valve aggressive experiences that reduce overt violence.<sup>26</sup>

2. The availability of adventurous and violent content on television might be termed the "imaginative development hypothesis." Here it would be argued that the intrinsic interest of such material helps

children to obtain material for use in their imaginative play and increases the likelihood that they will enjoy such forms of activity rather than direct physical-contact play which is more likely to lead to aggression.<sup>27</sup>

3. Time spent viewing television is time taken away from gang play or potentially delinquent behavior. In this sense, if potentially aggressive, restless children could be encouraged to sit quietly watching television and enjoying it, they would be less likely to be on the streets looking for violent confrontations. Studies in Japan and a finding reported by Eron suggest that viewing time may be inversely related to overt aggressive behavior.<sup>28</sup>

4. Just as television may be expected to communicate negative beliefs or possibly harmful orientations, it also appears to encourage a variety of socially-relevant interests, desires for friendship, sports or travel, and other inclinations to satisfaction that are valuable alternatives to direct aggression. Even within the context of a detective or adventure story with its attendant violence, material is presented that may encourage desires for new occupations such as newspaper reporting, police work, medicine, and merchant seamanship, all posing intriguing alternatives to a life of crime. There is evidence that children retain material best when they have made positive identification with a "hero" figure. Thus, it would appear likely that if the hero or heroine has an interesting personality and line of work and is not strongly inclined to violence personally, the likelihood of positive identification is greater than identification with aggressive behavior.<sup>29</sup>

5. It is possible that considerable concern about man's social role, the importance of the democratic process, and the dignity of men

of independent stature may also be conveyed despite a considerable portion of violence in a picture. A further possible benefit from television's inclusion of adventure programs would bear on the issue of the general cultural enrichment and social sophistication accruing from the material. Awareness of varied national norms, or of broader cultural patterns, may increase the general interest and cultural level of a child and "build in" constraints against antisocial behavior in his own environment. General values such as the importance of education may also come through in many ways along with the excitement of adventure in the story.

A content analysis study found that two U. S. networks devoted nine and one-half hours weekly to programs containing crime and violence as defined in Webster's New World Dictionary. The third U. S. network carried six and one-half hours of such programs, and the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation carried five and one-half hours.<sup>30</sup> The proportion of time devoted to programs featuring violence and aggression during children's peak viewing hours, 5:00 to 9:00 P.M., was found to be approximately 20 percent in the United States.<sup>31</sup>

Aside from violence-oriented research, a number of studies have used a functional orientation to describe the effects of the mass media. Functions are those "observed consequences" which make for the adaptation or adjustment of a given system. Herta Herzog in 1944, and Lloyd Werner and William Henry in 1948, wrote about the audiences of women's daytime serials.<sup>32</sup> Other functional analyses were done by Lichty, Summers, Welch, Smith, Ripley, and Thayer.<sup>33</sup>

Thus, a mass of research has tended to focus on the effects of violence viewing upon behavior. Little research, however, has used the

functional-analysis approach in determining already-existing predispositions of an individual which might cause his preference for televised fantasy.

In summary, a careful scrutiny of the formal scientific literature does not yield evidence that warrants a judgment linking the increase in violence in the United States to the portrayal of violence on television. That aggressive content exists in most, if not all, popular media is a fact; but whether it has a direct impact on actual violent actions cannot be known from the present evidence.

Even if one could show associations between the frequency of viewing of television violence in a delimited sample of boys and a greater incidence of violent crime by members of that sample, it would be necessary to determine more precisely whether the taste for television violence was a reflection of well-established aggressive interests or whether the heavy diet of television violence was indeed encouraging aggressive behavior in the boys. Indeed, there is evidence in Japanese studies that more aggressively oriented children do not show a preference for violent television shows and that more intellectual and less aggressive children seek out the more complicated violent adventure films rather than simple comedies.<sup>34</sup>

The age, sex, social class, and personality predisposition of the viewer, the family or personal viewing patterns, and the viewer's imaginative or aggressive tendencies also are parameters that require exploration in formal studies of the effects of television.

Therefore, this study attempted to identify and describe the people who make up the audience of TV violence, primarily in terms of their

personality traits and, secondarily, of their demographic characteristics. The necessity of exploring violence on television from several perspectives should be stressed.



FOOTNOTES

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<sup>8</sup>UNESCO, p. 14.

<sup>9</sup>W. Schramm, J. Lyle, and E. B. Parker, Television in the Lives of Our Children (Stanford, 1961), p. 324.

<sup>10</sup>Joseph T. Clapper quoted in Baker and Ball, p. 17.

<sup>11</sup>U. S. Department of Commerce, Statistical Abstract of the U.S. (Washington, D.C., 1961).

<sup>12</sup>Advertising Research Foundation, National Survey of Television Sets in U. S. Households (New York, 1962), p. 14.

<sup>13</sup>TV Digest, TV Factbook, No. 41 (Washington, D.C., 1971), p. 99a.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid.

<sup>15</sup>Baker and Ball, p. 87.

<sup>16</sup>Reader's Digest 1972 Almanac and Yearbook (New York, 1972), p. 156.

<sup>17</sup>Baker and Ball, p. 117.

<sup>18</sup>Reader's Digest Almanac, p. 156.

<sup>19</sup>Baker and Ball, p. 117.

<sup>20</sup>Milton S. Eisenhower, quoted in Baker and Ball, p. 87.

<sup>21</sup>Richard K. Doan, "Murder in America," TV Guide (June 9, 1973), p. 2.

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## CHAPTER III

### DESIGN, METHODOLOGY, AND ANALYSIS

#### Statement of Problem

The investigator attempted to determine the relationship between personality traits, demographic backgrounds, and viewing preferences for televised violence. Such questions as these were posed: Do personality traits possessed by an individual produce preference for televised violence? Are any of these predisposing traits? Is one personality type more likely to prefer televised violence than other personality types? Do demographic backgrounds of an individual produce preference for televised violence?

#### Variables Studied

The subjects were measured on the following two variables:

1. Personality Traits
  - a. Aggression Anxiety (AA)
  - b. Overt Hostility (OH)
  - c. Covert Hostility (CH)
  - d. Neurotic Under Control (NU)
  - e. Conflict Over Hostility (CO)
2. Program Preference
  - a. Liking for violent programs (V)
  - b. Liking for nonviolent programs (NV)

## Research Questions

Major research questions posed were the following:

1. Are some personality traits more likely related to viewing preference for televised violence than other traits?
2. Are differences in the degree of possessed personality traits related to different viewing preferences for programs on television?
3. Will subjects who show high Overt Hostility, Covert Hostility, and Neurotic Under Control traits more likely tend to prefer violent programs on television?

The human subjects of any survey, clinical study, or experiment arrive with vast previous personal histories and an extensive behavioral repertoire over which the investigator has no control and about which, at best, he can have only incomplete knowledge. The subject already has responses to radio, television, fantasizing, reading, behaving aggressively, learning, imitating, thinking, and feeling. The effects of any new conditions to which a human being is subjected are partially a function of existing predispositions and personality traits which are largely determined by previous psycho-social history.

Whether portrayals of violence trigger violent acts in some while they inhibit violence in others, or while they make others accept the notion that violence is just something in the air (whichever view is accepted), a certain complexion of personality traits enters into all these choices. This study investigated what personality traits entered, in one way or another, into program preferences. It was felt that it would be too risky, without any clear evidence of research findings, to hypothesize the relationship between demographic variables and the preference for televised violence. Because an individual's background

enters into what he does, however, a possible relationship was sought in this study.

### Operational Definitions of Variables

#### Personality Traits

The personality inventory used contains 79 items which yield five trait measures. The five scales were taken from Seymour Feshbach's Psychological Inventory. Reliabilities reported for these scales have been based largely on college population.

These reliability studies have yielded generally satisfactory estimates. Split-half correlations that have been reported for the measures of aggression anxiety, neurotic under-control, overt hostility, and covert hostility measures are all greater than .60. . . . The reliabilities are sufficiently high for the measures to be responsive to the experimental variable.<sup>1</sup>

In each case a score of zero or one is assigned to each item in the scale, and the sum of these scores constitutes the total score on the scale. The scores were split at the median to divide the subjects into High and Low categories. (See Appendix D for Personality Inventory Scoring Scales.)

1. The Aggression Anxiety scale consists of 19 items.
2. The Overt Hostility scale consists of ten items.
3. The Covert Hostility scale consists of 14 items.
4. The Neurotic Under Control scale consists of 19 items.
5. The Conflict Over Hostility scale consists of seven items.

Another tool, the Lie Scale, consists of ten items. This scale was not used for analysis.

### Program Preference

The viewing preference measure listed ten pairs of 20 national television programs, of which nine were considered to be aggressive in context. These were FBI, Mannix, Hawaii Five-0, The Untouchables, Ironside, Mod Squad, Police Surgeon, Gunsmoke, and Mission Impossible. Eleven were considered to be non-aggressive: To Tell the Truth, Dick Cavett, Green Acres, Petticoat Junction, I Love Lucy, Room 222, I Dream of Jeannie, Hee Haw, Johnny Carson, All in the Family, and Lawrence Welk. Three pairs out of ten were false pairs. These three false pairs were not counted for analysis. The order of shows was random, but was identical for all subjects. These programs were selected by 43 judges who were Radio-TV-Film majors at the Oklahoma State University.

Subjects were asked to select one program from each pair and to rate it as to their degree of liking on a five-point scale. Liking for each show was assigned a score ranging from one to five. High numbers referred to a more positive attitude or a high preference for the shows indicated. Scores on this measurement thus had a possible range of from 7 to 35.

### Audience Composition

The desire for certain types of television programs will be possessed by various groups. An approximation can be made by examining those tangible elements that have a bearing on the establishment of viewing patterns. Some of these elements are age, sex, occupation, income, and education. There is obviously an overlapping of these elements. That is, one person might be in a medium income group, have a superior education, and be a member of the legal profession. That does

not mean, however, that his tastes will be the same as others who are included in any one of the groups. As a lawyer, his tastes may well be different from those of a skilled mechanic receiving the same income. Much benefit can be obtained from a study of these groups.

The study of people by groups is not valuable for its own sake, but rather as a means of ascertaining more clearly the real needs and wants of people as influenced by membership in given groups.<sup>2</sup>

This exploratory analysis of audience composition, incorporated with the personality-trait study, should provide a basis for further formulation of theory in "violence" studies. Audience composition was analyzed in terms of socio-economic classification, age, sex, education, income, the selector, and the "why."

Socio-Economic Classification. Occupations were classified into seven major groups with each group purported to have a somewhat distinct economic standard of life and to exhibit intellectual and social similarities. Socio-economic grouping of occupations was based on that of Alba M. Edwards.<sup>3</sup>

- High:
  1. Professional, technical, and kindred workers
  2. Business managers, officials, and proprietors
    - a. Nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors
    - b. Farm owners and managers
- Middle:
  3. Clerical and sales workers
    - a. Clerical and kindred workers
    - b. Sales workers
  4. Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers
- Low:
  5. Operatives and kindred workers
  6. Unskilled, service, and domestic workers
    - a. Private household workers
    - b. Service workers, except private household
    - c. Farm laborers, unpaid family workers
    - d. Laborers, except farm and mine
  7. Unemployed



Age. The population may be divided into as many age groups as there are differences in age. Such a division was unnecessary, of course, as needs and wants do not change each year, nor each five years for many individuals. It was thus more valuable to classify people into three age groups which seemed to differ materially in the character of needs and wants:

1. Under 18
2. 18 through 49
3. 50 and over

Marital Status. Marital status was divided into the following classifications:

1. Married
2. Single
3. Widowed
4. Divorced

Education. Education was classified into the following categories:

1. Elementary school
2. High School
3. College

Sex. Sex was classified as either (1) male or (2) female.

Income. Income was broken down into the following ranges:

1. Low: Under \$4,999
2. Middle: \$5,000 - \$9,999
3. High: \$10,000 and over

The "Selector." This information was sought in the initial telephone coincidental survey to indicate who selected the program being watched at the time of the call.

The "Why." This information was sought in the initial telephone coincidental survey to indicate one of the following reasons for watching the program at the time of the call.

1. For entertainment
2. For relaxation
3. For information
4. As a time-filler
5. To get away from the problems of the day

#### Data-Gathering Procedures

All research of this type involves a series of choices among a number of opinions, each of which is along a continuum between positive and negative components. In deciding on some empirical procedure, one typically relinquishes one desirable feature in order to examine another. The researcher rarely has ideal options available to him. The present study was no exception.

This study attempted to discover what existing selected predispositions might actually be at work in regard to televised violence. Ideally, this study would be implemented with random samples of audiences drawn from different socio-economic and racial groups and from different geographic areas across the nation. However, apart from the constraints imposed by limited financial resources, and given the need for obtaining certain kinds of data, and, most importantly, the techniques to be used within the limitations of the research and resources,

the present study was limited to one selected community.

### Sampling

The required information was secured from a sample of the population of Stillwater, Oklahoma, and was chosen on a systematic random basis in order to assure a representative sample of all of the homes in the community. According to accepted standards of statistical sampling, every effort was made to control the choice of items so that every subject in the universe had a known probability of being included in the sample.

A valid technique for obtaining a random sample is to employ a table of random numbers. This procedure has been used for many years and, from experience, has proved satisfactory both from problematical and practical points of view. Exhaustive studies have shown that a carefully selected cross section of subjects can reasonably reflect the actions of the whole population. To get any substantially increased accuracy, the sample size would have to be increased, and this would increase costs proportionately. And the increased sample size would not produce significantly different findings. As an example, the Nielsen company, one of the big national audience measurement services, is well on its way to wiring 1,200 sample homes with an electronic data recording unit to estimate with a fair degree of accuracy what the country's 65,000,000 television households are watching.<sup>4</sup>

### Selecting Respondents

1. The entire city of Stillwater is covered by the local telephone exchange. Of a total of 21,750 telephone lines, 15,390 lines were for

residents and 6,360 were business lines.<sup>5</sup>

2. The sample of 750 was drawn from the Stillwater telephone directory on a random selection basis, using a list of random numbers. This was because the research plan called for initial contact by telephone to determine actual viewing behavior and for audience composition data on violent and nonviolent programs.

3. Since the sample was to be drawn on a probability basis, the assumption was that all pertinent population characteristics were proportionately represented.

4. The respondents were husbands, wives, or other heads of households, or other members except minors, who might have communication or reading difficulty.

5. Follow-up mail questionnaires were used.

6. The subjects were contacted again on the telephone for a follow-up reminder.

#### Method of Treatment

Operationally, field research in mass communication generally takes one of the following forms: direct observation of behavior; the interview; the self-administered questionnaire; or some combination of the foregoing procedures. The first of these procedures is the least frequently used, and the second is the one most frequently encountered in mass media research. Observation may be "participant" or "non-participant," "controlled" or "uncontrolled." The self-questionnaire may be filled out in a group situation (such as a classroom) or may be left with the respondent to be picked up later. Again, it may travel one or both ways by mail.<sup>6</sup>

As noted, the mail questionnaire method was used to gather demographic details and for personality data. The viewing behavior measurement through the telephone coincidental method was used for audience size and composition of programs and to determine activity coincident

with the receipt of a telephone call.

Thus, the telephone survey technique suggested three merits: (1) as a method to increase the return rate of mail questionnaire through initial contact before mailing of the questionnaire; (2) to determine audience composition; and (3) to compare how viewers responded on the questionnaire with behavior reported by telephone.

The telephone methodology had one principal limitation: only people with listed telephones were included in the sample. The reports would inevitably leave certain gaps of unmeasured audience. However, telephone data indicated that at least 95 percent of the total dwelling units in Stillwater were connected by telephones.

Furthermore, some limitations of the mail questionnaire should be taken into account:

1. People who respond often differ from non-respondents in certain characteristics, e.g., socio-economic status, education, sex, and so forth. In general, the more opinionated or interested will reply; the uninterested and apathetic will not.

2. There is no sure way to control the sequence of stimuli. Frequently, respondents will skip around. Incomplete items and item omissions will occur.

3. The questionnaire may be filled out by someone other than the intended respondent. Married individuals may assign the task to their spouses, businessmen to their secretaries, the poorly educated to their high-school-age children.<sup>7</sup>

Self-report inventories as instruments for studying personality are limited by the individual's ability to read the questions with understanding, self-insight, and self-understanding and by his willingness to

reveal himself frankly.<sup>8</sup> But the individual's report about himself also has the advantage of providing an "inside" view not influenced by the physical presence of an interviewer.

Thus, in spite of many misuses, so long as these methods of the telephone survey and the mailed-self-administered questionnaire are well employed, they frequently can be rewarding.

For a higher rate of return on the questionnaires, it was felt that using the name of the Oklahoma State University Bureau of Media Research and Services would add some degree of authenticity to the request for assistance. The envelopes and the stationery with this name on them would add further to its credibility as a legitimate study and not some attempt to sell the respondent a product. A series of follow-up telephone calls was undertaken, both to thank the subjects for their participation and to remind them, if they had not completed the questionnaire, that it was important that they do so.

#### Analysis

The research questions guiding this study placed great emphasis on the role of personality factors in determining the viewing of violence. In other words, it was thought that exposure to violent content on television would be related to personality traits.

The principal personality measures employed in the study were Aggression Anxiety, Overt Hostility, Neurotic Under Control, Covert Hostility, and Conflict Over Hostility. The distributions for each of these personality measures, administered through the questionnaire, were divided at the median, and subjects were assigned to high or low groups for each measure. The median splits were based on the total sample.

This was to see whether exposure toward violent and nonviolent television materials was possibly controlled by the degree of possessed personality traits. An assumption was that differences in the personality traits would result in exposure to different television programs relative to violence. One-dimensional analysis of variance was used to test the significance of relationships between preference for televised violence and personality traits.

Such attributes as sex, age, education, and marital status were used in categorical variables. Correlation of personality trait variables and program preference was shown. Further, complex chi square and contingency coefficients were run to see if any covariance existed between violence preference and demographic variables. The details follow.

#### Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to discover the existence of any relationships between:

1. Program preference versus Overall personality traits (OA)
2. Nonviolence preference versus Overall personality traits
3. Violence preference versus Overall personality traits
4. Nonviolence preference versus Aggression Anxiety (AA)
5. Nonviolence preference versus Neurotic Under Control (NU)
6. Nonviolence preference versus Overt Hostility (OH)
7. Nonviolence preference versus Covert Hostility (CH)
8. Nonviolence preference versus Conflict Over Hostility (CO)
9. Violence preference versus Aggression Anxiety
10. Violence preference versus Neurotic Under Control

11. Violence preference versus Overt Hostility
12. Violence preference versus Covert Hostility
13. Violence preference versus Conflict Over Hostility

Correlation coefficients were computed between each two traits:

14. Aggression Anxiety versus Neurotic Under Control
15. Aggression Anxiety versus Overt Hostility
16. Aggression Anxiety versus Covert Hostility
17. Aggression Anxiety versus Conflict Over Hostility
18. Neurotic Under Control versus Overt Hostility
19. Neurotic Under Control versus Covert Hostility
20. Neurotic Under Control versus Conflict Over Hostility
21. Overt Hostility versus Covert Hostility
22. Overt Hostility versus Conflict Over Hostility
23. Covert Hostility versus Conflict Over Hostility

#### McQuitty's Elementary Linkage and Factor Analysis

Factor analysis, an agreement index, is a method of giving the most for the least effort. It begins with a correlation matrix. From this matrix, clusters of variables which have statistical commonality are sought.

1. Correlation matrix: Intercorrelations of 332 persons, which require correlation coefficients between each pair of 332 persons.
2. Find clusters and prototypes through reciprocal pair of each type.
3. McQuitty's elementary factor analysis: An extension of linkage analysis.
4. Put these persons of each type into a symmetric matrix.
5. Find the representative of each type (characteristics of different demographic backgrounds).



### Complex Chi Square and Contingency Coefficient

Complex chi square and contingency coefficient were to determine the significance of relationship and the degree of relationship, so as to give a rough estimate of correlation between:

1. Violence preference versus Sex
2. Violence preference versus Education
3. Violence preference versus Marital Status
4. Violence preference versus Income
5. Violence preference versus Occupation
6. Violence preference versus Age

The preference scores for violence were continuous data. Therefore, they were categorized into High and Low, splitting them above and below the mean.

### One-Dimensional Factorial Analysis of Variance

#### Between Violence Preference and Personality

##### Traits

Subjects were first divided into High and Low, splitting them above and below the mean score of each personality trait. The same subjects were again divided into High and Low, above and below the mean score on nonviolence preference scores. Then, analyses of variance were run with their preference scores for violent features.

1. Program preference
  - a-1. High on nonviolence scores
  - a-2. Low on nonviolence scores
2. Aggression Anxiety (AA)
  - a-1. High on Aggression Anxiety
  - a-2. Low on Aggression Anxiety

3. Program preference
  - a-1. High on nonviolence scores
  - a-2. Low on nonviolence scores
4. Neurotic Under Control (NU)
  - a-1. High on Neurotic Under Control
  - a-2. Low on Neurotic Under Control
5. Program preference
  - a-1. High on nonviolence scores
  - a-2. Low on nonviolence scores
6. Overt Hostility (OH)
  - a-1. High on Overt Hostility
  - a-2. Low on Overt Hostility
7. Program preference
  - a-1. High on nonviolence scores
  - a-2. Low on nonviolence scores
8. Covert Hostility (CH)
  - a-1. High on Covert Hostility
  - a-2. Low on Covert Hostility
9. Program preference
  - a-1. High on nonviolence scores
  - a-2. Low on nonviolence scores
10. Conflict Over Hostility (CO)
  - a-1. High on Conflict Over Hostility
  - a-2. Low on Conflict Over Hostility

#### Standard Error of Mean

Standard error of mean was used to determine the estimate of true mean range for the Stillwater population responding to the questionnaire:

1. Mean of violent program preference
2. Mean of nonviolent program preference

#### Standard Error of Percentage

Standard error of percentage was used to determine the estimate of true percentage range among those in the Stillwater population:

1. Viewers of nonviolent programs and viewers of violent programs
2. Selector distribution

#### FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup>Seymour Feshbach and Robert D. Singer, TV and Aggression (San Francisco, 1971), p. 133.

<sup>2</sup>C. H. Sandage, Advertising: Theory and Practice, 3rd ed. (New York, 1948), p. 156.

<sup>3</sup>Delbert C. Miller, Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement (New York, 1970), p. 170.

<sup>4</sup>Richard D. Doan, "And Now From Nielsen, It's Dial-A-Rating," TV Guide (June 16, 1973), p. 10.

<sup>5</sup>Stillwater Chamber of Commerce, Facts About Stillwater, Oklahoma (Stillwater, 1973), p. 2.

<sup>6</sup>Ralph O. Nafziger and David M. White, eds., Introduction to Mass Communication Research (Baton Rouge, 1963), p. 80.

<sup>7</sup>Nafziger and White, p. 112.

<sup>8</sup>Robert L. Thorndike and Elizabeth Hagen, Measurement and Evaluation in Psychology and Education, 3rd ed. (New York, 1969), p. 415.

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS

This study was conducted in Stillwater, Oklahoma. The total population was 31,126 in 1970.<sup>1</sup> No data were available that would reflect the current population. About 60 percent of the city's population was either students, faculty, administrators, or those otherwise employed by Oklahoma State University.

Stillwater audiences were served by eight television channels affiliated with three national commercial television networks plus PBS receivable both from Tulsa and Oklahoma City. The city also was served by cable television. Thus, viewers had a wide choice of television fare that enabled them to exercise selective exposure.

#### Telephone Survey Procedure

A systematic random sample of 750 subjects was selected from the Stillwater telephone directory. As of March, 1973, Southwestern Bell logged about 21,750 telephones in Stillwater, including 15,390 resident phones. Total dwelling units were about 10,096, according to city figures.<sup>2</sup> These two figures indicated that well above 95 percent of the total home units in Stillwater had telephones. Consequently, the validity of using the local telephone directory seemed adequate.

The survey was conducted on three consecutive Thursday evenings from 7:00 to 10:00 p.m. in April, 1973. The Thursday evening selection

was made for two reasons: (1) a previous audience study in Stillwater indicated that Thursday evening drew the largest number of viewers<sup>3</sup> and (2) during each hour segment, television programs consisted of both violent and nonviolent programs which gave the audience an opportunity of program selection among types crucial to this study.

Prime time programs on Thursday evening were highly consistent throughout the survey period. Thus, the audiences for different evenings were given almost the same choice of programs. The television program schedule for those Thursday evenings is presented in Appendix E.

The survey sought information on (1) preferences either for violent or nonviolent programs, (2) the selector of the program viewed at the time of telephone call, (3) the reason for viewing, and (4) aspects of audience composition.

Follow-up calls were made to remind participants of the importance of completing follow-up mail questionnaires.

#### Findings From Telephone Survey

Calls were made by a group of Oklahoma State University Radio-TV-Film majors who were trained for this particular study. Detailed procedures of the survey are in Appendixes H and I.

Of 750 telephone calls, 386 were usable; 293 were unanswered; and 71 were classified as non-usable.

Of 386 usable responses, 361, or 93.5 percent, had television. This proportion was close to the national ownership percentage. According to the American Research Bureau estimate in September, 1970, television homes totaled 60,273,220 and the percentage of households with television was 95 percent.<sup>4</sup>

Of 361 television owners, 229, or 63.4 percent, were viewing television and 129, or 36.6 percent, were not viewing at the time of the calls. This means there was a 95 percent probability that between 59.4 and 67.4 percent of all Stillwater residents were viewing television at the times of the calls.

Of 229 with television sets on, 126, or 55 percent, were tuned to nonviolent programs and 103, or 45 percent, were turned to violent programs. This means there was a 95 percent probability that between 49 and 61 percent of the sets in operation were tuned to nonviolent programs.

Of the 361 responding television homes, 34.9 percent were viewing nonviolent programs, while 28.5 percent were viewing violent programs.

In essence, a slightly higher percentage of audience actually viewed nonviolent programs, as shown in Table I.

#### Household Selectors

Among the selectors of various programs, the husband was the most frequent selector, both for nonviolence and violence, followed by the wife for nonviolent features and by "compromised selection" for violent features, as shown in Table II.

No large difference was indicated in the selector. For both nonviolent and violent programs, the husband played a large part in deciding which fare would be tuned in. However, "compromise" accounted for about one-third of the total choices in the selection of violent programs, as shown in Table II.

Thus, findings contrast somewhat with those of Don C. Smith's 1955 study in Tuscaloosa, Alabama, in which selection of evening programs was

"housewives, about 45 percent; general agreement, about 23 percent; husbands, about 14 percent; children, about 10 percent; and carryover, about 7 percent."<sup>2</sup>

TABLE I  
TELEVISION OWNERSHIP AND VIEWING

Category	Number	Percent of Viewers	Percent of Respondents	Percent of Total Sample
Owners viewing nonviolent programs	126	55.0	34.9	16.8
Owners viewing violent programs	103	45.0	28.5	13.7
Total owners viewing	229		63.4	
Total owners not viewing	132*		36.6	
Total TV owners	361		93.5	
Total non-owners	25		6.5	
Total valid respondents	386			51.6
Total not answering	293			39.0
Total unusable**	71			9.4
Total population	750			100.0

\*Included three broken sets.

\*\*Included 35 disconnected lines.

TABLE II  
SELECTOR OF PROGRAMS

Type of Program	Husband		Wife		Children		Compromise		Carryover		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Nonviolence	46	36.5	37	29.3	8	6.3	31	24.6	5	3.9	126	100.0
Violence	39	38.1	25	24.5	4	3.9	31	30.3	3	2.9	103	100.0
Total	85	37.2	62	27.1	12	5.2	62	27.1	8	3.5	229	



### Reasons for Viewing

Why do people prefer a certain type of program? "Entertainment" was the overriding reason for viewing both nonviolent and violent programs. However, a higher proportion of violence program viewers indicated that entertainment was their reason for viewing. A higher proportion of violence program viewers also indicated "time-filler" as their reason for viewing. Only a small fraction of viewers gave "escape" as their reason for viewing programs in either category, as seen in Table III.

Satisfactions clearly predominate, and they are the same as in many other previous studies: watching television is entertaining, relaxing, satisfying, and interesting. Gary A. Steiner's national survey also indicated that 51 percent of the sample felt that watching television programs made them feel entertained and amused.<sup>3</sup>

In 1960, Steiner reported upon public attitudes about television in The People Look at Television. The book was the most comprehensive examination of what Americans thought of the new medium at that time. Building upon Steiner, Robert T. Bower, Director of the Bureau of Social Science Research in Washington, D.C., conducted a follow-up study in 1970 and published Television and the Public. One of the most significant findings was the way in which the total nature of attitudes toward television had changed as the world had changed.

In 1960, it was quite clear in the minds of the people Steiner interviewed that television was predominantly an entertainment medium. But in 1970, people were no longer thinking of it as merely something that produces entertainment for them. Much more, they were thinking of it as something that reflects what is going on in the world outside: in space, in Vietnam, in campus unrest, in politics.

TABLE III  
REASONS FOR VIEWING

Type of Program	Entertainment		Relaxing		Informational		Time-Filler		Escape		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Nonviolence	82	65.0	25	19.8	15	11.9	11	8.7	9	7.1	142	100.0
Violence	72	70.5	9	8.8	6	5.8	11	10.7	4	3.9	102	100.0
Total	154	67.5	34	14.9	21	9.2	22	9.6	13	5.7	244	

Note: Some respondents indicated more than one reason.

If it was an escape medium, as it was said to be in 1960, then it was an escape into fantasy. If it's an escape medium now, it's an escape from the living room into that terrible world outside: assassinations, wars, riots in the cities, civil unrest. That theme pervades the answers we got to our questions in 1970.<sup>4</sup>

### Comparison of Viewers

Comparison of audience composition between nonviolent and violent programs showed that the ratio of male and female viewers was similar in both categories. A very low percentage of the total viewers of violence was comprised of children, as shown in Table IV. This lower percentage may reflect the widespread reluctance of American parents to having their children exposed to television violence.

TABLE IV  
COMPOSITION OF VIOLENCE AND NONVIOLENCE AUDIENCE

Type of Program	Type of Viewer							
	Men		Women		Children		Total	
	No.	Per- cent	No.	Per- cent	No.	Per- cent	No.	Per- Cent
Nonviolence	124	48.2	95	36.9	38	14.7	257	100.0
Violence	<u>97</u>	50.7	<u>82</u>	42.9	<u>12</u>	6.2	<u>191</u>	100.0
Total	221		177		50		448	

Television's far-reaching and profound effects on the nation's children and youth have been hypothesized and deplored in the public forum, especially on the matter of television violence. An article in a leading women's magazine exemplified the anxieties: "Television is an instrument of intense pressure that convinces the immature mind that violence is an accepted way of life. It is a subtle form of American brainwashing."<sup>5</sup>

Parents recognize a number of ingredients that need filtering before television can be cleared for general consumption by children. The chief irritant clearly is violence. And concern seems to center on the fear of imitation, rather than on moral or psychological considerations.<sup>6</sup> "In 1960, parents thought that Westerns were very bad for children. In 1970, the major objections were toward shows with adult themes."<sup>7</sup>

On the other hand, 65 percent of Steiner's sample felt that, on balance, children were better off with television than without it. In 1970, an even higher percentage felt that way. And the better educated the viewer, the more likely he was to hold that view. The lesser-educated viewer was a bit more skeptical about television for children than the better-educated parent.<sup>8</sup>

#### Findings From Mail Questionnaire

At the end of each call in the coincidental telephone survey, the interviewers asked the respondents if they would complete a follow-up mail questionnaire. Only 15 refusals were received out of a total of 386 valid calls; that is, 3.8 percent refused to cooperate in the follow-up study. The majority of those who refused seemed to be somewhat

reluctant to show their opinions in written form. Consequently, the follow-up questionnaires were sent out to those 664 subjects who either said they would cooperate or who were not reached through telephone calls. It was assumed, based on the low rate of refusals among the contacted subjects, that the majority of No-Answer subjects would cooperate.

Due to previous telephone survey contacts and a series of follow-up telephone calls, plus inclusion of the self-addressed, stamped envelopes, the return rate of completed questionnaires was relatively high. Among the 664 questionnaires mailed out, 358 were returned. However, 26 unusable questionnaires were discarded, leaving 332 for analysis. That is, 50 percent of the questionnaires originally sent out, or 44 percent of the total 750 subjects, made valid responses which were used in the analysis.

#### Program Preference

A preference for violence was indicated by 77 percent of the respondents, while only 23 percent preferred nonviolence. Put another way, there was a 95 percent probability that between 71 percent and 83 percent of the Stillwater viewers preferred violence to nonviolence.

The result appeared to be somewhat atypical. Earlier studies repeatedly indicated that people normally express their preference for nonviolent programs, even though their actual viewing more likely turned to violent program features. But the obtained result was obviously contrary to the expected tendency.

The indicated preference of each of the respondents was compared with actual viewing behavior. The comparison is shown in Table V.

TABLE V  
COMPARISON BETWEEN ACTUAL VIEWING AND INDICATED  
PREFERENCES AMONG THE TOTAL SAMPLE

Programs	Actual Viewing		Indicated Preference	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Nonviolent	126	55.0	78	23.0
Violent	<u>103</u>	<u>45.0</u>	<u>254</u>	<u>77.0</u>
Total	229	100.0	332	100.0

As shown in Table V, respondents tended to indicate their higher preference for violence, though actually more people appeared to have viewed nonviolent features. Neil Hickey, in "How America Sees Television," touched on this absence of positive relationship between what people said they watched and what they actually watched.

There was very, very little relationship between how people felt about television and what they watched when they got before the set. The educated people, who are much more critical about the entertainment shows, watch just about as much entertainment programming as the less-educated people. In one concrete instance, Marcus Welby was opposite 60 Minutes, and the people who said they wanted more information from television viewed Marcus Welby in just about the same numbers as those who said that they wanted more entertainment programming on television.<sup>9</sup>

#### Degree of Liking

The mean score for the liking of nonviolent programs was 7.1, while the same for the liking of violent programs was 13.3, out of a

35 maximum total for each category. Taking error into account, the mean liking of nonviolent programs by Stillwater viewers probably lay between 11.3 and 15.3 and for violent programs, between 11.26 and 14.24, at the 95 percent confidence level.

The average degree of liking on a five-point scale for each non-violent program was 2.17, while for violent programs it was 4.21. Thus, the degree of liking for violent programs was approximately twice as great as that for nonviolent programs.

In summary, a little more than two-thirds of the sample population indicated their preference for violent programs to nonviolent features. In degree of liking, respondents showed twice as much liking for violent programs than for nonviolent features.

#### Program Preference and Demographics

Sex. In Table VI, it was noted that a larger percentage of female respondents indicated their preference for nonviolent programs, while two-thirds of the persons who preferred violent features were male respondents.

Age. As shown in Table VI, the largest percentage of respondents preferring both nonviolent and violent program features was from the 18-49 age group. This probably was just a reflection of the fact that the subjects selected for this study had been somewhat over-represented by the 18-49 age group. This over-representation of the same group could have resulted from the high proportion of college population in the community of Stillwater.

Marital Status. No difference among married, single, widowed, and divorced subjects was indicated in their program preference (Table VI).

TABLE VI  
 DEMOGRAPHIC BREAKDOWN ACCORDING TO PROGRAM  
 PREFERENCE

Demographic Breakdown	Program Preference					
	Nonviolence		Violence		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
<b>Sex</b>						
Male	22	28.2	168	66.1	190	57.2
Female	56	71.8	86	33.9	142	42.8
<b>Age</b>						
Under 18	2	2.5	2	0.7	4	1.0
18-49	58	74.5	224	88.3	282	85.0
50 and Over	18	23.0	28	11.0	46	14.0
<b>Marital Status</b>						
Married	28	35.8	108	42.5	136	41.0
Single	44	56.7	132	51.9	176	55.0
Widowed	2	2.5	6	2.6	8	2.4
Divorced	4	5.0	8	3.0	12	3.6
<b>Education</b>						
Elementary Education	4	5.0	10	3.9	14	15.6
High School Education	20	25.6	32	12.5	52	80.1
College Education	54	69.4	212	83.6	266	13.3
<b>Income</b>						
Low (Under \$4,999)	14	17.9	30	11.8	44	13.2
Middle (\$5,000-\$9,999)	14	17.9	68	26.7	82	24.6
High (\$10,000 +)	50	64.2	156	61.5	206	62.2
<b>Occupation</b>						
High	50	64.2	154	60.6	204	61.4
Middle	18	23.0	62	24.4	80	24.6
Low	10	12.8	38	15.0	48	14.6

Note: See Appendix B for detailed breakdown of occupation.



Education. Education level appeared not to make much difference in program preference, though a high percentage of college-educated subjects indicated their preference for violent content rather than for nonviolent.

Income. While high-income persons were divided evenly between non-violent and violent program preferences, a slightly higher percentage of middle-income persons preferred violence.

Occupation. It appeared that occupational level did not make any significant difference in preference for either televised violence or nonviolence, as shown in Table VI.

#### Differential Preferences of Respondent Types

Further, a series of multi-group chi square tests determined the significance of relationships between preference for violence and demographic variables.

Did males and females differ in their preference for violent programs on television? The preference scores were continuous data. Therefore, the scores were dichotomized into High and Low preference above and below the mean. Results are shown in Table VII.

Were the differences among the cells, as shown in Table VII, greater than would be expected by chance? The observed chi square was significant at the .10 level, which means that the differential preference of males and females for violence was great enough to have occurred by chance less than 10 percent of the time. Therefore, sex probably did make a slight difference in the degree of preference for violent programs. No difference was found in number of males, but more

females had low than high preference for violence.

TABLE VII  
NUMBER OF MALES AND FEMALES WHO EXPRESS HIGH AND LOW  
PREFERENCE FOR VIOLENT FEATURES

Preference for Violence	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Low	92	48.4	88	62.0	180	54.2
High	98	51.6	54	38.0	152	45.8
Total	190	100.0	142	100.0	332	100.0

Note: Chi Square = 3.0058  
df = 1  
p < .10  
C = 0.1334

What about degree of relation between sex and preference for violence? The coefficient of contingency was 0.1334, which gave a rough estimate of the correlation between sex and violence preference. It was almost negligible, showing that the relationship between sex and program preference was far from conclusive, yet a factor to be considered.

The relationship between age and preference for violence turned out to be negligible. The observed chi square of 2.5363 could occur by chance more than 10 times in 100. Thus, age probably did not make any

difference in the degree of preference for violent programs. The coefficient of contingency was not significant, either. In essence, age did not seem to covary with preference for televised violence.

The relationship between marital status and preference for violence was also negligible. The observed chi square of 2.5719 could occur by chance more than ten times in 100. Thus, it appeared that marital status did not covary with preference for violence, though a relatively lower absolute number of married persons had high preference for violence.

Another negligible relationship was between education and preference for violence. The observed chi square of 2.8966 could occur by chance more than ten times in 100. Thus, education did not appear to covary with preference for televised violence, though a seemingly low percentage of high school graduates tended to indicate high preference for televised violence.

The relationship between income and preference also fell within chance limits. It appeared that income level did not covary with violent program preference.

What about the relationship between occupation and preference for violence? It also was negligible. Occupation did not covary with preference for violence on television, though slightly more clerical and sales workers indicated low preference for violence than those in other occupations.

In summary, it appeared that only sex tended to covary slightly with program preference for violence. Females tended to prefer non-violence. The other attributes--such as age, marital status, educational level, and socio-economic status--did not appear to relate to preference for violence on television.

### Personality Traits and Demographics

This section seeks to define any possible relationships between personality traits and demographics with the analysis of standard error of percentage.

As may be seen in Table VIII, standard errors of percentage were indicated only for those columns which showed more than 15 percent column difference between High and Low traits. The underlined figures were higher than 10 percent difference in their favor between High and Low columns at the 68 percent confidence level. An example was taken for better clarification: At the 68 percent confidence level, the error range of high-level occupation subjects scoring high on overall traits would be between 33.4 and 43.0 and for scoring low between 57.0 and 56.6. So the highest possible percent of high scores in the population is estimated at 43, while the lowest percentage of low scores is 57, a difference of 14 percent. Thus, there is a 68 percent probability that the low scores do, indeed, outnumber the high scores on personality traits.

Consequently, only the underlined columns were considered to show some significant difference for the interpretation of present findings. The same basis was used for the analysis of other personality traits and demographic variables.

### Overall Traits and Demographics

As shown in Table VIII, a high proportion of subjects older than 50 and persons with high-level occupations appeared to score low on overall traits. Among those with middle-level occupations, a high proportion of subjects appeared to score high on overall traits. Among high-school-

Table VIII  
OVERALL PERSONALITY TRAITS AND DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographic Breakdown	Percentage of Overall Traits		Standard Error
	High	Low	
<b>Sex</b>			
Male	44.2	55.8	
Female	53.5	46.5	
<b>Age</b>			
Under 18	100.0	0.0	
18 to 49	49.6	50.4	
50 and Over	34.7	65.3	9.9
<b>Marital Status</b>			
Married	41.1	58.9	
Single	53.4	46.6	
Widowed	50.0	50.0	
Divorced	50.0	50.0	
<b>Education</b>			
Elementary Education	100.0	0.0	
High School Education	65.3	44.7	10.5
College Education	42.1	57.9	
<b>Income</b>			
Low (Under \$4,999)	54.5	45.5	
Middle (\$5,000-\$9,999)	43.9	56.1	
High (\$10,000 +)	48.5	51.5	
<b>Occupation</b>			
High	38.2	<u>61.8</u>	4.8
Middle	<u>70.0</u>	30.0	7.2
Low	54.1	45.9	

Note: See Appendix B for detailed breakdown of occupation.

educated persons, a high percentage tended to score high on overall traits, while among college-educated persons, a high percentage tended to score low on overall traits.

In essence, occupation did appear to be related or associated with overall personality traits. High school and college education and older age (50-plus years) appeared to be somewhat related to overall personality traits, but to a lesser extent and with less statistical confidence. Sex, marital status, and income factors did not appear to make any significant difference in possessed degree of overall personality traits.

#### Aggression Anxiety and Demographics

A high percentage of males and persons with college education and middle-income status tended to show low on Aggression Anxiety. Married subjects also tended to show low Aggression Anxiety. A high percentage of females and high-school-educated subjects tended to show high Aggression Anxiety, as shown in Table IX.

Thus, it appeared that Aggression Anxiety was closely related to sex, and to college education, middle-income status, high-level occupation, and to marriage to a slightly lesser degree, and high school education to a still lesser extent. Age did not appear to be related to Aggression Anxiety.

Thus, a tendency toward high Aggression Anxiety was likely to be found among high-school-educated females coming from families of middle socio-economic class, while a low Aggression Anxiety tendency was more likely to be found among college-educated, married males who held high-level occupations earning higher than middle income.

TABLE IX  
AGGRESSION ANXIETY AND DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographic Breakdown	Percentage of Aggression Anxiety		Standard Error
	High	Low	
Sex			
Male	27.3	<u>72.7</u>	4.5
Female	<u>66.1</u>	33.9	5.6
Age			
Under 18	50.0	50.0	
18 to 49	42.5	57.5	
50 and Over	52.1	47.9	
Marital Status			
Married	36.7	<u>63.3</u>	5.8
Single	45.4	<u>54.6</u>	
Widowed	75.0	25.0	21.6
Divorced	83.3	16.7	15.2
Education			
Elementary Education	85.7	14.3	13.2
High School Education	<u>57.6</u>	42.4	2.5
College Education	39.0	<u>61.0</u>	4.2
Income			
Low (Under \$4,999)	50.0	50.0	
Middle (\$5,000-\$9,999)	29.2	<u>70.8</u>	7.1
High (\$10,000 +)	48.5	<u>51.5</u>	
Occupation			
High	35.2	<u>64.8</u>	4.7
Middle	<u>62.5</u>	<u>37.5</u>	7.6
Low	<u>50.0</u>	50.0	

Note: See Appendix B for detailed breakdown of occupation.

### Neurotic Under Control and Demographics

As shown in Table X, a high percentage of people older than 50 and married subjects with high-level occupations appeared to show low on Neurotic Under Control measures. Low-income subjects were more likely to show Neurotic Under Control scores.

On the basis of data reported, middle- and high-level occupations and older age appeared to be related significantly to Neurotic Under Control, while marriage and low income were somewhat related, but to a lesser extent.

In essence, a low Neurotic Under Control tendency was more likely to be found among people older than 50 and people with high-level occupations, while high Neurotic Under Control was likely to be shown by people with middle-level occupations. An upward social mobility or moving up to a higher socio-economic status may contribute to a tendency toward low Neurotic Under Control classification.

### Overt Hostility and Demographics

As shown in Table XI, male subjects appeared most often to show high Overt Hostility, while more female subjects appeared to show low Overt Hostility. People over 50 years of age and people with high income and high-level occupations also appeared to show low Overt Hostility.

Thus, a male is more likely to show high Overt Hostility, while a female is more likely to show low Overt Hostility. Older age and high income also appeared to be related to low Overt Hostility.



TABLE X  
NEUROTIC UNDER CONTROL AND DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographic Breakdown	Percentage of Neurotic Under Control		Standard Error
	High	Low	
Sex			
Male	48.4	51.6	
Female	46.4	53.6	
Age			
Under 18	50.0	50.0	
18 to 49	50.4	49.6	
50 and Over	30.4	<u>69.6</u>	9.5
Marital Status			
Married	39.7	60.3	5.9
Single	55.6	44.4	
Widowed	25.0	75.0	21.6
Divorced	33.3	66.7	19.2
Education			
Elementary Education	71.4	28.6	17.0
High School Education	53.8	46.2	
College Education	45.1	54.9	
Income			
Low (Under \$4,999)	59.0	41.0	10.4
Middle (\$5,000-\$9,999)	41.4	58.6	
High (\$10,000 +)	47.5	52.5	
Occupation			
High	41.1	<u>58.9</u>	2.7
Middle	<u>60.0</u>	40.0	5.0
Low	54.1	45.9	

Note: See Appendix B for detailed breakdown of occupation.

TABLE XI  
OVERT HOSTILITY AND DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographic Breakdown	Percentage of Overt Hostility		Standard Error
	High	Low	
Sex			
Male	<u>65.7</u>	34.3	5.2
Female	30.9	<u>69.1</u>	5.4
Age			
Under 18	100.0	0.0	
18 to 49	48.1	51.9	
50 and Over	21.7	<u>78.3</u>	8.5
Marital Status			
Married	45.5	54.5	
Single	46.5	53.5	
Widowed	25.0	75.0	21.6
Divorced	33.3	66.7	19.2
Education			
Elementary Education	42.8	57.2	
High School Education	57.6	42.4	
College Education	42.8	57.2	8.6
Income			
Low (Under \$4,999)	50.0	50.0	
Middle (\$5,000-\$9,999)	56.0	44.0	
High (\$10,000 +)	39.8	<u>60.2</u>	4.8
Occupation			
High	42.1	57.9	4.8
Middle	45.0	55.0	
Low	58.3	41.9	

Note: See Appendix B for detailed breakdown of occupation.

### Covert Hostility and Demographics

As shown in Table XII, married subjects with college education and high-level occupations tended to show low Covert Hostility.

The male category probably was related to a low Covert Hostility tendency, but at too low a level of significance for making any generalization. Other variables--older than 50, divorced, low income, and middle income--could be related to a low Covert Hostility tendency, but due to large standard errors, this seemingly evident relationship might be limited to this sampled group.

Summing up, low Covert Hostility was more likely to be found among college-educated, married subjects holding high-level occupations. Based upon obtained results, no generalization could be made as to the relationship between high Covert Hostility and demographics.

### Conflict Over Hostility and Demographics

As shown in Table XIII, high-school-educated subjects were most likely to show high Conflict Over Hostility. Low Conflict Over Hostility was found more among males and college-educated married subjects with high-level occupations. The over-50 age group probably was related to a low Conflict Over Hostility tendency. To a lesser degree, elementary-school education and low income seemed to be related to high Conflict Over Hostility.

Thus, only high-school education appeared to be related to high Conflict Over Hostility, while low Conflict Over Hostility was more likely in married males with college education, coming from families of middle socio-economic class. In other words, education appeared to be related to the Conflict Over Hostility trait; higher levels of education

TABLE XII  
COVERT HOSTILITY AND DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographic Breakdown	Percentage of Covert Hostility		Standard Error
	High	Low	
Sex			
Male	41.0	59.0	5.0
Female	46.4	53.6	11.8
Age			
Under 18	100.0	0.0	
18 to 49	46.0	54.0	
50 and Over	21.7	78.3	20.8
Marital Status			
Married	32.3	<u>67.7</u>	5.6
Single	53.4	<u>46.6</u>	
Widowed	25.0	75.0	
Divorced	33.3	66.7	19.2
Education			
Elementary Education	100.0	0.0	
High School Education	46.1	53.9	
College Education	39.8	<u>60.2</u>	4.2
Income			
Low (Under \$4,999)	31.8	68.2	21.3
Middle (\$5,000-\$9,999)	39.0	61.0	15.6
High (\$10,000 +)	47.5	52.5	
Occupation			
High	37.2	<u>62.8</u>	4.7
Middle	55.0	45.0	
Low	50.0	50.0	

Note: See Appendix B for detailed breakdown of occupation.

TABLE XIII  
 CONFLICT OVER HOSTILITY AND DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographic Background	Percentage of Conflict Over Hostility		Standard Error
	High	Low	
Sex			
Male	35.0	<u>65.0</u>	10.2
Female	53.0	47.0	
Age			
Under 18	100.0	0.0	20.8
18 to 49	43.9	56.1	
50 and Over	34.7	65.3	
Marital Status			
Married	27.9	<u>72.1</u>	5.4
Single	54.5	45.5	
Widowed	50.0	50.0	
Divorced	50.0	50.0	
Education			
Elementary Education	71.4	28.6	37.7
High School Education	<u>65.3</u>	34.7	9.3
College Education	<u>37.5</u>	<u>62.5</u>	4.1
Income			
Low (Under \$4,999)	59.0	41.0	10.4
Middle (\$5,000-\$9,999)	31.7	<u>68.3</u>	7.2
High (\$10,000 +)	44.6	55.4	
Occupation			
High	37.2	<u>62.8</u>	4.7
Middle	55.0	45.0	
Low	50.0	50.0	

Note: See Appendix B for detailed breakdown of occupation.

and socio-economic status tended to result in low Conflict Over Hostility scores.

Summary of Standard Error of Percentage Analysis  
Between Personality Traits and Demographics

Summarization in Table XIV shows that overall personality traits appeared to be related to occupational level. Clerical and sales workers, craftsmen, and foremen tended to score high on the five personality traits combined, while professional personnel, technical workers, business managers, officials, and proprietors tended to score low on overall traits.

Aggression Anxiety appeared to be related to sex, education, and occupation. High Aggression Anxiety tended to be shown by females with high-school education and middle-level occupations, while low Aggression Anxiety accompanied the college-educated, married males working either as professional or technical managers, officials, or as farm owners.

The Covert Hostility trait did not appear to be related to any particular variables, as shown in Table XIV. But the low Covert Hostility tendency was more likely to be shown by subjects over 50 and those with a college education working as professional, technical or business managers, or farm owners.

Conflict Over Hostility appeared to be related to education. High Conflict Over Hostility was more likely to be shown by people with high-school education, while low Conflict Over Hostility tended to be shown by college-educated, married males with family backgrounds of high socio-economic status.

Neurotic Under Control appeared to be related to occupation. Those

TABLE XIV

SUMMARY OF STANDARD ERROR OF PERCENTAGE ANALYSIS BETWEEN  
PERSONALITY TRAITS AND DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographic Breakdown	Overall Personality Traits		Aggression Anxiety		Neurotic Under Control		Overt Hostility		Covert Hostility		Conflict Over Hostility		Total
	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	
Sex													
Male				X			X					X	3
Female			X					X					2
Age													
Under 18													
18 to 49													
50 and Over					X		X		X				3
Marital Status													
Married				X								X	2
Single													
Widowed													
Divorced													
Education													
Elementary Education													
High School Education			X								X		2
College Education				X					X			X	3
Income													
Low (Under \$4,999)													
Middle (\$5,000-\$9,999)												X	1
High (\$10,000 +)								X					1
Occupation													
High	X	X		X		X				X		X	5
Middle	X		X		X								3
Low													

Note: Cells marked "X" show higher than 10 percent difference in their favor between High and Low columns at the 68 percent confidence level. For a detailed breakdown of occupation, see Appendix B.

holding middle-level occupations tended to be high in Neurotic Under Control, while low Neurotic Under Control was more likely to be found among those subjects older than 50.

Overt Hostility appeared to be related to sex. Males tended to show high Overt Hostility, while females older than 50 tended to show low Overt Hostility. High income also appeared to be related to low Overt Hostility.

#### Relationship Between Personality Traits and Program Preferences

The relationship between program preferences and overall (OA) personality traits appeared to be almost negligible. Thus, the  $r$  of .1627 between total program preference and overall personality traits in the sample of 332 subjects would occur through random sample fluctuation more than 5 times in 100.

Negative but insignificant relationships were found between preference for nonviolence and Neurotic Under Control, preference for violence and Aggression Anxiety, and Aggression Anxiety and Overt Hostility.

Almost negligible relationships were shown between preference for nonviolence and Covert Hostility, preference for nonviolence and overall traits, preference for violence and Neurotic Under Control, preference for violence and Covert Hostility, preference for violence and Conflict Over Hostility, preference for violence and overall traits, Aggression Anxiety and Neurotic Under Control, and Overt Hostility and Conflict Over Hostility.

Definite but insignificant relationships were found between preference for nonviolence and Aggression Anxiety, preference for violence



and Overt Hostility, Neurotic Under Control and Conflict Over Hostility, and Overt Hostility and Covert Hostility.

Moderate but substantial relationships existed between Aggression Anxiety and Conflict Over Hostility ( $r = .4987$ ;  $t = 2.18$ ); Aggression Anxiety and overall traits ( $r = .5788$ ;  $t = 2.21$ ); Neurotic Under Control and Covert Hostility ( $r = .59$ ;  $t = 2.21$ ); Neurotic Under Control and overall traits ( $r = .698$ ;  $t = 2.14$ ); Covert Hostility and Conflict Over Hostility ( $r = .5545$ ;  $t = 2.21$ ); and Conflict Over Hostility and overall traits ( $r = .6827$ ;  $t = 2.15$ ). These relationships were all significant at the .05 level.

Thus, the substantial relationships between Aggression Anxiety and Conflict Over Hostility, Aggression Anxiety and overall traits, Neurotic Under Control and Covert Hostility, Neurotic Under Control and overall traits, and Covert Hostility and Conflict Over Hostility in the sample of 332 persons would occur through random sample fluctuations less than 5 times in 100. In other words, these relationships were greater than chance.

Overt Hostility and overall traits showed a substantial relationship ( $r = .392$ ;  $t = 1.58$ ) and Covert Hostility and overall traits showed a high, marked relationship ( $r = .882$ ;  $t = 1.58$ ), but both were statistically non-significant at the .05 level in the t-table.

In essence, none of these pairs showed a very dependable relationship. Neither preference for violent programs nor nonviolence preference scores showed an significant relationship with the personality traits studied. But some substantial relationships were found among some of the personality traits (Figure 1).

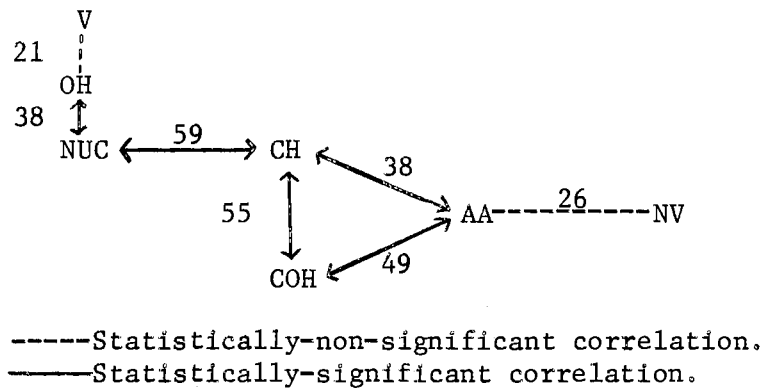


Figure 1. Linkage of Personality Traits

Overall traits were better identified with Covert Hostility, Neurotic Under Control, and Conflict Over Hostility in the order of degree of their positive relationships. Neurotic Under Control and Covert Hostility were most closely related among the five traits.

Apparently, violence preference was most closely related to Overt Hostility and to a lesser extent to Neurotic Under Control. Nonviolence preference was most closely related to Aggression Anxiety and, to a lesser extent, to Conflict Over Hostility and Covert Hostility Traits.

Negative relationships were found between nonviolence preference and violence preference, nonviolence preference and Neurotic Under Control, and nonviolence preference and Overt Hostility. Negative relationships also existed between violence preference and Aggression Anxiety and Aggression Anxiety and Overt Hostility; almost zero relationship was found between Conflict Over Hostility and Overt Hostility. A definite but small relationship existed between Conflict Over Hostility and Neurotic Under Control and Covert Hostility and Overt Hostility. (See Appendix J.)

### Personality Traits and Program Preference

As stated earlier, the author suggested that viewing preference is concomitantly related to personality traits. High Overt and Covert Hostile persons, as well as those high on the Neurotic Under Control trait, were thought more likely to prefer violent programs. The author did not speculate on preference trends as related to Aggression Anxiety or Conflict-Over-Hostility traits.

Each respondent to each of the five personality trait scales was classified High or Low on the trait according to whether he scored above or below the mean preference of all persons who completed the scale.

Table XV lists the mean preference for violent television programs of respondents scoring High and Low on each of five personality traits.

As suggested, High Overt Hostility and High Neurotic Under Control respondents were among the highest in preference for violence ( $M = 14.87$  and  $14.61$ , respectively). High Covert Hostility persons, however, were not among the high choosers of violence, as suggested.

While High Overt Hostility and Neurotic Under Control respondents ranked highest in preference for violence, their counterparts--Low Overt Hostility and Low Neurotic Under Control respondents--were least desirous of violence ( $M = 12.17$  and  $12.33$ , respectively).

Conversely, Low Aggression Anxiety persons indicated the third highest preference for violence ( $M = 14.56$ ), while High Aggression Anxiety persons ranked third from the bottom in desire for violent programs ( $M = 12.59$ ).

TABLE XV  
 MEAN PREFERENCE FOR VIOLENT TELEVISION PROGRAMS BY  
 HIGH AND LOW RESPONDENTS ON EACH OF FIVE  
 PERSONALITY TRAITS

Personality Trait Levels	Mean Preference for Violence	Probability Level
High Aggression Anxiety	12.59	p < .05 (n=288)
Low Aggression Anxiety	14.56	
High Neurotic Under Control	14.61	p < .01 (n=312)
Low Neurotic Under Control	12.33	
High Overt Hostility	14.87	p < .01 (n=296)
Low Overt Hostility	12.17	
High Covert Hostility	14.11	p < .05 (n=288)
Low Covert Hostility	13.11	
High Conflict Over Hostility	14.12	p < .05 (n=288)
Low Conflict Over Hostility	13.37	

Covert Hostility and Conflict Over Hostility seem to be weak predictors of preference for violence. Persons both High and Low on these traits showed a middle-of-the road preference with no significant differences between them. In other words, High and Low Covert Hostility and Conflict Over Hostility persons showed about the same preference for violence.

As a side analysis, the author compared the mean preference of respondents for non-violent programs with the mean preference for violent programs. It could be that persons would have a similar preference for both. However, that wasn't the case, at least in the present study.

The author computed the mean preference of all respondents for non-violent programs. Those whose score was above the mean were classified as High preferents of non-violence. Those below the mean were considered Low preferents. This procedure was followed for respondents to each of the five personality trait scales, since a differing number of respondents completed some of the scales.

With respondents divided into High and Low preferents for non-violence, the author tested the difference between their mean preference for violence. For example, those persons who completed the Aggression Anxiety scale and were classified as High preferents for non-violence had a mean preference of 11.88 for violent programs. Those classified as Low on preference for non-violence had a mean preference of 15.27 for violent programs. The difference between these two groups' mean preference for violence exceeded chance expectations ( $p < .01$ ,  $n = 288$ ).

In essence, then, persons who had a High preference for non-violent programs tended to have a lower preference for the violent programs than did persons with a Low preference for non-violence. This was the trend with persons who completed all of the five personality trait scales.

Table XVI summarizes the trend. The average mean preference for violence among High non-violence preferents was 12.14, while Low non-violence preferents showed a higher mean preference for violence of 15.01.

In retrospect, and for future research in this area, the author wishes to point out the need for a more discriminatory multi-variate analysis of the data in studies such as this. This stresses the importance of the design meeting the purposes of the research.

TABLE XVI  
 AVERAGE PREFERENCE FOR VIOLENT PROGRAMS BY  
 RESPONDENTS CLASSIFIED AS HIGH AND LOW  
 IN NON-VIOLENCE PREFERENCE

Level of Preference for Non-Violence	Average Preference for Violent Programs
High	12.14
Low	15.01

Dichotomizing wastes information. By combining nominal measures with continuous measures, interaction can only be suggested, not tested. Instead of the five simple variance analyses between the mean preference for violence between persons High and Low on each personality trait, the author could have used the treatments-by-subjects analysis for data summarized in Table XV. This not only would have tested the difference in violence preference by personality trait but would have explained additional variance due to individual differences.

Furthermore, instead of dichotomizing the preferences for non-violence and comparing the two classes on their preference for violence, the author could have used a mixed factorial and correlated groups design. This would have provided information on the difference between preference for violence and non-violence, the difference between personality traits, and the personality traits most associated with which type of program.

### Summary

The relation between three of the five personality traits was quite clear, even with a rather weak measurement classification.

Preference for violent television programs varied concomitantly with Overt Hostility, Neurotic Under Control, and Aggression Anxiety. The higher a person was on Overt Hostility and Neurotic Under Control, the more he preferred violence, while higher Aggression Anxiety was related to lower preference for violent programs, and vice versa.

Respondents also were consistent in program preference. That is, a person high on violence tended not to prefer non-violent programs and vice versa.

### Elementary Linkage and Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a method of giving the most for the least effort. The method, as in correlation, is an agreement index. Factor analysis always begins with a correlation matrix. From this matrix, clusters of variables, each cluster being a factor, are sought. That is, the persons or tests in each cluster have more common variance with each other than they do with persons or tests in any other cluster.

The 332 subjects were divided into two groups based on their total scores on the five personality-trait items. Thus, the results showed a group of 160 persons scored higher than the mean on overall scores, and another group of 172 persons scored lower than the mean.

Then, persons in each group were correlated, resulting in two intercorrelation matrices for a total of 332 persons. All the scores of each column were added to identify the representative person of each group. The column having the highest total became the representative of

the group, as it had the greatest correlation with all other persons in the group. Around the representative column, 13 persons of Type I were identified as representing those who scored higher than the mean on overall personality items; 26 persons of Type II represented those who scored lower than the mean. Evidently, the correlation of each type of person with the representative person was high. In other words, persons were highly correlated or loaded with the representative person in each type.

The next task was to try to find characteristics of persons belonging to two evidently loaded groups around the representative persons. Mean scores of each item of program preferences and five personality traits were computed for each type of person, as shown in Table XVII.

Type I was associated with preference for televised violence, and particularly with the personality traits Neurotic Under Control and Overt Hostility.

Type II was associated mostly with preference for televised non-violence and the Aggression Anxiety trait.

Thus, it appeared that all personality traits studied, except Aggression Anxiety, were more related to preference for violent programs than to nonviolent. High tendencies in Neurotic Under Control and Overt Hostility seemingly were related to preference for televised violence, while high Aggression Anxiety appeared to be more related to preference for nonviolent features.

Another way to study the situation is to refer back to the frequencies in different demographics among Type I and Type II, as shown.



in Table XVIII. The underlined figures in Table XVIII, which showed more than 20 percent difference between Type I and II columns, were considered for interpretation. Thus, it appeared that Type I was best represented by such demographic attributes as college education and high-level occupation, as compared with high-school education and low-level occupation.

TABLE XVII

MEAN SCORES OF EACH ITEM OF PROGRAM PREFERENCE AND FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS FOR EACH TYPE OF PERSON

Program Preference or Personality Trait	Type I	Type II	Difference
Nonviolent	4.7	8.6	-3.9
Violent	15.2	12.8	+2.4
Aggression Anxiety	10.6	12.9	-2.3
Neurotic Under Control	8.9	5.4	+3.5
Overt Hostility	4.3	1.9	+2.4
Covert Hostility	4.3	4.1	0.2*
Conflict Over Hostility	4.6	4.0	0.6*

\*Non-discriminatory (not associated with any particular group).

TABLE XVIII  
NUMBER OF TYPICAL PERSONS FALLING INTO DIFFERENT DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographic Breakdown	Type I		Type II	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<b>Sex</b>				
Male	11	42.3	6	46.0
Female	15	57.6	7	54.0
<b>Age</b>				
Under 18	0	0.0	0	0.0
18 to 49	19	73.0	11	84.6
50 and Over	7	26.8	2	15.3
<b>Marital Status</b>				
Married	10	38.4	5	38.4
Single	15	57.6	6	46.1
Widowed	1	3.8	0	0.0
Divorced	0	0.0	2	15.3
<b>Education</b>				
Elementary Education	0	0.0	2	15.3
High School Education	3	11.5	6	46.0
College Education	23	<u>88.4</u>	5	<u>38.4</u>
<b>Income</b>				
Low (Under \$4,999)	4	15.3	0	0.0
Middle (\$5,000-\$9,999)	6	23.0	4	30.1
High (\$10,000 +)	16	61.5	9	69.2
<b>Occupation</b>				
High	14	<u>53.8</u>	4	30.7
Middle	8	30.7	5	38.4
Low	4	15.3	4	<u>30.7</u>

Note: See Appendix B for detailed breakdown of occupation.

In summary, the typical person who would prefer nonviolent features on television likely would have a high-school education, would work as operative and kindred worker or as laborer, and would come from a family of rather low socio-economic status. He may tend to show high Aggression Anxiety.

The typical viewer showing a high preference for violent features would be one with college education, holding a professional position, technical job, or working as a business manager or official, or farm owner or manager. He may tend to show high Overt Hostility and Neurotic Under Control. Overall, preference for violent programs appeared to be most associated with high Neurotic Under Control and Overt Hostility tendencies.

#### Summary of Significant Findings

Correlations between personality traits showed significant relationships between Aggression Anxiety and Covert Hostility, Aggression Anxiety and Conflict Over Hostility, Neurotic Under Control and Overt Hostility, Neurotic Under Control and Covert Hostility, Covert Hostility and Conflict Over Hostility, and between overall traits and Aggression Anxiety, Neurotic Under Control, Overt Hostility, and Conflict Over Hostility. But none of these pairs of traits showed a dependable relationship.

Multi-group chi square tests between preference for violence and demographics showed a significant relationship between sex and violence preference. Further, analysis of variance between violence preference and personality traits indicated significant relationships between preference for televised violence and such personality traits as Aggression Anxiety, Neurotic Under Control, and Overt Hostility.

As noted, preference for program violence appeared to be related to sex. In further detail, preference for televised violence was most likely found among males with low interest in nonviolent features but showing either low Aggression Anxiety or high tendencies in Neurotic Under Control, Overt Hostility, and Conflict Over Hostility. On the other hand, preference for televised nonviolence was more likely found among females with high interest in nonviolent features but showing either high Aggression Anxiety and Conflict Over Hostility or low Neurotic Under Control and Overt Hostility.

An analysis of the standard error of percentage sought to show what relationship, if any, existed between personality traits and demographics. Aggression Anxiety appeared to be related to sex, education, and occupation. High Aggression Anxiety tended to be found among females with high-school education and middle-level occupations. Low Aggression Anxiety tended to be found among married males with college education and high-level occupations.

Neurotic Under Control appeared to be related to occupation. High Neurotic Under Control tended to be found among those with middle-level occupations, while low Neurotic Under Control was found among those 50 years of age and over with high-level occupations.

Overt Hostility appeared to be related to sex. High Overt Hostility tended to be shown by males, and low Overt Hostility by females 50 or older with family backgrounds of high socio-economic status.

Covert Hostility seemed to be related to no particular demographic attributes, though low Covert Hostility tended to be found among the married with backgrounds of college education and high-level occupations.

Conflict Over Hostility appeared to be related to education. High Conflict Over Hostility was found most frequently among high school graduates, and low Conflict Over Hostility among college graduates. Marriage, high-level occupations, and high income also appeared to be related to low Conflict Over Hostility.

Finally, factor analysis identified two clusters of variables. Preference for televised nonviolence appeared to be associated with such attributes as high Aggression Anxiety, high-school education, and low-level occupations; preference for televised violence was associated with Neurotic Under Control, Overt Hostility, college education, and high-level occupations. Covert Hostility and Conflict Over Hostility did not appear to be related to program preferences, though they did appear to be associated with violence preference.

If all of these findings are put in a meaningful context in terms of program preferences, personality traits, and demographics, a frame of reference can be set up as follows:

Preference for televised violence appeared to be related to low Aggression Anxiety, high Neurotic Under Control, and Overt Hostility. Low Aggression Anxiety likely would be found among married males with college education and middle or high socio-economic status. High Overt Hostility likely would be shown by males, while high Neurotic Under Control would seemingly be related to middle-level occupations.

Preference for televised nonviolence appeared to be related to high Aggression Anxiety, low Neurotic Under Control, and Overt Hostility. High Aggression Anxiety likely would be found among females with high-school education and middle-level occupations. Low Overt Hostility

likely would be found among females of stability with high-income source and maturity (age over 50). Economic stability and maturity also seemed to be connected with low Neurotic Under Control.

#### FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup>U. S. Department of Commerce, 1970 Census Population (Washington, D. C., 1970), p. 6.

<sup>2</sup>Stillwater Chamber of Commerce, Facts About Stillwater, Oklahoma (Stillwater, 1973), p. 2.

<sup>3</sup>The survey was conducted in the fall of 1972 by Radio-TV-Film majors at Oklahoma State University enrolled in the Programs and Audiences course.

<sup>4</sup>TV Digest, Television Factbook, No. 41, Part 2 (Washington, D. C., 1971), p. 99a.

<sup>5</sup>Don C. Smith, "The Selectors of Television Programs," in Lichty and Ripley, Jr. (eds.), American Broadcasting (Madison, 1969), p. VI 133.

<sup>6</sup>Gary A. Steiner, The People Look at Television (New York, 1963), p. 63.

<sup>7</sup>Neil Hickey, "How America Sees Television," TV Guide (July 14, 1973), p. 5.

<sup>8</sup>Frank J. Kroenberg, quoted in Frederick Wertham, "How Movie and TV Violence Affects Children," Ladies' Home Journal (February, 1960), pp. 58-59.

<sup>9</sup>Steiner, p. 90.

<sup>10</sup>Hickey, p. 7

<sup>11</sup>Ibid.

<sup>12</sup>Ibid, p. 6.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Interpretative Summary

From the significant findings achieved in a variety of statistical analyses--Pearson-product moment correlations, McQuitty's factor analysis, one-way analysis of variance, multigroup chi square tests, standard error of mean, and percentages for the data collected from a telephone survey and follow-up mail questionnaire--some guidelines for conclusions were attempted.

It seemed apparent that program preferences were related to personality traits. Program preferences also appeared to be related to different demographic data such as sex, education, and socio-economic status. Sex appeared to be the most decisive variable in determining the degree of possessed or indicated personality traits and program preferences on television. Educational and occupational differences could have contributed to the possessed personality traits.

High preference for televised violence was found most among college-educated, married males of middle socio-economic status and among those who indicated low interest in nonviolent features, showing either high Overt Hostility or Neurotic Under Control traits but low Aggressive Anxiety. In fact, husbands played a predominant role in the selection of violent program features, followed by "compromise" (composite selection) and choices made by wives. These findings relate to



Don C. Smith's study, which suggests the following:

. . . that there is more family cooperation with respect to choice of television programs in those homes with high standards of living and in which housewives have attended college. The characteristics of the families of which they were members which seemed most important in the analysis of program choice based on general agreement ['compromise' in this study] were standard of living, status of family.<sup>1</sup>

Thus, a notable point was the high percentage of program selection made by "compromise," which usually occurs in families of middle or high socio-economic status. With relation to reasons for viewing violent features, entertainment was the prime reason given, followed by time-filler, relaxation, information, and escape.

High preference for nonviolence was likely to be found among those who showed seemingly high Aggression Anxiety, but low Neurotic Under Control and Overt Hostility. The same preference also was found frequently among those females older than 50 with family backgrounds of middle or high socio-economic status. In fact, wives as selectors of nonviolent features totalled 29.3 percent, though husbands played the predominant role in the selection of programs. Wives selecting violent programs totalled 24.5 percent.

With relation to program selectors, children totalled 6.3 percent in the selection of nonviolent programs as compared to 3.9 percent in the selection of violent program features. As expected, there was much more viewing by children of nonviolent features than of violent programs. In terms of reasons for viewing, entertainment led relaxing, informational, time-filler, and escape reasons. It is well to note that information as a reason for viewing nonviolent programs far exceeded information as a reason for viewing violent features.

Among personality traits, Neurotic Under Control and Covert Hostility were most closely related. This could be interpreted to mean that those who show high Covert Hostility may tend to be high in Neurotic Under Control tendencies. Covert Hostility also was related to Conflict Over Hostility and Aggression Anxiety. This again could be interpreted to mean that those who are in the Conflict Over Hostility group, showing high Aggression Anxiety, may also have Covert Hostility. Neurotic Under Control, which reflects a person's general emotional stability or his emotional over-responsiveness, was related to Overt Hostility. Another interpretation would be that those who have Overt Hostility may tend to show Neurotic Under Control characteristics. Aggression Anxiety was negatively correlated with Overt Hostility.

Compared to Feshbach's findings on the relationship among the five personality traits, the findings of the present study were relatively highly identical, with the exception of Conflict Over Hostility and Covert Hostility.

Overt hostility, covert hostility, and neurotic undercontrol are substantially related to each other and show similar relationships to other variables with one exception: Aggression anxiety is negatively correlated with overt hostility. . . . Aggression anxiety and conflict over aggression are measures of the same construct and show similar relationships with other variables except for the positive correlation of conflict with overt hostility.<sup>2</sup>

The research questions for this study suggested that some personality traits are more likely related to viewing preference for televised violence than other traits, while individuals who are highly anxious and in conflict over aggression tend to prefer nonviolent programs. The present findings seemed to support these views with certain exceptions: statistically, the Conflict Over Hostility trait did not appear to discriminate between preferences for violence and nonviolence; further,

Covert Hostility seemingly appeared to be related to violence preference, as was indicated in Feshbach's findings, but again without statistical significance.

All in all, however, a higher consistency was found in the relationship of program preferences with personality traits than with demographic variables.

### Conclusion

The roots of criminal behavior lie far deeper than television. They reach into the personality, the family experience, and the group relationships of an individual. This is to say that media habits are an effect rather than a cause. This hypothesis is in complete accord with what is known about mass communication habits in topical areas other than violence. Another way of putting it is that the program selects its own audience. It is well known, for example, that those politically partisan speeches on television or radio tend to attract an audience which is primarily composed of people predisposed to the party in question.

With reference to the individual levels of aesthetic or cultural taste, it is again repeatedly found that the audience member's tastes determine the kind of material to which he will expose himself and this kind of material tends, in turn, to reinforce his existing taste. "This phenomenon of selective exposure serves to make mass media a reinforcing agent."<sup>3</sup>

If the implication of previous research is correct, i.e., that mass media depiction of violence is not a prime mover toward crime and delinquency, this will suggest that certain personality traits lead to

a taste for violent media material and that this material serves vaguely understood psychological functions--perhaps good, perhaps bad, perhaps neither--for viewers with certain backgrounds. The effects may differ for males and females, for adults, adolescents, and young children. Level of education, social class, religion, and experiences with other media may be important.

Menninger in his speech on "The Roots of Violence" at the annual banquet meeting of the Association for Education in Journalism in 1968 spoke of three contributing elements or roots of violence other than viewing violence on mass media. Children have within them a tremendous destructive power. Give an average toy to a two-year-old and see how long it survives his pushing, pulling, smashing, and throwing. Notice the interplay between children--grasping, hitting, shrieking--which may lightly be called "roughhousing" but which so often ends with someone being hurt. The behavior stems from a "primitive and simple code" which may be labeled the "pleasure principle." Essentially, it is the idea that "I want what I want when I want it--now."

The child is self-centered. . . . The child sees himself as the center of the universe and everything revolves around him. Every human being has this core, which is self-centered, omnipotent, impulsive, loving and aggressive.

The violence in our system is a dehumanization, a depersonalization, that allows people to do things to other people because others are not people. And dehumanization, which stems from the infant's self-centered orientation that only he is important, is another significant root of violence.

Violence is a communication and usually a communication of last resort. 'Actions speak louder than words.' When a message is not understood, the sender must make greater efforts to communicate his message; he must do so with more emphasis, more intensity, and in such a way as to demand attention. Violence represents a breakdown in civilized communication.<sup>4</sup>

Still another factor may be found in cultural acceptance. Many cultures, including certainly American culture with its highly competitive aspects, place a premium on various forms of aggression, on personal achievement, popularity, and wealth. American culture is a vigorous, competitive one that encourages and reinforces aggression of certain types. As Lawrey and Telford put it:

Initiative, enterprise, leadership, and ambition are 'good.' To be an aggressive 'go-getter' is a praiseworthy American virtue. 'What ever we do, we should do with all our might'; 'Never give up'; 'If at first you don't succeed, try, try again.' The list of such proverbs and maxims extolling the virtues of the aggressive and strenuous life is a long one. It is socially approved. Much aggressive behavior is the result of social practices that reinforces such activity.<sup>5</sup>

Also because those goals are so indefinitely defined for most individuals, and yet are so desperately cherished, the pursuit of them generates a degree of apprehensiveness that leads often to states of frustration, worry, and loss of self-assurance. As a result, some individuals experience a steady, pervasive anxiety, and sometimes hostility and aggressiveness, which tend to condition their moods, their judgment, their state of tension, their desire for the selection of certain types of entertainment material over others, and their general outlook on life.

This is by no means to list exhaustive factors or roots of violence but rather to open a wide door for further discussion of the topic.

Since the typical audience for violent or nonviolent programs is a most heterogeneous mixture of age groups, social groups, socio-economic backgrounds, and sex groups, at first glance it would seem impossible to generalize about the personality of individuals who make up the audiences. Even though generalizations are hazardous, a generalization about the personality of audiences for televised violence and

nonviolence does have value for the broadcaster, the student of mass communication, and the public, in that certain clues may be discerned for the understanding of viewing behavior. At least this study serves to suggest the value of personality testing and the use of a demographic profile of potential viewers along with their actual television viewing preferences. No generalization attempted in this study necessarily means that all members of the group possess the characteristics attributed to the group.

Violence on television unquestionably poses many other difficult problems of communication--including broadcasting strategy--that remain to be solved. While such problems cannot be solved in the absolute, a start can be made; and this discussion is by no means an attempt to present only one possible solution.

#### Suggestions for Further Study

What appears to be desirable is that this kind of research be conducted on a wider scale so that more reliable and valid data can be available to be generalized upon with more confidence. Also, a series of extensive studies is recommended to include other seemingly relevant "aggressive" personality traits and additional variables which may affect program preference for televised violence.

Different television programs may provide the same basic functions but in different quantities. Certain functions naturally will be more likely with different kinds of viewers. The frequency and long-range effect of those consequences for different programs and for viewers in different categories should be explored. A further study of this kind should help us better understand and distinguish between the relative

roles of violence on television. It is hoped, at least, that this study should be considered as a guide to the formulation of hypotheses for further study of factors involved in selection of programs on television. It would be valuable to have an index of the relative proportions of these functions that different programs and different types of programs fulfill.

Another dimension of the analysis would be the setting in which sex and violence are portrayed on screen and the age, sex, and social class of the persons who play the various dramatic roles. These settings are often quite similar to those encountered in the daily lives of adolescents. Because of this, it has been charged that youngsters get, from these settings, ideas and techniques of how, for example, to pull off a robbery or a seduction, or even to get away with murder.

One suspects, however, that instances in which the delinquent-prone have actually employed techniques portrayed on the screen may be rare. However, a comparison of the similarities or dissimilarities between on-screen settings and those in daily life provides another place to look for more evidence of relationships.

Observation of aggressive behavior in functional material may actually help reduce tensions, under conditions where it is mixed with humor or cast in a clearly playful setting. Similarly, violence in stereotyped form such as Westerns or in situations far removed from the ordinary daily lives of viewers, such as historical or foreign settings (use of lances rather than switchblade knives) may be less distressing or provocative of imitation. This latter point merits serious research attention, for it implies new possibilities of programming if supported by research data.

Studies with lower middle or lower socio-economic groups are sparse. Most research has used students or children. Most of the research has employed relatively unrepresentative samples of actual television programming in the design and has not yet satisfactorily duplicated the actual conditions of television viewing in the home setting. Exceptions have been the Dynascope research studies under the direction of Dr. Charles L. Allen at Oklahoma State University in the 1960's.

Still another aspect of television which deserves more attention than it has had in the past is the problem of how to realize the potential of the medium. There exists some disappointment with the fact that television has not completely fulfilled its potential as a "window on the world"; it has not produced a generation better informed, more curious, and so forth. Instead, it has merely provided the average person with five to six hours of daily escape entertainment. Studies are called for on how to make the non-entertainment, non-fictional programs on television more interesting, so that they will attract their share of viewers and contribute their share of learning. And perhaps, too, it is necessary to study how taste is formed, so that instead of narrowing an audience's taste around a certain level of entertainment, its television interests can be broadened. Viewers might then be encouraged to use television when possible as a realistic window on the world.

Perhaps a quotation from Ripley and Robinson would be appropriate at this point:

. . . in addition to providing the psychic therapy of humor and relaxation through frothy, light programs, television ought to make disguised educational efforts on a regular basis by coping with theses of depth and real social utility within the framework of entertainment.<sup>6</sup>



Especially important is the need for careful study of documentary or on-going films and radio reportage of incidents of violence or calls to action. Such material simply has not been studied often enough and its implications for influencing viewers seem more powerful today than the content of clearly fictional programs.

Finally, clarification is needed on the effects of individual exposure to specific content with reference to long-term, cumulative viewing. Almost no experimental research has been addressed to this issue.

FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup>Don C. Smith, "The Selectors of Television Programs," in Lichty and Ripley, Jr. (eds.), American Broadcasting (Madison, 1969), p. VI 135.

<sup>2</sup>Seymour Feshbach and Robert D. Singer, TV and Aggression (San Francisco, 1971), p. 135.

<sup>3</sup>Joseph T. Klapper, The Effects of Mass Communication (Glencoe, Illinois, 1960), pp. 25-26.

<sup>4</sup>Remarks by Walter W. Menninger at the annual banquet meeting of the Association for Education in Journalism held at the University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas, August 28, 1968.

<sup>5</sup>James M. Lawrey and Charles W. Telford, Psychology of Adjustment, 2nd ed., (Boston, 1967), p. 101.

<sup>6</sup>Hubbell Robinson, quoted in K. G. Bartlett, Television Lecture 1970 (Syracuse, 1970), p. 1.

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## APPENDIXES



APPENDIX A

LETTER TO STILLWATER RESIDENTS



OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY

Bureau of Media Research and Services/ (405)372-6211 Ext.6115/  
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74074

April 13, 1973

Dear Stillwater Resident:

We appreciate your participation in this Audience Survey. Here at Oklahoma State University an audience survey is being conducted through the Bureau of Media Research and Services. Your name has been pulled on a random basis from the local telephone directory.

Your cooperation in this study is very important as we through this research organization are trying to find out what people watch on television--what they like and don't like--and that you can help us very much by answering a few questions. In other words, we are attempting to nail down more specifically just what types of television programs are more being attracted by audiences like yourself. Without your help, the study would not be as helpful as we think it will and should be.

Briefly, to learn more about the types of television program that the average Stillwater audiences like to see on television, we have designed a questionnaire that you can fill out at your convenience. It will take you less than half an hour to complete. It is not necessary for you to put your name on any of these included materials but it is essential that we have some information about you. Therefore, we would like to request you fill out as completely as possible.

Some instructions are given for you to use in making your choice on each of the items in this project. Please read the items carefully.

When you have completed marking each item, kindly return it to us in the stamped, self-addressed envelope included in this packet.

Again, let me assure you of our great appreciation for your cooperation in this Audience Survey.

Thank you!

Truly yours,

*Chang Sup Cho*

APPENDIX B

MAIL QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions: Read the following seven items. You are to fill in the blanks of the items with the appropriate number that applies to you.

- ( ) 1. SEX: 1)Male  
2)Female
- ( ) 2. Which one of the following age groups applies to you?  
1)Under 18  
2)18 - 49  
3)50 & Over
- ( ) 3. MARITAL STATUS:  
1)Married  
2)Single  
3)Widowed  
4)Divorced
- ( ) 4. What was the last school attended?  
1)No school years completed  
2)Grammar School  
3)High School  
4)College
- ( ) 5. What is your(household) yearly income? If you are a student, choose your parents' income.  
1)\$4,999 & under  
2)\$5,000 - \$9,999  
3)\$10,000 & Over
- ( ) 6. What is your occupation? A student may indicate his parent's occupation. A retired person may indicate his last occupation before the retirement.  
1)Professional, technical and kindred workers  
2)Business managers, officials and proprietors  
a)nonfarm managers, officials and proprietors  
b)farm owners and managers  
3)Clerical and kindred workers, including sales workers  
4)Craftsman, foreman, and kindred workers  
5)Operatives and kindred workers  
6)Laborers, except farm and mine  
a)private household workers  
b)service workers, except private household  
c)farm laborers, unpaid family workers  
d)laborers, except farm and mine  
7)Unemployed
7. What media do you have access to? Your choice may be more than one. Mark your choice with a check "x" in the appropriate box.

- Television  
 Radio  
 Newspaper  
 Magazine  
 Professional periodicals

PROGRAM PREFERENCE:

You have a list of 10 pairs of twenty television programs. Take a look at each program and decide your favorite programs that you prefer to watch or you watch regularly on TV. You are to select one program from each pair, by marking "X" in the appropriate blank of the program you prefer.

Then, by circling a number, please indicate your degree of liking for each X-marked program on a 5-point scale; higher numbers refer to higher preferences for the shows indicated.

- |                         |   |                       |  |
|-------------------------|---|-----------------------|--|
| 1.( )To Tell The Truth  | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> :( | ( )The Untouchables   | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> |
| 2.( )Ironside           | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> :( | ( )Police Surgeon     | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> |
| 3.( )Gunsmoke           | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> :( | ( )Room 222           | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> |
| 4.( )Dick Cavett        | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> :( | ( )Hee Haw            | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> |
| 5.( )Mannix             | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> :( | ( )I Dream of Jeannie | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> |
| 6.( )Green Acres        | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> :( | ( )FBI                | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> |
| 7.( )Hawaii Five-O      | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> :( | ( )Johnny Carson      | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> |
| 8.( )Petticoat Junction | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> :( | ( )All In The Family  | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> |
| 9.( )I Love Lucy        | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> :( | ( )Mission Impossible | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> |
| 10.( )Mod Squad         | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> :( | ( )Lawrence Welk      | <u>1</u> <u>2</u> <u>3</u> <u>4</u> <u>5</u> |

APPENDIX C

FESHBACH'S PSYCHOLOGICAL INVENTORY

Directions: This questionnaire contains a number of statements that may or may not be true about you. Please read each statement and give your own personal opinion. If you agree with the statement or feel that it is true about you, mark your choice with a check "x" on the appropriate line under True. If you disagree with a statement or feel that it is not true about you, check "x" under False.

There are no right or wrong answers. The statements are about matters concerning which people often have different opinions. The best answer is just your own opinion. Please answer each question True or False, even if you have to guess. Do Not spend too much time on any one statement. Please give your frank opinion. Your answers will be kept absolutely confidential. Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated.

True False

1. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ When I don't like what my friends do, I let them know it.
2. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ Sometimes people bother me just being around.
3. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I seldom hit back, even if someone hits me first.
4. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ My daily life is full of things that keep me interested.
5. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ When I disagree with someone, I would rather give in than get into an argument about it.
6. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I sometimes have bad thoughts which make me feel ashamed of myself.
7. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I often find myself disagreeing with people.
8. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I am often said to be hot-headed.
9. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I wish I could find a way to handle my angry feelings more satisfactorily.
10. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I get very upset when someone I like does something to annoy me.
11. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ When someone is bossy, I do the opposite of what he asks.
12. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I can think of no good reason for ever hitting someone.
13. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I don't know any people that I downright hate.
14. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ If someone hits me first, I let him have it.
15. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I like school.
16. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ Occasionally when I am mad at someone I will give him the "silent treatment."
17. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I sometimes feel that I do not deserve as good a life as I have.
18. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ Even when I am mad, I don't use bad language.
19. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about.
20. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I do not always tell the truth.
21. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I don't think it is right for someone to get drunk at a party.
22. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ If someone annoys me, I tell him what I think of him.
23. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ Sometimes when I am not feeling well, I am cross.
24. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ When I am scolded, it gets me very upset.
25. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ It makes me sad that I did not do more for my parents.
26. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I get angry sometimes.
27. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I think it's O.K. to hunt small animals like ducks and rabbits.
28. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I must admit that I often do as little work as I can get by with.
29. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I try not to let things upset me because I have such a terrible temper.
30. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I know who is responsible for most of my troubles.
31. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I often worry a lot about things I have done.
32. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ When I really get mad, I say nasty things.
33. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I like to know some important people because it makes me feel important.
34. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I often feel like I'm ready to explode.
35. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ When I really lose my temper, I might slap someone.
36. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I must admit I often try to get my own way regardless of what others may want.
37. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ When I get angry, I usually feel bad afterwards.

## True False

38. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ Although I don't show it, I am sometimes eaten up with jealousy.
39. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ When I express my anger, I am usually sorry afterwards.
40. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ My home life was always very pleasant.
41. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I do not like everyone I know.
42. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I get into fights about as often as the next person.
43. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ At times I feel like picking a fist fight with someone.
44. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I gossip a little at times.
45. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I usually don't show it when I get angry, but it leaves me shaking inside afterwards.
46. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I do many things that make me feel sorry afterwards.
47. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I do not always tell the truth.
48. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I like to watch a real man-sized slugging match in a movie or on TV.
49. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ When I don't think well of someone, I usually cover up how I feel.
50. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I wonder why I act so nice to people I can't stand.
51. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ Arguing nearly always leads to trouble in one way or another.
52. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I often act on the spur of the moment without stopping to think.
53. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I enjoy hunting.
54. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I never make judgments about people until I am sure of the facts.
55. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I sometimes carry a chip on my shoulder.
56. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I sometimes tease animals.
57. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I usually get very upset when I look at someone who has been in a bad accident.
58. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I often wonder what hidden reason another person may have for doing something nice for me.
59. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ At times I feel like swearing.
60. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I feel sorry after telling someone off, even though he may have deserved it.
61. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ If we were at war, I don't think it would bother me to kill one of the enemy.
62. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I like to keep people guessing what I'm going to do next.
63. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ If a friend has to be told off, I don't mind being the one to tell him off.
64. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ Most people usually don't like putting themselves out to help other people.
65. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I wish I could get over worrying about things I have said that might hurt other people's feelings.
66. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I can't help being a little fresh to people I don't like.
67. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I have known people who pushed me so far that we got into a fight.
68. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today.
69. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I fail to defend myself when I should, and I get overly aggressive when I shouldn't.
70. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ The sight of blood frightens me and makes me sick.
71. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ If someone doesn't treat me right, I don't let it annoy me.
72. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I think most people would lie to get ahead.
73. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ Picking up a loaded gun makes me nervous.
74. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I find it easy to "drop" or "break with" a friend.
75. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I would rather win than lose in a game.
76. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ The best way to handle an insult is just to ignore it.
77. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I find it hard to refuse favors, even to people I dislike.
78. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I am made very nervous by certain animals.
79. \_\_\_ \_\_\_ I often feel that I have not lived the right kind of life.

That ends the questionnaire. Thank you again for your cooperation!

APPENDIX D

PERSONALITY INVENTORY SCORING SCALES



## A. AGGRESSION ANXIETY (Anxiety about Aggression)

-1, 5, 10, -22, 24, -27, 31, 37, 45, -48, 51, -53, 57,  
-61, -63, 65, 70, 73, 76

## B. NEUROTIC UNDER CONTROL

-4, 8, -15, 17, -21, 28, 30, 36, -40, 43, 47, 52, -54,  
56, 62, 64, 72, 74, 78

## C. OVERT HOSTILITY

-3, 7, -12, 14, -18, 32, 35, 42, -49, 67

## D. COVERT HOSTILITY

2, 6, 11, -13, 16, 25, 34, 38, 46, 55, 58, 66, -71, 79

## E. LIE

-19, -20, -23, -26, -33, -41, -44, 59, -68, -75

## F. CONFLICT OVER HOSTILITY

9, 29, 39, 50, 60, 69, 77

APPENDIX E  
PROGRAM SCHEDULES

PROGRAM SCHEDULE

THURSDAY: April 12, 1973

	<u>7:00 P.M.</u>	<u>8:00 P.M.</u>	<u>9:00 P.M.</u>	
Ch. 4 (WKY-NBC)	Flip Wilson	Ironside	Dean Martin	
2 (KTEW-NBC)	Flip Wilson	Ironside	Dean Martin	
5 (KOCO-ABC)	Mod Squad	Kung Fu	Streets of San Francisco	
8 (KTUL-ABC)	Spring Is Special	Kung Fu	Streets of San Francisco	
9 (KWTC-CBS)	National Geographic	Western Movie--"White Feather"	Western Movie, cont.	
6 (KOTV-CBS)	National Geographic	Comedy Movie--"How to Save a Marriage"	Comedy Movie, cont.	
13 (KETA-PBS)	Movie--"Hamlet"	"Hamlet"	"Hamlet"	<u>9:30 P.M.</u>
11 (KOED-PBS)	Movie--"Hamlet"	"Hamlet"	"Hamlet"	Interview
				Interview

PROGRAM SCHEDULE

THURSDAY: April 19, 1973

	<u>7:00 P.M.</u>	<u>8:00 P.M.</u>	<u>9:00 P.M.</u>
Ch. 4 (WKY-NBC)	Flip Wilson	Bob Hope	Dean Martin
2 (KTEW-NBC)	Flip Wilson	Bob Hope	Dean Martin
5 (KOCO-ABC)	Mod Squad	Railroad Documentary	Henry Fonda Special
8 (KTUL-ABC)	Mod Squad	Streets of San Francisco	Streets of San Francisco
9 (KWTC-CBS)	The Waltons	The Waltons	Music--Up With People
6 (KOTV-CBS)	The Waltons	The Waltons	Music--Up With People
13 (KETA-PBS)	Movie--"Richard III"	"Richard III"	"Richard III"
11 (KOED-PBS)	Movie--"Richard III"	"Richard III"	"Richard III"

PROGRAM SCHEDULE

THURSDAY: April 26, 1973

	<u>7:00 P.M.</u>	<u>8:00 P.M.</u>	<u>9:00 P.M.</u>	
Ch. 4 (WKY-NBC)	Flip Wilson	Ironside	Dean Martin	
2 (KTEW-NBC)	Flip Wilson	Ironside	Dean Martin	
5 (KOCO-ABC)	Mod Squad	Kung Fu	Streets of San Francisco	
8 (KTUL-ABC)	Mod Squad	Kung Fu	Streets of San Francisco	
9 (KWTC-CBS)	The Waltons	News Special	CBS Reports Special	
6 (KOTV-CBS)	The Waltons	News Special (Five Presidents on the Presidency)	CBS Reports Special	
13 (KETA-PBS)	Movie--"Oliver Twist"	"Oliver Twist"	"Oliver Twist"	<u>9:30 P.M.</u> Interview
11 (KOED-PBS)	Movie--"Oliver Twist"	"Oliver Twist"	"Oliver Twist"	Interview

APPENDIX F

SCHEDULE FOR PROGRAM RANK-ORDERING

The following is a list of 33 television programs. Take a look at each program and decide whether it is a violent program as applied to you or a nonviolent program as applied to you.

Mark "V" in the first column blanks of the programs which are violent ones as applied to you. Then, in the second column blanks of those "V"-marked programs, you are to assign numbers to rank order them from the most violent program to the least violent program. The higher numbers will indicate the less violent programs.

Secondly, you are to select five programs out of the remaining unmarked programs which you think will best represent the typical nonviolent programs. Mark "X" in the second column blanks of those five programs.

( ) ( ) I Dream of Jeannie	( ) ( ) Dick Van Dyke
( ) ( ) Police Surgeon	( ) ( ) All in the Family
( ) ( ) FBI	( ) ( ) Johnny Carson
( ) ( ) Lawrence Welk	( ) ( ) Mannix
( ) ( ) Bonanza	( ) ( ) Carol Burnett
( ) ( ) Dick Cavett	( ) ( ) Green Acres
( ) ( ) High Chaparral	( ) ( ) Perry Mason
( ) ( ) Dragnet	( ) ( ) Gunsmoke
( ) ( ) To Tell the Truth	( ) ( ) The Untouchables
( ) ( ) Merv Griffin	( ) ( ) I Love Lucy
( ) ( ) Hogan's Heroes	( ) ( ) Hee Haw
( ) ( ) Bill Cosby	( ) ( ) Odd Couple
( ) ( ) Ironside	( ) ( ) Marcus Welby
( ) ( ) Mod Squad	( ) ( ) Mission Impossible
( ) ( ) Dean Martin	( ) ( ) Room 222
( ) ( ) Petticoat Junction	( ) ( ) Roller Derby

THANK YOU!

APPENDIX G

LIST OF PROGRAM RANKINGS



## LIST OF PROGRAM RANKINGS

## Ten top-rated violent programs:

The Untouchables	33
Mannix	33
Hawaii Five-0	32
Mod Squad	30
FBI	29
Gunsmoke	24
Mission Impossible	24
Ironside	23
Police Surgeon	23
High Chaparral	22

## Ten top-rated non-violent programs:

To Tell the Truth	15
I Dream of Jeannie	14
Johnny Carson	13
Lawrence Welk	13
Green Acres	11
Room 222	11
I Love Lucy	11
Petticoat Junction	9
All in the Family	9
Dick Cavett	8
Hee Haw	8
Odd Couple	8

Note: Figures indicate the average scores of each program given by 43 judges.

APPENDIX H

INSTRUCTIONS FOR TELEPHONE SURVEY

Instructions for Telephone Survey

Preliminary: Seat yourself comfortably near the telephone a few minutes before the hour with the following: 2 sharp pencils, Instruction Sheets, Survey Sheet with telephone numbers, and a watch set accurately to the nearest minute. Also, be familiar with all programs!

- A. On the hour: Dial first number on Survey Sheet.
- B. If you get a busy signal, wait for telephone to ring six times. If there is No Answer after six rings, check the NA column; call the next number.
- C. The operator may cut in and ask what number you were dialing. Tell her. She will probably say the number has been changed and give you a new one. Jot it down, and proceed. Or she may say the number has been disconnected. Write a "D" in the UA column; call next number.
- D. The person may be uncooperative and refuse to answer your questions (very seldom). Or, person may say he is busy. Do not press to continue the interview, but ask if you may call back later. (This technique often elicits answers "now" rather than later.) In case of flat refusal, write an "R" in the UA column; call next number.
- E. You may be unable to complete the interview. A child might answer and hang up (ask to speak to his mother or father if possible). The party may not speak satisfactory English (very rare). If something unforeseen does occur, check the UA column (it stands for Unintelligible Answers); call next number.
- F. If a person seems greatly disturbed--maybe because he was awakened from a nap or something--apologize, and note that in "Remarks" column.
- G. If you complete the list, and a few minutes remain, return to the top of list and recall all busy signals and No Answers. If you get another busy signal, or no answer, make another check mark in the NA column. When you make contact, proceed as previously. Remember to note the time of the call. Do not erase any marks made on the Survey Sheet.
- H. Special Instructions for Immediate Recall. In the event that you need a few minutes beyond the prescribed stop-time to complete your list, use this technique: After ascertaining the TV ownership (Q #1), then ask:

"It is now \_\_\_:\_\_\_; was your TV set on any time between \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_?" Proceed as above, putting verbs in past tense.

IF -- IF -- IF -- IF:

1. Person answers NO to Q #1, ask if we may mail him the questionnaire.

Write Yes or No in "Remarks" column according to his answer. Say "Thank you very much. Goodbye!" Check proper column (Have TV--no) and call next number.

2. Person answers NO to Q#2, say the same thing as above. Check (Viewing--no).
3. On Q#3, person may not be able to give program name but may be able to give channel number of station. Maybe he will give sufficient description so that you will recognize the program. If necessary, ask him directly whether the set is tuned to \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_, or \_\_\_\_\_.

\*\*Check "M" (Male) or "F" (Female) in "Sex" column to indicate sex of respondent.

Good evening. Is this Mr./Ms. \_\_\_\_\_ residence? This is Oklahoma State University Bureau of Media Research and Services. We are a "research organization" trying to find out what people watch on TV--what they like and don't like--and you can help us very much by answering a few questions. It will take just a couple of minutes.

1. Do you have a TV set? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_
2. Is your TV set turned on now? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_
3. What program is tuned on, please?
 

Oklahoma City	:	Tulsa
_____ Ch. 4 (WKY)-NBC	:	Ch. 2 (KTEW)-NBC
_____ Ch. 5 (KOCO)-ABC	:	Ch. 8 (KTUL)-ABC
_____ Ch. 9 (KWTV)-CBS	:	Ch. 6 (KOTV)-CBS
_____ Ch. 13 (KETA)-PBS	:	Ch. 11 (KOED)-PBS
4. How many men, how many women, and how many children are watching the program in your home?
5. How did you go about picking this TV program? Who decided to watch this particular program?
  - 1) Husband
  - 2) Wife
  - 3) Children
  - 4) Talk it over with other members of the household
6. Which one of the following comes closest to your reason for watching this program?
  - 1) Entertaining
  - 2) Relaxing
  - 3) Informational
  - 4) As a time filler
  - 5) To get away from the problems of the day

That ends the questions. But to get more information, we have designed a questionnaire that we would like to mail you so that you can fill it out at your convenience. It will take you less than 30 minutes to complete. We will include a stamped, self-addressed envelope that you can use in returning it to us.

May we mail you the questionnaire? Let me be sure that we have your correct address. Thank you very much for being so cooperative, and we will drop this in the mail to you. Goodbye.

PROGRAM SCHEDULE

Thursday, April 12, 1973: 9:00-10:00 P.M.

Channel 4 (WKY-NBC) :	2 (KTEW-NBC)	Dean Martin
5 (KOCO-ABC):	8 (KTUL-ABC)	Streets of San Francisco--Crime
9 (KWTV-CBS):		Movie--Western
	6 (KOTV-CBS)	Movie--Comedy
13 (KETA-PBS):	11 (KOED-PBS)	Drama Movie--"Hamlet"
		Thirty Minutes With--Interview

APPENDIX I

IMMEDIATE-RECALL TELEPHONE SURVEY

TABULATION SHEET



APPENDIX J

CORRELATION TABLE OF PERSONALITY TRAITS



## CORRELATION TABLE OF PERSONALITY TRAITS

<u>Source</u>	<u>r (correlation)</u>	<u>r<sup>2</sup></u>	<u>t</u>	<u>Level of Significance</u>
NV+VxOA (Program Preference)	.1627	.026	1.423	.05 n.s.
NVxV	-.3036	.092	-1.875	.05 n.s.
NVxAA	.2603	.067	1.76	.05 n.s.
NVxNU	-.0661	.004	-.917	.05 n.s.
NVxOH	-.1282	.016	-1.269	.05 n.s.
NVxCH	.0830	.006	1.026	.05 n.s.
NVxCO	.1512	.0228	1.359	.05 n.s.
NVxOA	.1088	.0118	1.173	.05 n.s.
VxAA	-.1828	.033	-1.503	.05 n.s.
VxNU	.1669	.027	1.44	.05 n.s.
VxOH	.2113	.044	1.606	.05 n.s.
VxCH	.1080	.011	1.168	.05 n.s.
VxCO	.0772	.005	.991	.05 n.s.
VxOA	.0872	.0076	1.052	.05 n.s.
AAxNU	.0520	.0027	.814	.05 n.s.
AAxOH	-.2889	.083	-1.84	.05 n.s.
AAxCH	.3889	.151	2.05	.05 Significant
AAxCO	.4987	.2487	2.18	.05 Significant
AAxOA	.5788	.335	2.21	.05 Significant
NUxOH	.3832	.146	2.04	.05 Significant
NUxCH	.59	.348	2.21	.05 Significant
NUxCO	.2863	.081	1.83	.05 n.s.
NUxOA	.6980	.487	2.14	.05 Significant
OHxCH	.3266	.106	1.93	.05 n.s.
OHxCO	.0127	.0001	.402	.05 n.s.
OHxOA	.3929	.154	2.06	.05 Significant
CHxCO	.5545	.307	2.21	.05 Significant
CHxOA	.8826	.778	1.58	.05 n.s.
COxOA	.6827	.466	2.15	.05 Significant

df = 330

VITA

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