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AN EXAMINATION OF PARENTAL KNOWLEDGE OF ADOLESCENT MEDIA

CONSUMPTION AND PARENTAL MEDIATION

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By

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A Dissertation APPROVED FOR THE
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BY

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation investigated parental knowledge of adolescent media consumption and parental mediation. Two hundred six parent-adolescent dyads took part in this study. Undergraduate students in communication classes recruited participants. Parents were asked to report their adolescent's three favorite television programs, online activities, musicians, and magazines, and the amount of time their adolescent spent with each media type. Parents were also asked to report the frequency of parental mediation of television and family communication patterns. Similarly, adolescents were asked to report their three favorite television programs, online activities, musicians, and magazines, and the amount of time spent with each. Adolescents were also asked to report the frequency of their parent's parental mediation behaviors and family communication patterns.

Results indicated that parents possessed moderate knowledge of their adolescents' television program choice and online activities. However, parents only possessed low knowledge of their adolescents' music type. Furthermore, parents were aware of how much media their adolescents consumed per week across the four media types. Considering the three parental mediation strategies, restrictive mediation, co-viewing mediation, and active mediation, typically parents reported employing these three strategies more often than their adolescent counterparts perceived their parents utilizing these mediation strategies. Additionally, co-viewing mediation was the most frequently reported mediation strategy employed by parents. Finally, the family communication patterns of conformity orientation and conversation orientation was related to restrictive

mediation, but only conversation orientation was related to co-viewing mediation and active mediation.

Overall, the results revealed that parents are generally knowledgeable about the types and quantity of media their adolescents' use. Furthermore, parents may try to employ parental mediation strategies, but may not be effective in their communication of these attempts or their adolescents are simply ignoring them. Finally, creating an environment of openness in the family may aid parents in utilizing parental mediation strategies.

AN EXAMINATION OF PARENTAL KNOWLEDGE OF ADOLESCENT MEDIA CONSUMPTION AND PARENTAL MEDIATION

Chapter 1

Introduction

Background of the Problem

In his acceptance speech for the vice-president nomination at the 2000 Democratic National Convention, Joseph Lieberman stated "No parent should be forced to compete with popular culture to raise their children" (August 16, 2000). Lieberman has been a long time critic of the media and violence on television. He believes that the media should censor itself and not broadcast violent or sexually oriented programs during times when children are viewing. The vice-presidential candidate's stance is that popular culture rears children and adolescents as much as, if not more than, parents.

Lieberman is correct in his assumption that the media is a predominant force in the lives of children. In a 1999 report from the Kaiser Family Foundation, children between the ages of 8 to 18 years old use media (television, CDs and tapes, radio, books, video games, and Internet) for an average of 6 hours and 43 minutes per day. On average children (ages 2 to 18 years old) spend approximately 3 hours watching television per day, 50 minutes listening to CD's and tapes per day, and 50 minutes using computers for fun, to play video games, and to use the Internet.

These statistics indicate that children and adolescents spend much of their time using some form of media. Research suggests that the media does have an impact on the development of adolescents. Adolescence is a time when children spend less time interacting with their family and more time actively using media (Arnett, 1995; Arnett,

Larson & Offer, 1995; Larson, 1995; Steele & Brown, 1995). Not only do teenagers actively use the media, but images from the media such as models, actors, musicians, and sport stars adorn the walls of their bedrooms (Steele & Brown, 1995). Furthermore, adolescents utilize the media for self-socialization, entertainment, identity formation, high sensation, coping, and culture identification (Arnett, 1995). Additionally, much of this media usage (especially music and television) is done alone (Larson, 1995). This allows the teenager to explore different identities (Larson, 1995) and to make sense out of their lives (Steele & Brown, 1995). However, Meyrowitz (1985) argued that television has blurred the line between adulthood and childhood. Before the advent of television, adults were better able to monitor and control what their children learned. At times, the parent could slowly reveal the adult world to the child when the child is deemed mature enough for the material. However, television allows children to easily access adult material such as sex, violence, etc. Additionally, many prime time programs are aimed at both children and adults. Therefore, children may learn about the adult world before their parents are ready to present this world to them.

This research supports Lieberman's contention that the media plays a large role in raising our children, but it also begs the question—are parents powerless over the influence of the media? Communication research suggests that parents can and do influence their children's interpretation of mass media content. Active mediation is interpersonal communication between parent and child about media images (Austin, Roberts, & Nass, 1990; Messaris, 1982). Past studies indicate that when a parent actively discusses media content with a child this affects how the child interprets that content (Alexander, 1994; Austin, 1993a; Austin, et al., 1990; Messaris, 1982; Nathanson, 1999).

Parental mediation is effective in reducing aggression in children (Nathanson, 1999), creating skepticism about television content (Austin, 1993a), decreasing television consumption (Van den Bluck & Van den Bergh, 2000), and influencing children's' interpretation of occupational roles (Messaris & Kerr, 1984). Parental mediation of television can be a useful parenting strategy to aid children and adolescents in interpreting television content.

Statement of the Problem

Although parental mediation of television has been shown to be effective in helping children interpret the media, little is known about parental mediation in adolescence. Many of the studies that examine parental mediation focus on children under the age of 11 or include both children and adolescents in the sample without making a distinction between the two groups (Alexander, 1994; Austin, et al., 1990; Messaris, 1982; Nathanson, 1999). Adolescence is a unique developmental period from childhood that spans from the ages of 11 to 19 years old (Cobb, 1998). During this developmental stage individuals endure dramatic physical, emotional, and intellectual changes. Research about children and the media or research that combines both children and adolescents does not take into account this unique developmental period. Thus, research conducted on children is not generalizable to adolescents. Adolescents actively use the media and utilize the media differently than children (Arnett, 1995; Arnett, Larson & Offer, 1995; Larson, 1995; Steele & Brown, 1995). For instance, adolescents use the media to aid in formulating their identity (Arnett, 1995), but children have not entered this phase of identity exploration until adolescence (Erickson, 1963). Thus, children would not use the media for the same purposes.

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Furthermore, past studies only examine either the viewpoint of the parent or of the child, but no study simultaneously focuses on both the parent and adolescents' experience with mediation. Additionally, research has yet to address parental knowledge of other forms of media usage such as the Internet, music, and magazines (Mazur, 2000). Therefore, it is important to gain a better understanding of parental knowledge of adolescents' media consumption and how adolescents and their parents communicate about television and other forms of media.

Definition of Terms

The developmental stage of adolescence occurs between the ages of 11 to 19 (Cobb, 1998). During this time, adolescence is clearly distinguished from childhood because of the physical, emotional, and cognitive changes in an individual (Erickson, 1963; Havighurst, 1952; Piaget, 1971). For example, Havighurst (1952) identified developmental tasks or learning experiences adolescents must encounter before progressing into early adulthood. These experiences are unique from childhood developmental tasks and clearly identify and define adolescence as a unique period. Havighurst (1952) argued that adolescents should develop relations with the opposite sex, achieve appropriate sex roles, acquire independence both emotional and financially from their parents, acquire their own set of values and beliefs, and finally prepare for marriage, family, and career during this time. Unlike adolescents, Havighurst explained that children focus on learning basic skills such as reading, writing, and arithmetic, forming friendships, and developing physical skills.

Similarly, Erik Erickson (1963) theorized that the main challenge or crisis that adolescents face is a search for self or identity formation. Before the onset of adolescence

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children define themselves through their parents, but adolescents must search out their own sense of identity and gain independence from their parents. This crisis of identity clearly distinguishes adolescence from childhood.

Finally, Piaget (1971) posited four stages of cognitive development. The sensorimotor stage occurs from birth to 2 years old and the child's awareness is limited to his or her own senses. During the preoperational stage (2-7 years old) children utilize words and symbols to think, but are easily confused by appearances of objects. For instance, if a child is given a choice between two eight ounce glasses, one tall and slender glass and one short and round glass, the child will assume that the tall glass holds more water because it is taller than the short glass. Not until the concrete operational stage (7-11 years old) are children able to understand that the shape of the glass does not change the amount of water. Children at this stage are able to think more flexibly and to think about multidimensional objects. Formal operational thought begins in adolescence, and this is the first time that individuals are able to think in the abstract. For Piaget, this marks maturity in intellectual cognition. Adolescents' thought processes begin resembling an adult's and this represents a marked change from early and middle childhood.

Based upon the research of Havighurst, Erickson, and Piaget it is clear that adolescence is a distinct period from childhood. Adolescents face different developmental tasks than children, suffer identity crisis, and are cognitively more complex than their younger counterparts. These physical, emotional, and intellectual changes can impact how adolescents use and understand the mass media and how they respond to parental mediation of the media that they consume.

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In general the research about parental mediation has identified three types of mediation strategies: restrictive mediation, unfocused or co-viewing mediation, and active mediation sometimes referred to as evaluative or instructive mediation (Bybee, Robsinson, & Turrow, 1982; Valkenburg, Krcmar, Peeters, & Marseille, 1999; van der Voort, Nikken, & van Lil, 1992). Parents who use restrictive mediation strategies control the amount and type of television programming their children are able to watch. For example, parents impose rules that restrict the viewing of certain television programs or limit the number of hours that children watch television. Co-viewing mediation occurs when the parent and child watch a television program together, but the parent does not provide any guidance about the material presented in the television program. Finally, active mediation involves discussing television content with children. Messaris (1982) identified three functions of active mediation that included (a) categorizing television programs; (b) validating television portrayals; and (c) supplementing television programs with additional information. Additionally, active mediation can be both positive and negative (Austin, Bolls, Fuijoka, & Engelbertson, 1999). Parents can decide to reinforce the positive effects of the media or they can disconfirm the negative effects of television.

Significance of the Study

This dissertation explores parental mediation of adolescents' media experiences. The goal is to gain a deeper understanding of parental knowledge about the types and content of media consumed by adolescents, the quantity of media consumed by adolescents, and finally perceptions of parental mediation of television in the parent-adolescent dyad. Furthermore, the results of this study hold practical implications for public policy makers and parents. Specifically, this dissertation begins by reviewing the

literature about the nature of parent-adolescent relationships together with family

communication patterns and norms in parent-adolescent dyads. In addition, it explores

the effects of the media on adolescents including how adolescents actively use media and

the effects of the three types of mediation strategies on adolescents' interpretation of

television content. A rationale, research questions and hypotheses, method, results, and

discussion follows.

Chapter II

Literature Review

As mentioned previously, little to no research has addressed parental mediation in the developmental stage of adolescence. The vast majority of studies in parental mediation either focus on younger children or examine adolescents along with children. Additionally, studies have yet to examine the perspectives of both parent and child with regards to parental mediation of the media. This literature review will provide a brief overview of the nature of parent-adolescent communication, the influence of the media on adolescents, and parental mediation of television.

Parent-Adolescent Communication

Adolescence is a time where children begin to renegotiate their relationships with their parents (Noller, 1995). Children begin to seek autonomy, independence, and more control of their own lives. This renegotiation of roles can serve as a catalyst for conflict in the parent-adolescent dyad (Canary, Cupach, & Messman, 1995). Therefore in this stage, the influence the family has on the child tends to diminish (Larson & Richards, 1994), and parent-child communication also decreases (Noller & Bagi, 1985). Recently, the Kaiser Family Foundation in association with Family Circle magazine conducted a national survey to explore how parents and children communicate about issues such as sex, violence, and drugs (Ebron, 1999). Children from ages 10 to 12 reported getting their information about these topics predominantly from their mothers, but television, movies, and other entertainment were a close second. However, children between the ages of 13 to 15 reported receiving information from their friends, followed by the media, school and teachers, and the Internet. Mothers were a distant fifth. This clearly illustrates how parent-child interaction begins to diminish and adolescents seek information from

alternative sources such as their peers and the media. Also, this demonstrates how children disengage from their parents and begin to establish their own autonomy.

Furthermore, Guerrero and Afifi (1995) found that adolescents tend to avoid certain topics of conversation more than their pre-adolescent counterparts. Additionally, this study shows that children avoided discussing topics related to sexual experiences, friendships, dangerous activities, and negative events with their parents.

Finally, adolescents' self-disclosure to their parents also varied by the gender of the adolescent and the gender of the parent (Guerrero & Afifi, 1995; Noller, 1994; Noller & Bagi, 1985; Noller & Callan, 1990). Sons and daughters tended to disclose more information to their mother than their father (Guerrero & Afifi, 1995; Noller, 1994; Noller & Bagi, 1985). However, sons felt more comfortable discussing sexual issues, personal interests, and problem with their father (Noller & Callan, 1990). Overall, adolescents reported less self- disclosure and more topic avoidance with the parent of the opposite sex (Guerrero & Afifi, 1995; Noller & Callan, 1990).

Although communication between parents and adolescents decrease during adolescence, parents still play a vital role in the lives of their adolescents during this time. Noller (1995) suggested five characteristics that produce an ideal environment for adolescents: (a) adolescents feel able to renegotiate roles, rules, and relationships between the parents and the teenager; (b) parents cultivate an environment that enables adolescents to explore and formulate their identity; (c) parents enhance self-esteem rather than detract from the adolescents' sense of self-esteem; (d) parents serve as role models for problem-solving skills; and (e) parents encourage adolescents to take responsibility and make decisions about their lives. In order to create this environment, the communication between parents and adolescents plays a crucial part.

In summary, research indicates that communication between parents and adolescents diminishes during adolescence. Children tend to communicate more with their mother than father during these years, and adolescents start receiving information

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from other sources such as peers and the media. However, the communication between the child and his/her parents during adolescence is important in cultivating an environment that will produce a well-adjusted adolescent.

<u>Adolescents and the Media</u>

The media is a pervasive force in the lives of adolescents. Adolescents spend less time communicating with their parents (Guerrero & Afifi, 1995; Noller & Callan, 1990), and more time consuming media (Arnett, 1995, Arnett et al., 1995; Larson, 1995; Steele & Brown, 1995). Furthermore, according to Schutlze (1994) the time spent with the family and the amount of influence the family has over the adolescent decreases: the "high tech" world of the media replaces the "low tech" world of family communication. Furthermore, adolescents tend to turn to the media for socialization purposes (Arnett, 1995). Arnett et al. (1995) asserted that researchers should view adolescents as active media users instead of viewing the media as an entity that directly impacts adolescents' lives. The following section views adolescent media consumption from a uses and gratification standpoint and explicates adolescents' uses of the media.

Uses and gratification theory posits that people choose certain media to fulfill certain needs, and people will be affected by the media in various ways according to their own personal characteristics (Rubin, 1985). Uses and gratifications theory has three primary objectives. First, this theory strives to determine how people use the media to gratify their needs. Second, it looks to explain underlying motives for a person's media usage. Finally, the theory explicates the positive and negative effects of the media usage. One of the major assumptions of this theory is that individuals actively use the media. For example, Rubin (1979) identified six uses of television reported by children and adolescents that included using television to learn, to pass time, to relax, for excitement, for companionship, and for entertainment.

Continuing this research, Arnett (1995) identified a typology of five adolescent media uses. In this study, Arnett broadened the definition of media to include television, music, magazines, movies, and computers. The media uses that adolescents reported include entertainment, identity formation, high sensation, coping, and youth culture identification. Much like adults, adolescents use the media for entertainment value. Adolescents reported that music is one of the types of media that makes them most happy (Ban, 1986).

Additionally, adolescents also utilized the media for identity formation. This research indicated that adolescents use media to formulate ideas about gender roles, romantic scripts and occupational roles. They use the media to discover what it means to be a man or a woman and to form romantic and sexual scripts. The images presented on television, in magazines, and in other forms of media are important for adolescent identity exploration and formation. Finally, the media presents content that is useful for adolescents in developing ideas and gathering information about occupations.

Another use of the media for adolescents is high sensation seeking. The media provides a unique opportunity for extreme stimulation. For example, some adolescents may be drawn to action movies because it provides them with a feeling of risk taking. Further, Arnett (1991) found that heavy metal music fans like this type of music because it is "powerful" and "intense."

Additionally, adolescents utilized media in order to cope with everyday life, and the media presented different coping strategies that adolescents can use in their lives. Adolescents may use music and television to purge negative emotions. Larson (1995) argued that adolescents watch television to relieve the stress of everyday life.

Finally, the media allowed adolescents to identify with the youth subculture and reject their parents' norms and values and adopt those values of the subculture (Arnett, 1995; Roe, 1995). By consuming the same types of media as their peers, adolescents feel

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a greater connection with the larger youth subculture. This connection allows them to shun the values and beliefs that their parents hold.

Continuing with the concepts of socialization and identity formation, Larson (1995) explored the solitary uses of the media by adolescents. He argued that during adolescence, children experience a fragmentation of self, and the "private self" emerges. Teenagers utilize the media to explore numerous versions of the self. This fragmentation of self was seen further in a study of adolescent room culture (Steele & Brown, 1995). In some teenagers' room, media images of sexy celebrities and childhood posters of kittens and rainbows hung on the walls. Therefore, the researchers indicated that these intermingled images signaled a break from the childhood self and the emergence of the nascent adult self.

Additionally, the Adolescents' Media Practice Model theorizes the interaction between the media and teenagers' identities (Steele & Brown, 1995). This model posits that adolescents actively select media for some purpose, interact with the media, and then apply it to their lives. For example, a young girl who is breaking up with her boyfriend may turn to television to see how she should deal with the situation (selection). She then evaluates the content of the television program to learn the appropriateness for her life (interaction). Finally, she applies this information to her life (application). This model views adolescents as active media users who use media images to help them interpret their everyday lives.

To summarize, the media play a powerful force in the everyday lives of adolescents. Teenagers use the media for identity formation and socialization. They actively select the media they consume to fulfill some need or purpose in their lives. The media allows adolescents to contemplate possible versions of self. Additionally, media images enable teenagers to learn how to cope with difficult situations as well as learn about gender and occupational roles. Because the media has such a prominent role in the

lives of adolescent, it is important to understand how parents can mediate the impact of the media.

Parental Mediation

As mentioned previously, three types of mediation have been identified in the literature (Bybee et al., 1982; Valkenburg et al., 1999; van der Voort, Nikken, & van Lil, 1992). Restrictive mediation is rulemaking about the quantity and type of media consumed. Unfocused mediation or co-viewing is simply when a parent and child watch a television program together. Finally, active or evaluative mediation is interpersonal communication between parent and child that attempts to either reinforce or disconfirm media images. The following section reviews the research on the three types of mediation strategies.

Restrictive Mediation

Restrictive mediation deals with parents' rulemaking in regard to a child's media consumption. Restrictive mediation of the media has generally been examined through rulemaking about television or VCR use (Lin & Atkin, 1989; Van den Bulck & Van den Bergh, 2000a). Parents were more likely to enforce rules about television if they believed that television had anti-social effects on their children (Bybee et al., 1982; van der Voort, Nikken, & van Lil, 1992). In general, restrictive mediation of television leads to lower television consumption, but reduction in one media form usually lead to an increase in another media form that meets the same need (Van den Bulck & Van den Bergh, 2000a).

In their study of VCR rulemaking, Lin and Atkin (1989) found that parents tended to make rules for the sons rather than their daughters. Additionally, parents who made rules for TV/VCR prohibited their children from owning their own televisions or VCRs. Furthermore, in a study that surveyed parents of 3 to 18 year old children, van der Voort et al. (1992) discovered that restrictive mediation was employed less often with older children. Van den Bulck & Van den Bergh (2000b) argued that restrictive mediation increased conflict in parent-child relationships, spousal relationships, and sibling conflict.

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Along these lines, Nathanson (1999) worried that restrictive mediation is an ineffective means to mediate television content. She argued that restrictive mediation might backfire because restricting children's access to certain types of media may peak their interest. Thus, children will be more drawn to watch the media that has been restricted and will try to find a way to view the forbidden media content.

Co-Viewing or Unfocused Mediation

Co-viewing or unfocused mediation occurs when a parent and child watch television together, but the parent does not provide any guidance to the child about the content of the television program. Van den Bulck and Van den Berg (2000a) posited that co-viewing tacitly reinforces television content because when the parent allows the child to watch a program with them it sends a message that the content of the television program is acceptable and valuable.

Dorr, Kovaric, and Doubleday (1989) studied co-viewing mediation in second, sixth, and tenth graders. The researchers established that co-viewing is higher with parents who believed in television's power to exert influence over children. However, the main predictor of co-viewing was that the parent and child have similar viewing habits and like watching the same types of television programs. Co-viewing was more frequent with older children who possessed the same viewing habits as their parents. This means that co-viewing occurred less frequently with younger children who generally need more mediation. Finally, co-viewing did not impact children's reaction to television, but television programs aided children in learning about interpersonal relationships.

Active Mediation

The final type of mediation is active mediation or evaluative mediation where parents use their interpersonal influence to help their adolescents process media images (Austin et al., 1990; Bybee et al., 1982; Messaris, 1982; Valkenburg et al., 1999; van der Voort, 1992). Active mediation can take the form of both positive and negative mediation strategies (Austin et al., 1999; Krcmar & Cantor, 1997). For instance, if a parent wants to

reinforce media content he or she will make a positive remark that makes the media content more salient for their children. However, if parents disagree with media content they make comments that disconfirm the media message. Of the three mediation styles, active mediation has been the most widely researched. The following section discusses the types of active mediation, situations when active mediation should be employed, the impact of active mediation, and the negative ramifications of active mediation.

In the seminal study of active mediation, Messaris (1982) interviewed 119 mothers about their interaction with their children concerning television. Through these interviews, he identified three characteristics of active parental mediation: (a) categorizing television programs; (b) validating television portrayals; and (c) supplementing television programs with additional information. First, mothers taught their children the difference between fictional and realistic television programming. For example, one mother in the study reported that her child witnessed an actor's death on one program and then later the child viewed that same actor in a television commercial. This prompted the mother to discuss the fictional aspects of television. Secondly, mothers validated the realism of the portrayals on television. As children develop, they begin to compare their own life to those images depicted on television. Mothers reinforce accurate portrayals and explain unrepresentative portrayals. For instance, a child may question why his or her family is not like the one depicted on television. The final characteristic of active parental mediation was supplementing the information provided by television by the parents giving background information. In this study, television served as a springboard for conversations between parent and child about adult issues such a sex, divorce, crime, violence, drugs, etc. One child viewed a comedian making a joke about sex, and this was the catalyst for a conversation about human reproduction.

Bybee et al. (1982) explored situations in which parents (in this case the parents were media scholars) employed different mediation strategies. Parents were more likely to use active mediation when they perceived anti-social effects of the media.

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Additionally, parents also utilized active mediation when they noticed positive effects of television. Of the three types of mediation styles, media scholars who are also parents were least likely to employ active mediation strategies. van der Voort and van Lil (1992) successfully replicated this study with Dutch parents.

Austin et al. (1990) expanded on the work of Messaris and Bybee et al. by examining the effect of family communication on children's interpretation of television programs. The study examined 627 third, sixth, and ninth grader's perceptions of similarity and realism of a television family to their own family. Participants were randomly assigned to two groups. The treatment group watched the television program with their parent(s) and then discussed the program, and the control group viewed the program with their parent(s) and did not discuss the show. Active parental mediation influenced the child's interpretation of the television program regarding attitudes toward similarity, but not attitudes toward realism.

Austin (1993a) explored further active parental mediation by surveying 346 adolescents. This is the only study known to the author that exclusively examined adolescents. Based on Messaris' (1982) work, the researcher developed a Likert-type instrument tapping active mediation. She asked one question about each of the three characteristics of active parental mediation and an additional question concerning the frequency of mediation of television by the parents. The researcher also measured family communication norms, socio-orientation, skepticism, and communication warmth. This study shows that active parental mediation impacts adolescents' interpretations of television programming. However, active parental mediation was not a significant predictor of any of the above communication variables except skepticism.

Although active mediation only impacted skepticism about television content for adolescents, for young children in grades second to sixth, active mediation decreased television induced aggressiveness. Nathanson (1999) found that of the three mediation types active mediation was the only mediation strategy that reduced aggression in

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children. Restrictive mediation and co-viewing increased aggression in children.
Nathanson posited that active mediation works because it influences how important
children believe television is in their lives, and this mediation strategy makes children
less vulnerable to the anti-social effects of television.

Even though active mediation is effective in reducing aggression and increasing
skepticism about television, how parents and children perceive mediation attempts may
differ. Austin (1993b) investigated the role of intrapersonal perspectives about family
communication norms. Past research indicates that children and parents differ in their
perceptions of family communication patterns such as openness and conformity (Ritchie
& Fitzpatrick, 1990). Austin (1993b) also found that parents and children perceive family
communication norms differently. For children, parental involvement was the most
important aspect of communication norms. Austin (1992) argued that researchers should
consider both parent and child's perceptions of family communication patterns. These
differences in perceptions of family communication could potentially influence how
parents mediate television for their children and how children perceive this mediation by
the parents.

Building upon her work, Austin et al. (1999) identified a typology of active
mediation patterns that parents employed. Austin and her colleagues found four distinct
mediation patterns that included nonmediators, optimists, cynics, and selectives.
Nonmediators are parents who talk to their children about television content infrequently,
but they have the tendency to co-view with their children as frequently as optimists and
selectives. Optimists reinforce television content. In general, optimists possess a general
trustworthy attitude about television and have positive attitudes towards television.
Optimists also believe that it is acceptable to use television as a babysitter. Cynics
discussed the negative influences of television with their children. Cynics did not
consider television a good learning tool for children. Additionally, they reported the most
negative attitudes towards television and were skeptical about television. Finally,

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selectives utilize both positive and negative strategies when talking about television content. Typically, selectives take the middle ground between optimists and cynics about their attitudes toward television and the use of television as a learning tool.

Active mediation is a fruitful strategy for reducing the harmful effects of television. However, it has some potential drawbacks. In a survey of Flemish 10 to 11 year old students, active or evaluative mediation was correlated with increased conflict in the parent-child relationship and the sibling relationship (Van den Bulck & Van den Bergh, 2000b). This increased level of conflict may make parents apprehensive to employ active mediation strategies, thus explaining the finding that parents tend to use active mediation less frequently than the other strategies (Bybee et al., 1982; van der Voort et al., 1992).

In conclusion, active parental mediation of television programming has been presented as an important concept in parent-child communication. Parents who categorizie television programming, validate the accuracy and representativeness of these television shows, and provide supplemental information about program content, parents can influence how their children process television content. Parents may use positive or negative strategies to reinforce or disconfirm television content. However, children and parents' differing perceptions of family communication norms may influence the process of active parental mediation. Additionally, active parental mediation may increase conflict within the family which may make parents reluctant to employ this type of mediation.

Family Communication Patterns and Mediation Strategies

As mentioned previously, there are five characteristics that produce an ideal environment for adolescents' development: (a) adolescents feel able to renegotiate roles, rules, and relationships between the parents and the teenager; (b) parents cultivate an environment that enables adolescents to explore and formulate their identity; (c) parents enhance self-esteem rather than detract from the adolescents' sense of self-esteem; (d)

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parents serve as role models for problem-solving skills; and (e) parents encourage adolescents to take responsibility and make decisions about their lives (Noller, 1995). In order to achieve this environment, Noller (1995) stressed the importance of family communication patterns. Generally, parents who cultivate an environment of openness, support, minimal conflict, and moderate to low levels of control encourage this type of atmosphere (Noller, 1994, 1995). However, this environment may be difficult to achieve because adolescence can be characterized by high levels of conflict (Canary et al., 1995), decreased levels of parent-adolescent communication (Noller & Bagi, 1985), and decreased self-disclosure between parents and adolescents (Guerrero & Afifi, 1995; Noller, 1994; Noller & Bagi, 1985; Noller & Callan, 1990). These characteristics are contrary to the attributes of the ideal environment for adolescent development.

Interestingly, some characteristics that Noller (1995) described, such as renegotiation of roles, identity formation, and decision making, are some of the same uses adolescents have for the media (See Arnett, 1995; Steele & Brown, 1995). Thus, parents may need to communicate with their adolescents about their media usage in order to influence how their adolescents' interpret this content. Because open family communication patterns influence the ideal environment for adolescent development, potentially communication patterns within a family may influence the mediation strategies parents choose to employ with their adolescents. For instance, Austin (1993b) posited that family communication patterns may impact the type of mediation strategy employed. Research indicates two types of communication patterns exist in families: conformity orientation and conversation orientation (Fitzpatrick & Ritchie, 1990; Ritchie, 1990).

Conformity orientation pertains to families who emphasize sharing the same values, beliefs, and attitudes among all family members (Fitzpatrick & Ritchie, 1990). Furthermore, children are expected to conform to their parents ideas and not question these ideas (Baumrind, 1989). Families with high levels of conformity orientation wish

to maintain peace and harmony in the family and tend to avoid conflict (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 1997).

Conversely, conversation orientation climates emphasize open interaction among family members about a variety of different topics (Fitzpatrick & Ritchie, 1990). Parents typically are receptive to children's new ideas and encourages autonomous thinking (Fitzpatrick & Ritchie, 1990). Further, these families encourage conversations about controversial topics and embrace avoid conflict (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 1990).

Austin (1993b) found that parents and children may differ in their perceptions of family communication patterns. However, the relationship between these family communication patterns and restrictive mediation, co-viewing, and active mediation has yet to be explored. It is possible that the parents' perceptions of the family's communication patterns may predict the type of mediation strategy parents choose to utilize.

Rationale and Research Questions

Research in the area of parental mediation is still an understudied area especially in the developmental period of adolescence. Given that adolescents face different developmental tasks than children (Havighurst, 1952), enter a stage of identity exploration and crisis (Erickson, 1963), and are cognitively more developed than children (Piaget, 1971), these dramatic differences between adolescents and children can influence how the media impacts adolescents and how adolescents respond to parental mediation attempts. Further, Austin (1993b) found that parents and children view family communication norms differently and this affects how parental mediation strategies are perceived by different family members. However, no study has examined both parent and children's perceptions of mediation of television. It is important to understand how or if parental mediation strategies are utilized in adolescence and how both parents and adolescents discern the different mediation strategies.

Although mediation strategies have been successful in mediating the effects of television on younger children, little is know about parental mediation in adolescents. Austin (1993a) found that active mediation increased skepticism about television in adolescents. However, it is unclear how much knowledge parents possess about the media that their children consume. Schultze (1994) asserted that parents know very little about the media their adolescents consume, although this was not supported with empirical evidence.

Furthermore, little is known about parental knowledge of media across different media types (i.e. music, Internet, magazines). Arnett et al. (1995) argued that adolescents actively use different forms of media such as music, the Internet, and magazines. However, communication scholars have restricted the definition of mass communication to television (e.g. Austin et al., 1990; Bybee et al., 1982; Messaris, 1982; Valkenburg et al., 1999; van der Voort, 1992). Mazur (2000) asserted that this definition of mass communication should be broadened to include other media, and this expanded definition should offer more insight into adolescent's media consumption and parental knowledge of adolescent's media consumption. Additionally, little is known about whether parents are aware of how much media their adolescent's consume on a weekly basis. Research such as the Kaiser Family Foundation's (1999) study of children's media consumption focuses solely on self-reports of children. Parents' are knowledgeable of the time their adolescent spends watching television, being online, listening to music, and reading magazines is an unanswered question. Research questions were utilized instead of hypotheses due to the lack of research regarding parental knowledge of adolescent media consumption. Therefore, the following research questions are offered:

RQ1a: How knowledgeable are parents about the type of television programs their adolescent's watch?

RQ1b: How knowledgeable are parents about the amount of time their adolescent's spend watching television?

RQ2a: How knowledgeable are parents about their adolescent's online activities?

RQ2b: How knowledgeable are parents about the amount of time their adolescent spends online?

RQ3a: How knowledgeable are parents about their adolescents' music choice?

RQ3b: How knowledgeable are parents about the amount of time their adolescents spend listening to music?

RQ4a: How knowledgeable are parents about the types of magazines their adolescent read?

RQ4b: How knowledgeable are parents about the amount of time their adolescent spends reading magazines?

Although Austin (1992, 1993b) argued that parents and children differ in their understanding of family communication patterns, and that this potentially may impact the way parental mediation attempts are perceived and received by children. It is important to assess if parents and adolescents differ in their perceptions of parental mediation. Thus, the following research questions are offered:

RQ5: How do parents and adolescents differ in their reports of restrictive mediation of television?

RQ6: How do parents and adolescents differ in their reports of co-viewing mediation of television?

RQ7: How do parents and adolescents differ in their reports of active mediation of television?

The literature suggests that co-viewing is more frequent with older children because parents and children share similar interests in television programs (Dorr et al., 1989). Additionally, co-viewing is related to lower levels of conflict in the parent-child relationship (Van den Bulck & Van den Burgh, 2000b). Given that adolescence is a period marked by parent-child conflict (Canary et al., 1995), parents and children may

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wish to avoid more conflict in an already strained relationship. Thus, the following hypothesis is offered:

> H1: Co-viewing is the most commonly used mediation strategy in the parent-adolescent relationship.

Similarly, because active mediation is related to increased conflict in the parent-child relationship (Van den Bulck & Van den Bergh, 2000b), parents may want to avoid more conflict in this relationship. Also, active mediation is the least employed mediation strategy of the three mediation types in previous research (Bybee et al., 1982). Hence, the following hypothesis is offered:

> H2: Active mediation is the least frequently used mediation strategy in the parent-adolescent relationship.

Finally, family communication patterns such as parent-adolescent communication openness and conformity differ between parent and child (Austin, 1993b). Adolescence is a period characterized by conflict between parent and child (Canary et al., 1995), rebellion and self-exploration (Noller, 1995), and topic avoidance (Guerrero & Afifi, 1995). These communication patterns may potentially impact parental mediation of television. For instance, Austin (1993b) argued that family communication patterns might be helpful in predicting the mediation style parents choose to employ. Austin utilized Ritchie and Fitzpatrick's (1990) conceptualization of family communication patterns in her explanation. Ritchie and Fitzpatrick operationalized family communication patterns as two distinct concepts that include conversation-orientation and conformity-orientation. Conversation-orientation deals with openness of communication between family members, while conformity-orientation deals with family members' willingness to follow family rules and norms. Research has yet to explore if these patterns and norms are able to predict what styles of parental mediation parents will utilize with their adolescents. Therefore, the following research questions are offered:

> RQ8: Which family communication patterns predict restrictive mediation?

RQ9: Which family communication patterns predict co-viewing mediation?

RQ10: Which family communication patterns predict active mediation?

Chapter III

Method and Procedures

The following chapter reviews power analysis, the recruitment of participants for this study, sample characteristics and describes the procedures used to analyze the research questions and hypotheses.

Participants

Power Analysis

Hunter (1997) argued that Type II error, retaining the null when it should have been rejected, causes a high error rate in research published in psychological journals. Power is the chance of not making a Type II error. Power is the ability to detect the effect of the treatment. In order to increase power, the research can increase alpha, increase the sample size, or use a one tailed test. Cohen (1994) suggested conducting a power analysis before beginning a study.

Cohen (1992) explicated the sample size needed to detect a medium effect with an alpha set at .05 according to different statistical procedures. Since little to no previous research has been conducted concerning adolescents and parental mediation, a medium effect size was assumed. The present study utilized chi-squares with three degrees of freedom, t-tests, regressions, and one-way ANOVA with three groups. In order to detect a medium effect for a chi-sqaure with three degrees of freedom, the sample size would need to be 121 respondents. To detect a medium effect for a t-test, the sample size would need to be 64 participants. To detect a medium effect for regression, the sample size would need to be 76 respondents. Finally, to detect a medium effect for one-way ANOVA with three groups, the sample would need to be 52 participants. Based on the statistical analyses the largest sample size was used to establish the minimum sample size. Therefore, the minimum sample size for this study was 121 respondents.

<u>Recruitment of Participants</u>

Participants for this study were recruited from undergraduate communication classes at a large southwestern university. Students in these classes were asked if they have a younger sibling at home between the ages of 13-17. If the student did have a younger sibling living at home, then he or she was asked to take two surveys, home one for the parent and the other for the adolescent. These surveys were numbered and the student signed-out the survey. Each survey was returned to the researcher in a sealed envelope provided by the researcher. Students returned the survey directly to the researcher or to their instructor. When both surveys were returned to the researcher, the student received course credit for participating in the study.

The surveys given to both the parent and the adolescent were almost identical (See Appendices A and B). Students who volunteered to participate in this study were instructed to give both surveys to the parent. At that time, the parent read the written instructions (See Appendix C) asking them to carefully examine the adolescent's survey to assess its suitability for their child. If they believed it was suitable for their child, they were asked to sign and initial the bottom of the informed consent form acknowledging that they examined the suitability of the survey and gave their permission for their child to complete the survey. If they objected to the survey, they were instructed to give the survey back to the student who returned the survey to the researcher. No surveys were returned to the researcher.

After permission was granted for the adolescent to fill out the survey, each participant was provided with a brief explanation of the study, including its benefits and risks and were asked to voluntarily consent to participate in the study (See Appendices D and E for informed consent form). The parent and adolescent were instructed to fill out the questionnaires separately without discussion of their responses. All respondent information was confidential. The only identifying characteristics was a reference number that connected the parent's survey to the adolescent's survey and demographic

information such as age, gender, and hours of media consumption, etc. A total of 206 parent-adolescent dyads took part in this study.

Sample Characteristics

Of the 206 parent-adolescent dyads that participated in the study, the average age of the parents were 43 years (sd = 5.55) and the average age of the adolescents were 15 years (sd = .50). In terms of gender, 115 of the adolescents were male and 91 of the adolescents were female. Considering the relationship of the parents to the adolescents, 166 were the adolescent's mother, 37 were the adolescent's father, two were the adolescent's step-mother, and one was the adolescent's step-father. 74.8% reported being two-parent families, 9.7% reported being step-families, 11.7% reported being single-mother families, 2.4% reported being single-father families, and 1% reported being other family configurations. On average the parents reported working outside of the home for 31.65 (sd = 18.11) hours per week and talking to their adolescent for 16.20 (sd = 13.68) hours per week.

Adolescents were asked to report the amount of time they spent consuming different media per week. On average adolescents reported watching television 15.83 (sd = 12.65) hours per week, being online 7.18 (sd = 7.76) hours per week, listening to music 16.69 (sd = 18.85) hours per week, and reading magazines 1.83 (sd = 1.97) hours per week.

Questionnaire and Instruments

The two questionnaires used to analyze the research questions and hypotheses (See Appendices A and B) consisted of open-ended questions, established scales that assessed parental mediation, family communication patterns, and demographic information. A description of the open-ended question, the instruments, and their corresponding research question follows. Additionally, past reliability estimates for established instruments, as reported in the literature, are included.

Research questions 1a through 4b asked if parents are knowledgeable of the amount of time spent and content of television programs, online activities, music, and reading materials of their adolescents. Open-ended questions were designed to assess parental knowledge of each of these mass communication media. Parents were asked to list their adolescent's three favorite television programs, online activities, music groups, and reading material. Adolescents were asked to report their three favorite television programs, online activities, music groups, and reading material. These responses were analyzed for agreement. If the parent-adolescent responses did not match, they were coded as "none". If one response of the three matched, they were coded as "low knowledge". If two of the three responses matched, they were coded as "medium knowledge". Finally if all three responses matched, they were coded as "high knowledge". Additionally, parents were asked to estimate how much time their adolescent spends watching television, being online, listening to music, and reading. Adolescents were asked to report how much time they spend watching television, being online, listening to music, and reading.

Research questions five through eight asked whether parents and adolescents differ in their reports of restrictive mediation, co-viewing mediation, and active mediation. The Television Mediation Scale (Valkenberg et al., 1999) was utilized to ask parents how often they employ the three mediation strategies. This same questionnaire was modified to ask adolescents how frequently their parents employ each mediation strategy. An example of these modifications is the survey for the parents would ask "How often do you forbid your adolescent to watch certain programs?" and the survey for the adolescent would ask "How often does your parent forbid you to watch certain programs?" The Television Mediation Scale was comprised of three factors: active or instructive mediation, restrictive mediation, and co-viewing mediation. Parents were asked how frequently they employed each mediation strategy (measured on a four-point Likert type scale ranging from often to never). The adolescent survey was modified to

assess how frequently the adolescent perceived their parent employing each mediation strategy. The scale is composed of 15-items. Five items measure each television mediation strategy. The reliabilities for each factor were acceptable. The Cronbach's alpha values for active mediation was .80, restrictive mediation was .79, and co-viewing mediation was .79 (Valkenberg et al., 1999).

Hypothesis one posited that co-viewing would be the most commonly used mediation strategy in the parent-adolescent relationships. The Television Mediation Scale (Valkenberg et al., 1999) was used to determine the frequency of the mediation styles (see the description of the scale and its reliability in the discussion of research questions nine through eleven). Likewise, hypothesis two predicted that active mediation would be the least frequently employed mediation strategy. The Television Mediation Scale (Valkenberg et al., 1999) was also used to assess this hypothesis.

Finally, research questions eight through ten asked what family communication norms and patterns predict parental mediation. The scale used to measure the predictor variable was the Revised Family Communication Pattern Instrument (RFCP; Ritchie & Fitzpatrick, 1990). This scale consisted of 15 items dealing with conversation-orientation and 11 items dealing with conformity-orientation. The scale employed a Likert-type scale that asked participants to rate statements about their family's communication characteristics on a Likert-type scale from one to five with (1) indicating Strongly Disagree and (5) indicating Strongly Agree. Past reliability for this scale was reported as .84 (Cronbach's Alpha) for conversation orientation and .76 (Cronbach's Alpha) for conformity-orientation (Ritchie & Fitzpatrick, 1990). Finally, the Television Mediation Scale (Valkenberg et al., 1999) was used as the criterion variable to answer this research question (See the description of the scale and its reliability in the discussion of research questions five through eight).

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Data Analysis

After the completed questionnaires were received from the parent-adolescent dyads, the surveys were entered into SPSS 10.0 for Windows. This statistical program did all statistical analyses except for the conformity factor analysis. The Hunter and Hamilton (1988) performed the factor analysis.

Chapter IV

Results

This chapter reviews the results of the statistical analyses. First, the measurement model and reliabilities will be explicated, and then the results for each research question and hypotheses will be discussed.

Measurement Model

Confirmatory factor analysis procedures were performed on each factor of the two scales: active mediation, co-viewing mediation, restrictive mediation, conversation orientation, and conformity orientation. These data were consistent with the proposed five-factor model, in which internal consistency and parallelism yielded non-aggregious errors (See Tables 1 through 5 for obtained correlations, error terms, and communalities). A five item unidimensional solution was obtained for active mediation ($\underline{M}$= 2.41, $\underline{sd}$ = .72) which was reliable (Cronbach's Alpha, $\underline{\alpha}$=.86). A five item unidimensional solution was obtained for coviewing mediation ($\underline{M}$= 3.13, $\underline{sd}$ = .59). This scale was also reliable (Cronbach's Alpha, $\underline{\alpha}$=.86). A five item unidimensional solution was obtained for restrictive mediation ($\underline{M}$= 2.36, $\underline{sd}$= .83) which was reliable (Cronbach's Alpha, $\underline{\alpha}$=.87). A nine item unidimensional solution was obtained for conversation orientation ($\underline{M}$= 3.48, $\underline{sd}$= .78) which was also reliable (Cronbach's Alpha, $\underline{\alpha}$=.86). Finally, a six item unidimensional solution was obtained for conformity orientation ($\underline{M}$= 2.98, $\underline{sd}$= .79). This scale was reliable (Cronbach's Alpha, $\underline{\alpha}$=.72).

Research Questions 1a and 1b

Research question 1a asked how knowledgeable are parents about the types of programs their adolescent watches on television? To answer this research question a chi-square goodness of fit test was conducted to assess whether the parent possessed a high level, medium level, low level, or no level of knowledge about the television programs their adolescent watched. The expected values were the same for all analyses. The results of the test were significant χ^2 (3) = 40.76, $\underline{p}$ < .001. The percentage of parents who had no

knowledge of their adolescent's favorite television programs was 17%, low knowledge was 35.4%, medium knowledge was 36.4%, and high knowledge was 11.2%. The results indicate that the majority of parents possessed primarily moderate levels of knowledge of the television programs their adolescents are watching.

Research question 1b asked how knowledgeable parents were about the amount of time their adolescents spent watching television. To assess this research question, a paired-samples t test was conducted that compared the mean hours per week adolescents reported watching television versus the mean hours per week parents thought their adolescent watched television. The results of this test were non-significant, $t(205) = -1.00$, $p = .32$. The mean hours per week of television watch reported by adolescents was $M = 15.84$, $sd = 12.65$, and the mean hours per week of television watched by the adolescent as reported by the parent was $M = 15.00$, $sd = 9.50$. This indicates that parents are aware of the amount of television that their adolescents consume.

Research Questions 2a and 2b

Research question 2a inquired how knowledgeable parents are about their adolescents' online activities? To answer this research question, a chi-square goodness of fit test was conducted to assess whether the parent possessed a high level, medium level, low level, or no level of knowledge about online activities of their adolescent. The results of the test were significant χ^2 (3) = 25.34, $p < .001$. The percentage of parents who had no knowledge of their adolescent's online activities was 12.1%, low knowledge was 25.7%, medium knowledge was 36.9%, and high knowledge was 25.2%. The results indicate that most parents possessed some knowledge of their adolescents' online activities and many parents have moderate to high levels of knowledge about their adolescents' Internet habits.

Research question 2b asked how knowledgeable parents were about the amount of time their adolescents spent online. To assess this research question, a paired-samples t test was conducted that compared the mean hours per week adolescents reported

spending online versus the mean hours per week parents thought their adolescent spent online. The results of this test were non-significant, $t(205) = -.15$, $p = .88$. The mean hours per week adolescents spent online was $M = 7.19$, $sd = 7.76$, and the mean hours per week of online activities by the adolescent as reported by the parent was $M = 7.10$, $sd = 9.50$. This indicates that parents are aware of the amount of time their adolescents spend online.

Research Questions 3A and 3B

Research question 3a queried how knowledgeable parents are about the type of music their adolescents listen? To answer this research question, a chi-square goodness of fit test was conducted to assess whether the parents possessed a high level, medium level, low level, or no level of knowledge about the type of music their adolescents listened. The results of the test were significant $\chi^2 (3) = 33.11$, $p < .001$. The percentage of parents who had no knowledge of their adolescent's music type was 32.5%, low knowledge was 34%, medium knowledge was 24.8%, and high knowledge was 8.7%. The results indicate that the majority of parents possessed little to no knowledge of their adolescents' music preferences.

Research question 3b asked how knowledgeable parents were about the amount of time their adolescent spent listening to music. To answer this research question, a paired-samples t test was conducted that compared the mean hours per week adolescents reported listening to music versus the mean hours per week parents thought their adolescent listened to music. The results of this test were non-significant, $t(204) = -1.5\ 2$, $p = .13$. The mean hours per week of music listening reported by adolescents was $M = 16.69$, $sd = 18.85$, and the mean hours per week of music listen to by the adolescent as reported by the parent was $M = 14.77$, $sd = 14.72$. This indicates that parents are aware of the amount of time their adolescents listen to music.

Research Question 4a and 4B

Research question 4a investigated how knowledgeable parents are about the types of magazines their adolescents read. To answer this research question a chi-square goodness of fit test was conducted to assess whether the parent possessed a high level, medium level, low level, or no level of knowledge about the magazines their adolescent watched. The results of the test were not significant χ^2 (3) = 1.42, p = .70. The percentage of parents who had no knowledge of the magazine their adolescent read was 23.8%, low knowledge was 26.2%, medium knowledge was 27.7%, and high knowledge was 22.3%. The results indicate that parents were equally distributed among the different levels of knowledge for adolescent magazine use.

Research question 4b asked how knowledgeable parents were about the amount of time their adolescent reading magazines. To appraise this research question, a paired-samples t test was conducted that compared the mean hours per week adolescents reported reading magazines versus the mean hours per week parents thought their adolescent spent reading magazines. The results of this test were non-significant, t(205) = .61, p = .54. The mean hours per week of reading magazines reported by adolescents was M = 1.83, sd = 1.97, and the mean hours per week of reading magazines by the adolescent as reported by the parent was M = 1.95, sd = 3.06. This indicates that parents are aware of the amount of time their adolescents read magazines.

Research Question Five

Research question five asked how parents and adolescents differ in their perceptions of restrictive mediation. To answer this question a paired-samples t test was utilized to detect differences between the restrictive mediation scale scores for parents versus adolescents. The test was significant, t(205) = 6.07, p < .001, η^2 = .15. Parents reported employing restrictive mediation (M = 2.52, sd = .78) more frequently than the adolescents reported their parents using restrictive mediation (M = 2.19, sd = .85).

Research Question Six

Research question six asked how parents and adolescents differ in their perceptions of co-viewing mediation. To answer this question a paired-samples t test was utilized to detect differences between the co-viewing mediation scale scores for parents versus adolescents. The test was significant, $t(203) = 4.52$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .09$. Parents reported employing co-viewing mediation ($M = 3.21$, $sd = .54$) more frequently than their adolescents reported their parents using co-viewing mediation ($M = 3.03$, $sd = .63$).

Research Question Seven

Research question seven asked how parents and adolescents differ in their perceptions of active mediation. To answer this question a paired-samples t test was utilized to detect differences between the active mediation scale scores for parents versus adolescents. The test was significant, $t(203) = 9.56$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .31$. Parents reported employing active mediation ($M = 2.67$, $sd = .66$) more frequently than their adolescents reported their parents using active mediation ($M = 2.14$, $sd = .69$).

Hypotheses One and Two

Hypothesis one posited that co-viewing mediation is the most frequently employed mediation strategy by parents. Hypothesis two predicted that active mediation is the least frequently employed mediation strategy by parents. A one-way repeated measures analysis of variance was used to determine the difference among mediation type and the frequency of mediation attempts. The independent variable mediation type included three types of mediation: restrictive, co-viewing, and active. The three types of mediation styles were dummy coded from an interval variable to a discrete variable. The dependent variable was the frequency with which these mediation types were employed.

For hypothesis one and two, the repeated measures ANOVA was significant, Wilks' $\Lambda = .52$ $F(2, 203) = 93.27$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .48$. The individual cell means were analyzed using Tukey's HSD multiple comparison procedure. Tukey's multiple comparison procedure controls alpha error familwise, and it has been found to have

sufficient power (Toothaker, 1993). Three pairwise comparisons indicated that co-viewing mediation ($\underline{M}$ = 3.22, $\underline{sd}$ = .54) was more frequently utilized by parents than restrictive mediation ($\underline{M}$ = 2.52, $\underline{sd}$ = .78) and active mediation ($\underline{M}$ = 2.67, $\underline{sd}$ = .66), $\underline{p}$ < .001. All other pairwise comparisons were non-significant. Thus, hypothesis one was supported.

For hypothesis 2, three pairwise comparisons indicated that active mediation ($\underline{M}$ = 2.67, $\underline{sd}$ = .66) was less often used by parents than co-viewing ($\underline{M}$ = 3.22, $\underline{sd}$ = .54) , $\underline{p}$ < .001, but there was no difference between active mediation and restrictive mediation ($\underline{M}$ = 2.52, $\underline{sd}$ = .78), $\underline{p}$ = .07. Therefore hypothesis two was partially supported. Parents less frequently utilized active mediation than co-viewing mediation but not restrictive mediation.

Research Question Eight

Research question eight asked which family communication patterns predict restrictive mediation. In order to assess this research question, a multiple regression analysis was performed. The predictor variables were conversation orientation and conformity orientation and the criterion variable was restrictive mediation. Conversation orientation mediation ($\underline{t}$ (409) = 3.20, p = .002, confidence interval .06 to .27) and conformity orientation mediation ($\underline{t}$ (409) = 5.16, p < .001, confidence interval .16 to .36) were positively related to restrictive mediation, $\underline{F}$ (2, 409) = 15.37, $\underline{p}$ < .001, $\underline{R}$ = .27. The coefficient of multiple determination was $\underline{R}^2$=.07, which means that conversation orientation and conformity orientation accounted for 7 percent of the variance in restrictive mediation. Predictor beta weights, correlations, partial correlations, and $\underline{t}$ scores are reported in Table 6.

Research Question Nine

Research question nine inquired which family communication patterns predict co-viewing mediation. In order to assess this research question, a multiple regression analysis was performed. The predictor variables were conversation orientation and conformity orientation and the criterion variable was co-viewing mediation. Conformity orientation was not significantly related to co-viewing mediation (t (407) = .22, p = .83, confidence interval -.06 to .08) and was dropped from the analysis. However, conversation orientation was positively related to co-viewing mediation (t (407) = 7.79, p < .001, confidence interval .21 to .35). Conversation orientation predicted co-viewing mediation F (1, 406) = 63.14, p < .001, R = .38. The coefficient of multiple determination was R^2=.14, which means that conversation orientation accounted for 14 percent of the variance in co-viewing mediation. Predictor beta weights, correlations, and t scores are reported in Table 7.

Research Question Ten

Research question ten asked which family communication patterns predict active mediation. In order to assess this research question, a multiple regression analysis was performed. The predictor variables were conversation orientation and conformity orientation and the criterion variable was active mediation. Conformity orientation was not significantly related to active mediation (t (204) = -.26, p = .79, confidence interval -.13 to .10) and was dropped from the analysis. However, conversation orientation was significantly related to active mediation (t (204) = 3.90, p < .001, confidence interval .14 to.42). Conversation orientation predicted active mediation F (1, 406) = 52.96, p < .001,

R = .34. The coefficient of multiple determination was R^2=.11, which means that

conversation orientation accounted for 11 percent of the variance in active mediation.

Predictor beta weights, t scores, and correlations are reported in Table 8.

Chapter V

Discussion

This chapter reviews the purpose and rationale for this study followed by a

discussion of: (a) the results of the research question and hypotheses; (b) the implications

for the field of communication and practical implications; (c) the limitations of the study;

(d) directions for future research; and, (e) concluding remarks.

Review of Purpose and Rationale

This dissertation had three major goals in terms of gaining a better understanding

of parental knowledge and parental mediation of adolescent media consumption. The

results of this study provide a deeper understanding of the complex phenomena of parent-

adolescent communication about the media by (a) illustrating how knowledgeable parents

are about the types and quantity of various media that their adolescent consumes; (b)

explicating the differences in the perception of parents and adolescents regarding parental

mediation of television; and (c) explaining the relationship between the various types of

mediation strategies and family communication patterns.

It is important to reiterate that adolescents spend much of their time using some

form of media and less time communicating with their parents. Further, research indicates

that the media may impact adolescents' development. Adolescents tend to use the media

for self-socialization, entertainment, identity formation, high sensation seeking, coping,

and culture identification (Arnett, 1995). Given that adolescents spend a large amount of

their time using the media and the media may influence their development, it becomes

paramount that parents become actively involved in understanding and mediating their

adolescent's media use. Studies show that when parents discuss the images seen on

television with their children it has a positive effect in impacting how the children interpret these media messages (Alexander, 1994; Austin, 1993; Austin, et al., 1990; Messaris, 1982; Nathanson, 1999). For example parental mediation is effective in reducing aggression in children (Nathanson, 1999), increasing skepticism about television content (Austin, 1993), and decreasing television consumption (Van den Bluck & Van den Bergh, 2000). Unfortunately, most of this research focuses solely on children or combines children and adolescents. The majority of previous research has failed to focus exclusively on adolescents or if parental mediation of the media is occurring in adolescence.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Questions 1a through 4b

The first four research questions assessed how knowledgeable parents are about the type and the amount of various media that their adolescents consume. Past research and political pundits assume that parents know very little about what their adolescents are watching on television, doing online, listening to music, or reading in magazines. Further, little is known about whether parents are aware of the quantity of media that their adolescent consumes. Refreshingly, this study revealed that parents possess some knowledge about their adolescents' choice of television programs and online activities, and parents appear to be aware of how much media their adolescents are using. However, parents reported less knowledge of the type of music that their children listened to and the types of magazines their adolescents read.

Concerning television, the results indicate that parents possess little to some knowledge of their adolescents' favorite television programs. Additionally, parents

possess awareness of how much television their adolescents watched on a weekly basis. These findings may have three possible explanations. First, television viewing may be done in a communal area where it is easy for parents to unobtrusively observe what television programs are being viewed and how long adolescents watch television. This makes monitoring television viewing habits fairly simple for parents. Second, because both parents and adolescents reported that parents frequently used co-viewing mediation, parents simply may be watching the same television programs as their adolescents. Thus, this would make them more aware of the type of television shows their adolescent viewed and the amount of time spent viewing these programs. Finally, adolescents are busier today than in the past with extracurricular activities (Brooks, April 2001). This would mean less time for television and other media, and parents would be aware of how much time their children spend doing other activities because they are taxiing their adolescent to and from these extracurricular activities. Therefore, all the added demands on adolescents' time could make parents more cognizant of the amount of television their adolescents watch. Overall, these results indicate that parents are generally cognizant of the amount of time their adolescents spend watching television and possess some knowledge about the types of programs that their adolescents are watching.

Similar to television, parents were knowledgeable about their adolescents' online activities and how much time their adolescent spent online. The majority of parents had medium to high levels of knowledge about their adolescents' online activities. A possible explanation for this finding is that parents may be concerned about what their adolescents are doing online. The Internet provides an opportunity to meet people from all over the world and to access information on a wide variety of topics. Although many Internet sites

provide useful information, some sites give easy access to Internet pornography, the Anarchist's Cookbook, hate sites, etc. Obviously, parents would not want their adolescent accessing these types of sites. Further, the people that their children interact with online may be a potential threat to adolescents. For these reasons, parents would want to monitor closely what their adolescents do online and how much time they spend online.

Unlike television and the Internet, parents had little to no knowledge of the types of music their adolescents enjoyed listening, but parents were aware of the amount of time adolescents spent listening to music. There are several plausible explanations for this finding. First, listening to music is typically a solitary activity for adolescents. Adolescents may listen to music in their rooms or listen to music through earphones. Thus, parents have less opportunity to become aware of the music artists that their adolescents listen to. Furthermore, there exists a multitude of different types of music that adolescents choose to listen to and these artists are changing constantly. This means that parents would have a difficult time keeping up with their adolescents' changing musical tastes. Additionally, parents might not know the names of their adolescents' favorite artists or even know how to characterize this music, therefore making it difficult for parents to report their adolescents' favorite types of music. Finally, parents and adolescents may have different tastes in music. Parents may not want to listen to the same type of music that their adolescents listen to because they do not like their adolescents' choice of music. Although parents are not very knowledgeable about the types of music their children listen to, they are knowledgeable of the quantity of music their adolescents consume.

Finally, parental knowledge about the types of magazines that their adolescents read was equally distributed from no knowledge to high knowledge. Additionally, parents were aware of the quantity of time adolescents devoted to reading these magazines. Overall, adolescents reported reading magazines less than two hours per week. Because adolescents consume a variety of different types of media and consume more of those types than magazines, it is possible that parents do not think magazines are as important to monitor as television or the Internet. Given that parents reported working outside of the home an average of 32 hours per week, they need to choose which media are the most important to monitor because of time constraints. Finally, it is possible that parents may perceive that magazines have less of an impact on their adolescents given that adolescents infrequently consume this type of media.

Overall, the results of these research questions provide an encouraging perspective on parental involvement and adolescent media use. Generally, parents report that they are somewhat knowledge about the programs their adolescents watched and their adolescents' online activities. Additionally, parents appear to be aware of how much television, Internet, music, and magazines that their children consumed. These finding are contrary to the belief that parents are completely unaware and uninvolved in adolescent media usage.

<u>Research Questions Five through Seven</u>

Austin (1992, 1993) posited that parent's and childrens' perceptions of family communication patterns differ and that this may impact how children perceive mediation attempts. Past research in television mediation has yet to address the different perspectives of parents and adolescents. These three research questions indicated that

parents and adolescents do indeed differ in their perceptions of the three mediation strategies. Typically, the parent reported employing the mediation strategies more frequently than their adolescent reported their parent using the mediation strategy.

For restrictive mediation, parents reported using this strategy of making rules about television more often than their children perceived their parents using restrictive mediation. Past research has indicated that restrictive mediation may lead to more conflict between parents and adolescents (Van den Bulck & Van den Bergh, 2000b), and that restrictive mediation attempts may backfire because forbidding children to watch a certain television show may peak their interest in that program (Nathanson, 1999). Given that there are negative ramifications for employing restrictive mediation, it may be beneficial for children to perceive fewer rules about television viewing in the family. Thus, if adolescents perceive less restrictive mediation occurring, then this would not incur the negative consequences of restrictive mediation. However, parents may be over reporting their use of restrictive mediation for television because it is socially desirable to be mediating adolescents' media usage. Finally, these results should be interpreted with some caution because only a small amount of the variance was explained for this research question.

Similarly, co-viewing or a parent watching television with a child without providing any guidance was perceived differently by parents and adolescents. In general, adolescents reported watching television with their parents less than the parents reported. This may also have a positive implication. Van den Bulck and Van den Bergh (2000a) found that co-viewing tacitly reinforces television content to children. Thus, if a parent watches television with a child and does not make any commentary about the program,

the child can perceive that the content of the program is acceptable and valuable. Therefore, adolescents perceive less of this type of mediation this may possibly lead to a decrease in the amount of television content that is being tacitly reinforced. However, this result also must be interpreted with caution because of the small amount of variance explained by the independent variable.

Finally, active mediation where parents use interpersonal influence to aid their adolescents in interpreting media content was also perceived differently by parents and adolescents. As with the other mediation strategies, parents reported using active mediation more frequently than their adolescents reported their parents utilizing active mediation strategies. Active mediation can confirm or disconfirm media messages (Austin et al., 1999; Krcmar & Cantor, 1997). Furthermore, active mediation has been shown to reduce aggression (Nathanson, 1999), increase skepticism about media content (Austin, 1993), and influence interpretations of occupational roles (Messaris & Kerr, 1984). Thus, if adolescents are not aware of their parents' attempts to actively mediate television, they may not reap the positive effects of active mediation. Additionally, research indicates that adolescents use the media for identity formation and to develop romantic and social scripts (Arnett, 1995). Therefore, it is important for parents to be effective in their active mediation attempts to help mediate the influence of television on their adolescents' identity formation and script development.

One possible reason for this finding is that parents may not be effective in their active mediation strategy. Another plausible explanation is that adolescents may ignore the mediation attempts made by their parents. Finally, parents may be over-reporting the

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frequency with which they utilize active mediation because it is socially desirable to actively mediate adolescents' television consumption.

Overall, parents and adolescents differed in their perceptions of the three mediation styles. Parents tended to report that they more frequently employed mediation attempts than their adolescents noted these attempts. For restrictive mediation and co-viewing, this may thwart the negative consequences of restrictive mediation and co-viewing. However, because adolescents do not comprehend parents' active mediation endeavors, they may not receive the positive benefits of this type of mediation.

Hypothesis One and Two

Hypothesis one predicted that co-viewing would be the most frequently used mediation strategy by parents. Hypothesis two posited that active mediation would be the least frequently utilized mediation strategy by parents. The results indicated that co-viewing was the most frequently employed mediation strategy by parents. This is consistent with the literature which concludes that co-viewing occurs more frequently with older children because parents and adolescents may share similar television viewing habits (Dorr et al., 1989). Furthermore, a relationship between co-viewing and lower levels of conflict in the parent-child relationships has been established in past research (Van den Bulck & Van den Bergh, 2000b). Given that increased levels of conflict between parent and child characterize the period of adolescence, co-viewing is a strategy parents can use to monitor their adolescents' viewing habits without causing confrontation. Although co-viewing tacitly reinforces media content, if the adolescents do not perceive that parents are using co-viewing as a mediation tactic, then the negative

ramifications of co-viewing are less likely to occur. Thus, co-viewing may be an effective way for parents to monitor the types of programs that their adolescents are viewing.

Partial support for hypothesis two was indicated by the results. Compared to co-viewing, active mediation was less frequently employed by parents. Since active mediation is associated with increased levels of conflict in the parent child relationship (Van den Bulck & Van den Bergh, 2000b), parents may want to avoid additional conflict in the parent-adolescent relationship and choose a mediation strategy that would not serve as a catalyst for conflict such as co-viewing. Although active mediation was used less frequently than co-viewing, the results indicated no significant difference between the frequency of use of restrictive mediation and active mediation. This is inconsistent with previous research that suggests restrictive mediation was utilized more frequently by parents than active mediation (Bybee et al., 1982). One possible explanation for this is that the Bybee et al. study examined young children. While this finding may hold true for younger children, it may not hold true for adolescents because the two groups are developmentally different. Additionally, given that both active mediation and restrictive mediation are related to increased levels of conflict, once again parents may choose to avoid this conflict by selecting a less obtrusive television mediation strategy.

Research Questions Eight through Ten

Austin (1993b) hypothesized that family communication patterns such as conformity orientation and conversation orientation may help in predicting the mediation style parents select to utilize with their adolescents. The following three research questions inquired into the relationship between family communication patterns and restrictive mediation, co-viewing mediation, and active mediation. The results indicated a

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small, positive predictive relationship between conformity orientation, conversation orientation, and restrictive mediation. Also a small, positive predictive relationship was found between conversation orientation and co-viewing, and also between conversation orientation and active mediation.

Interestingly, both conformity orientation and conversation orientation had a positive relationship to predicting restrictive mediation. Conformity orientation deals with family members' willingness to conform to parental beliefs, values, attitudes, and family rules (Ritchie & Fitzpatrick, 1990). Considering that restrictive mediation emphasizes parents making rules for their adolescents about how much television can be viewed and what programs can be watched, it is a logical conclusion that these families would identify their family communication as conformity orientated. Surprisingly, the results showed a positive relationship between restrictive mediation and conversation orientation. Families that are conversation oriented have open communication between family members about a wide variety of topics (Ritchie & Fitzpatrick, 1990). These families also tend not to avoid conflict between family members (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 1997).

Because restrictive mediation has been associated with increased levels of conflict in the parent-adolescent dyad (Van den Bulck & Van den Bergh, 2000b), it is plausible that parents need to be willing to engage in conflict with their adolescents about the rules for television. Therefore, parents who employ restrictive mediation strategies should communicate in both a conversation and conformity orientated manner. Another possible explanation for this seemingly contradictory finding is that due to the large sample size of

this study, conversation orientation might only be significantly related to restrictive mediation because of too much power.

Furthermore, a small predictive relationship was found between conversation orientation and co-viewing. Intuitively, it would seem parents who were conversation orientated would want to do more than just merely watch television with their adolescents. If the emphasis is on a free exchange of ideas between parents and adolescents, then parents would want to discuss media content with their adolescents. Given that adolescence is characterized by conflict, adolescents finding their own autonomy from their parents, and adolescents spending less time with their parents, watching television may be a way for parents and adolescents to spend time together. Furthermore, parents who openly communicate with their adolescents may feel more comfortable with them and, thus, want to find ways to spend time with them. Simply, co-viewing may be a relational maintenance strategy for the parent-adolescent dyad.

Finally, the results illustrated a positive relationship between conversation orientation and active mediation. This finding is not surprising considering that conversation orientation emphasizes a free and open exchange of ideas between family members. In this type of environment, parents could feel free to use their interpersonal influence to impact their adolescents' interpretation of television content. Additionally, because conversation oriented families embrace conflict, the potential conflict active mediation may incur between adolescents and parents would not deter from parents from employing active mediation strategies.

In summary, the results of this study illustrated that parents are knowledgeable about the amount of time their adolescents spend watching television, doing online

activities, listening to music, and reading magazines. Encouragingly, parents also were somewhat knowledgeable about their adolescents' choice of television programs and online activities. Furthermore, parents and adolescents differed in their reports of how frequently parents utilized restrictive mediation, co-viewing, and active mediation. Parents typically reported using these strategies more often than their adolescent. Additionally, co-viewing was seen to be the most frequently used mediation strategy by parents. Finally, family communication patterns were helpful in predicting each mediation type.

Implications for the Field of Communication and Practical Implications

Implications for the Field of Communication

This study suggests several implications for the field of communication. First, it provides insight into adolescent media consumption and parental mediation in adolescence. This study illustrates how adolescents perceive parental mediation and extends the study of parental mediation to adolescents. Communication scholars have long been ignoring adolescents when studying the effects of the media on children. Adolescents have either been completely ignored in their analyses or grouped with children. As children and adolescents are developmentally different, it is important to study the effects of parental mediation on adolescents apart from children. The media are important aspects in the lives of adolescents. Given that adolescents utilize the media for developmental tasks such as identity formation, it is paramount that we in the communication field give adolescents the attention they so richly deserve.

Furthermore, the findings of this study suggest that parents are aware of the amount of media their adolescents consume and the types of media they consume.

Popular culture, politicians, and some research have assumed that parents are completely uninvolved in monitoring adolescent media consumption. This study calls into question this presumption and illustrates that parents appear to be aware and involved in their adolescents' media consumption.

Another important implication from this study is that this research has expanded the definition of what has been traditionally investigated as media. Many of the studies that focus on children and the media center solely on television. This study illustrates that adolescents are using not only television, but also the Internet, music, and to some extent magazines. Furthermore, this illustrates that parental mediation scholars need to broaden their focus on parental mediation to include the Internet and music. Because adolescents are using multiple forms of media, this research could provide parents with important information on how to mediate the impact of the Internet and music on their adolescents.

Additionally, this study emphasizes the importance of studying both parents' and adolescents' perceptions of parental mediation. Many of the studies in parental mediation either focus on the parents' perspective or the childrens' perspective. This study demonstrated that parents and adolescents differ in their reports of parental mediation. This may be due to parents communicating mediation ineffectively or to adolescents ignoring mediation attempts. For mediation to be effective adolescents need to perceive these attempts and parents need to be effective in communicating television mediation. Thus, studying both perspectives is critical for communication scholars studying mediation of television and other media forms.

Finally, parental mediation scholars should look to the literature in family communication to aid in predicting the mediation strategies parents decide to employ.

Noller (1995) found that an open communication environment that emphasizes supportive communication, free exchanges between parents and adolescents, and moderate to low control produces an atmosphere that aids adolescents' development. This study provides some support for the extension of this theory to parental mediation. A conversation-oriented family that emphasizes openness had a slight predictive relationship with co-viewing and active mediation. Scholars who study parental mediation may find it helpful to turn to theories in interpersonal communication to further their study of parental mediation.

<u>Practical Implications</u>

This study has several implications for public policy makers and parents. First, many politicians have advocated that television self-censor and not broadcast violent or sexually oriented programming in order to deter the detrimental effects of the media on children and adolescents. This position assumes that parents are in a position of powerlessness when confronted with the task of controlling what programs their adolescents watch and how they interpret this content. This type of public policy also assumes that parents are unaware of the programming their children view. Politicians believe there is a necessary trade-off between protecting our children and adolescents and freedom of speech.

However, this study indicates that the assumptions this trade-off is based upon are flawed. First, parents are not powerless to the media. Research illustrates that parents can and do use mediation to effect their children and adolescents' interpretations of media content. Second, parents are somewhat knowledgeable about the types of television programs their adolescents are watching. Also, parents understand how much media their

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adolescents are consuming. Furthermore, parents reported utilizing the three different mediation strategies. This indicates that parents are involved concerning adolescent media consumption and also may show that parents are concerned about the media their adolescents use. Therefore, public policy makers need to shift their attention from trying to censor the media and focus on aiding parents in becoming more effective in mediating television content as well as other types of media. Politicians should direct resources and funds into research that uncovers effective communication strategies parents can use to talk to their children about the media. This goes far beyond public service announcements that tell parents to talk to their children, to actually give parents the skills they need to communicate with their children and adolescents. Furthermore, the government could publish a periodical or a web site that gives overviews of the content of television programs, movies, and music. This would allow parents to become more informed about the media their adolescents are using. This information would be a helpful and time saving tool for parents when faced with the task of helping their children and adolescents interpret the media.

There are also several practical implications for parents stemming from this research. First, parents should be commended for comprehending their adolescents' media use and for trying to influence their adolescents' interpretation of media images. Although this study revealed that parents and adolescents differ in their perception of mediation attempts, this finding should not discourage parents from trying to mediate television and other media forms for their adolescents. Instead, it should make parents more cognizant of how they are trying to mediate the media. Parents should take note when a particular strategy seems to work well with their adolescents, and also ask them

for feedback about parental mediation. Additionally, because parents reported watching television frequently with their child, they should take that opportunity to ask their adolescent questions about what s/he thinks about the television programs. This also gives an opportunity to the parent to supply their own input about the content of the media.

Limitations

There are several limitations to the present study. First, given that undergraduates fulfilling a course research requirement recruited the participants for this research project, it is impossible to know who filled out the surveys and the veracity of the responses. Although the researcher is confident that the vast majority of students who participated in this study were academically honest in completing this assignment, there were three surveys that were completed in the same handwriting. These surveys were excluded from the analysis and the instructors notified. Additionally, someone other than the researcher administered these surveys, so respondents were not able to ask the researcher questions about any of the items. This may have increased the chance for inaccuracy of responses. However, the researcher did provide an e-mail address and phone number where she could be reached. A few parents did contact the researcher with questions or concerns they had about the survey.

A second limitation concerns the generalizability of the results. The sample for this study was drawn from a conservative Midwestern state. Additionally, the vast majority of respondents were from two-parent families and other family configurations were underrepresented in the sample. Furthermore, mothers were the overwhelming majority who filled out the parents' survey. This has several implications for this study.

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First, the results may not be generalizable to other regions of the country. Families from different areas of the country may be more liberal or do not think it is as important to mediate media for adolescents. Second, different family configurations may handle mediating television differently. Stepfamilies and single-parent families have different issues and challenges than traditional two-parent families. In single-parent families, the primary caretaker would have to work to support the family and would have less time to be concerned about adolescent media usage. Finally, mothers and fathers may handle the challenges of mediating television differently. Future studies would benefit from having a more diverse sample of families from across the United States, equal representation of different family types, and mothers and fathers responding equally to the survey.

The third limitation concerns the small effect sizes of several of the findings. Specifically for research questions five, six, and eight, the independent variable(s) explained seven percent or less of the variance in the dependent variable. Due to the large sample size of this study, it is plausible that Type I error has occurred. Thus, the null hypothesis may have been rejected when it should have been retained.

The final limitation is the cross-sectional nature of this study. The findings provide insight into only one period of adolescence. In fact, one parent reported that s/he would have responded differently to the questionnaire if they filled it out a few years ago. Therefore, it is necessary to examine adolescent media consumption and parental mediation through a longitudinal study. This would provide communication scholars with invaluable information into how parental knowledge of adolescent media usage and parental mediation changes through the period of adolescence.

Directions for Future Research

Although this study represents an initial attempt into understanding the complex relationship between parental knowledge of adolescent media consumption and parental mediation, this research brought to light many areas in parental mediation that need further study. First, more research needs to be conducted into the impact of the three mediation types on adolescents' interpretation of media images. Austin (1993b) found that active mediation increases skepticism toward media content, but other studies in parental mediation of television focus exclusively on adolescents or combine adolescents and children together. Thus, it is important to understand how mediation works in adolescence and its effectiveness in this developmental stage.

Additionally, communication scholars should also measure the social desirability of parental mediation when conducting these studies. Parents may believe that it is socially desirable to mediate their adolescents' media consumption. This may influence how they respond to the parental mediation survey. Parents may overestimate how frequently they employ the three mediation types because of social desirability.

A second fruitful direction in this research is to expand parental mediation of television to other media forms. For example, how are parents' monitoring/mediating their adolescents' online activities? The strategies that parents use to mediate television may provide insight into how parents mediate other forms of media. Additionally, the television mediation strategies may have to be modified or expanded to illustrate how parents are mediating the Internet, music, film, or even magazines. Additionally, because parents in this study were very aware of what their adolescents were doing online,

studying Internet mediation would provide useful and helpful information to parents dealing with the challenges of their adolescents venturing into the online world.

Finally, mass communication scholars have conducted the majority of research in parental mediation of television. However, this is an important area for interpersonal communication scholars to examine. This study indicates that parents may not be as effective in their mediation attempts or that adolescents are not listening to their parents' mediation attempts. Interpersonal scholars should focus on developing communication strategies that relay mediation messages effectively to both children and adolescents. Research on parental mediation illustrates that parents should talk to their children and adolescents about the media or make rules about the media, but this begs the question of how parents should effectively communicate these messages to their children and adolescents. Additionally, the communication strategies should be identified for television as well as other forms of the media. This research would furnish valuable information for parents on how to prosocially approach children and adolescents about their media choices.

Concluding Remarks

Parental knowledge of adolescent media consumption and parental mediation continue to be important areas for communication scholars, parents, and public policy makers to understand and explore. The media is a pervasive force in the lives of adolescence. Adolescents spend a great deal of their time watching television, listening to music, being online, and reading magazines. It appears that parents are concerned about the media their adolescents consume, and parents attempt to be knowledgeable about the content of that media.

A greater understanding of these areas has the potential to benefit the lives of parents and adolescents. If parental mediation can influence adolescents' interpretations of media content, parents would be able to help their adolescents better understand what is presented in various media forms. Additionally, this would empower parents over the media. Parents then could feel that they have more control over media's influence on adolescents.

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Table 1. Confirmatory factor analysis, obtained correlations, and error terms for the active mediation scale

Item	1	2	3	4	5
1	**.70**	-.01	-.01	.01	.03
2	.49	**.70**	.06	.00	-.04
3	.55	.55	**.79**	-.03	.00
4	.52	.52	.58	**.74**	.03
5	.55	.55	.62	.58	**.79**

Note. The lower left triangle is the obtained correlation, the upper right triangle is the error terms, and the diagonal contains the communalities.

Table 2. Confirmatory factor analysis, obtained correlations, and error terms for the co-viewing mediation scale

Item	1	2	3	4	5
1	**.82**	.05	-.02	-.04	.00
2	.67	**.82**	-.05	-.01	.00
3	.60	.60	**.73**	.05	.01
4	.62	.62	.55	**.75**	.02
5	.51	.51	.45	.47	**.62**

Note. The lower left triangle is the obtained correlation, the upper right triangle is the error terms, and the diagonal contains the communalities.

Table 3. Confirmatory factor analysis, obtained correlations, and error terms for the restrictive mediation scale

Item	1	2	3	4	5
1	**.66**	-.04	.08	-.03	-.03
2	.51	**.77**	-.04	.07	.02
3	.55	.64	**.83**	-.04	.01
4	.55	.64	.69	**.83**	.00
5	.46	.53	.57	.57	**.69**

Note. The lower left triangle is the obtained correlation, the upper right triangle is the error terms, and the diagonal contains the communalities.

Table 4. Confirmatory factor analysis, obtained correlations, and error terms for the conversation orientation scale

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	**.53**	.12	-.03	.00	-.04	-.01	.01	-.04	.00
2	.24	**.46**	-.05	-.06	-.02	.02	-.03	.05	.08
3	.32	.28	**.60**	.04	.06	.00	.01	.04	-.06
4	.42	.36	.47	**.79**	.00	-.05	.01	.05	.01
5	.37	.32	.42	.55	**.70**	.04	-.05	-.03	.04
6	.36	.31	.41	.54	.48	**.69**	.06	.09	.01
7	.37	.32	.42	.55	.49	.48	**.70**	.00	-.01
8	.31	.27	.35	.46	.41	.39	.41	**.58**	**.03**
9	.35	.30	.39	.51	.46	.44	.46	.38	**.65**

Note. The lower left triangle is the obtained correlation, the upper right triangle is the error terms, and the diagonal contains the communalities.

Table 5. Confirmatory factor analysis, obtained correlations, and error terms for the conformity orientation scale

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	**.41**	.07	-.01	.02	-.04	-.06
2	.25	**.62**	.05	.00	-.10	-.07
3	.20	.30	**.48**	.03	.02	.01
4	.23	.34	.26	**.55**	.02	.00
5	.25	.37	.29	.33	**.60**	.11
6	.25	.37	.29	.33	.36	**.60**

Note. The lower left triangle is the obtained correlation, the upper right triangle is the error terms, and the diagonal contains the communalities.

Table 6. Beta weight, correlations, and partial correlations for restrictive mediation

Predictors	Beta	Correlation	Partial Cor.	t
Conversation Orientation	.16*	.10*	.16	3.20
Conformity Orientation	.25**	.22**	.25	5.16

Note. *significant at the .01 level. **significant at the .001 level.

Table 7. Beta weights and correlations for co-viewing mediation

Predictors	Beta	Correlation	t
Conversation Orientation	.36	.36*	11.59
Conformity Orientation	.01	-.07	.22

Note. *significant at the .001 level.

Table Eight. Beta weights and correlations for active mediation

Predictors	Beta	Correlation	t
Conversation Orientation	.34*	.34*	3.90
Conformity Orientation	-.02	-.06	-.26

Note. *significant at the .001 level.

Appendix A

Parent's Questionnaire

Parent-Adolescent Communication about the Media

(Parent's Survey)

Instructions: Please complete the following question about how much and the type of media your adolescent watches, listens, or reads. **DO NOT** ask your adolescent about these questions. We are trying to assess your perceptions of their media consumption.

1. How many hours per week does your adolescent watch television?

2. Please list what you believe are your adolescent's three favorite television programs to watch.

3. How many hours per week does your adolescent spend online?

4. Please list what you believe are your adolescent's three favorite online activities.

5. How many hours per week does your adolescent spend listening to music?

6. Please list who you believe is your adolescent's three favorite music artists?

7. How many hours per week does your adolescent spend reading magazines?

8. Please list what you believe are your adolescent's three favorite magazines?

Instructions: The following section asks you to consider how frequently you do the following activities with your adolescent regarding television. Please rate the following statements on a scale from (1) to (4). A rating of a (1) indicates never; a (2) indicates rarely; a (3) indicates sometimes; a (4) indicates often.

1. How often do you try to help your adolescent understand what s/he sees on TV

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

2. How often do you say to your adolescent to turn off TV when s/he is watch an unsuitable program?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

3. How often do you watch together because you both like the program?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

4. How often do you point out why some things actors do are good?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

5. How often do you set specific viewing hours for your adolescent?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

6. How often do you watch together because of a common interest in a program?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

7. How often do you point out why some things actors do are bad?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

8. How often do you forbid your adolescent to watch certain programs?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

9. How often do you watch together just for fun?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

10. How often do you explain the motives of TV characters?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

11. How often do you restrict the amount of television viewing?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

12. How often do you watch your favorite programs together?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

13. How often do you explain what something on TV really means?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

14. How often do you specify in advance the programs that may be watched?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

15. How often do you laugh with your adolescent about the things you see on TV?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

Instructions: Please complete the following questionnaire assessing your perceptions of your family's communication patterns in general. Please rate the following statements on a scale from (1) to (5). A rating of a (1) indicates strongly disagree up to a rating of a (5) indicates strongly agree.

1. In our family we often talk about topics like politics and religion where some persons disagree with others.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

2. I often say something like "Every member of the family should have some say in family decisions."

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

3. I often ask my child's opinion when the family is talking about something.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

4. I encourage my children to challenge my ideas and beliefs.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

5. I often say something like "You should always look at both sides of an issue."

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

6. My children usually tell me what they are thinking about things.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

7. My children can tell me almost anything.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

8. In our family we often talk about our feelings and emotions.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

9. My children and I often have long, relaxed conversations about nothing in particular.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

10. I really enjoy talking with my children, even when we disagree.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

11. I like to hear my child's opinions, even when I don't agree with them.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

12. I encourage my children to express their feelings.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

13. My children tend to be very open about their emotions.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

14. We often talk as a family about things we have done during the day.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

15. In our family we often talk about our plans and hopes for the future.

    1   2   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

16. I often say something like "You'll know better when you grow up."

    1   2   .   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

17. I often say something like "My ideas are right and you should not question them."

    1   2   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

18. I often say something like "A child should not argue with adults."

    1   2   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

19. I often say something like "There are some things that just shouldn't be talked about."

    1   2   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

20. I often say something like "You should give in on arguments rather than risk making people mad."

    1   2   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

21. When anything really important is involved, I expect my children to obey without question.

    1   2   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

22. In our home, I usually have the last word.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

23. I feel that it is important to be the boss.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

24. I sometimes become irritated with my children's views if they are different from mine.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

25. If I don't approve of my child's action, I don't want to know about it.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

26. When my children are at home, they are expected to obey my rules.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

Instructions: Please complete the following demographic information about you and your family.

1. Your Gender: _____Male _____Female

2. Your Age: _____

3. Your Relationship to the Child: _____Mother _____Father _____Step-Mother

   _____Step-Father _____Other; Please Specify_____

4. Your Adolescent's Gender: _____Male _____Female

5. Please indicate what best describes your family type:

_____Two-parent, Biological Family _____Step-Family _____Single Mother Family

_____Single Father Family _____Other; Please Specify_____

Please place and seal the questionnaire into the attached envelope.

Thank you for your Participation!

Appendix B

Adolescent's Questionnaire

Parent-Adolescent Communication about the Media

(Adolescent's Survey)

Instructions: Please complete the following question about how much and the type of media you watch, listen, or read. **DO NOT** discuss your answers with your parents until you have finished completing the survey.

1. How many hours per week do you watch television?

2. Please list your three favorite television programs to watch.

3. How many hours per week do you spend online?

4. Please list what your three favorite online activities.

5. How many hours per week do you spend listening to music?

6. Please list your three favorite music artists?

7. How many hours per week do you spend reading magazines?

8. Please list your three favorite magazines.

Instructions: The following section asks you to consider how frequently your mother or father does the following activities with you when you watch television. As you respond to each answer, think of the parent who filled out the other questionnaire. Please rate the following statements on a scale from (1) to (4). A rating of a (1) indicates never; a (2) indicates rarely; a (3) indicates sometimes; a (4) indicates often.

1. How often does your parent try to help you understand what you see on TV?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

2. How often does your parent say to you to turn off TV when you are watch an unsuitable program?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

3. How often do you watch together because you both like the program?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

4. How often does your parent point out why some things actors do are good?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

5. How often does your parent set specific viewing hours for you?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

6. How often do you watch together because of a common interest in a program?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

7. How often does your parent point out why some things actors do are bad?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

8. How often does your parent forbid you to watch certain programs?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

9. How often do you watch together just for fun?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

10. How often does your parent explain the motives of TV characters?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

11. How often does your parent restrict the amount of television viewing?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

12. How often do you watch your favorite programs together?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

13. How often does your parent explain what something on TV really means?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

14. How often does your parent specify in advance the programs that may be watched?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

15. How often do you laugh with your parent about the things you see on TV?

1	2	3	4
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often

Instructions: Please complete the following questionnaire assessing your perceptions of your family's communication patterns in general. Please rate the following statements on a scale from (1) to (5). A rating of a (1) indicates strongly disagree up to a rating of a (5) indicates strongly agree.

1. In our family we often talk about topics like politics and religion where some persons disagree with others.

    1   2   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

2. My parents often say something like "Every member of the family should have some say in family decisions."

    1   2   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

3. My parents often ask my opinion when the family is talking about something.

    1   2   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

4. My parents encourage me to challenge their ideas and beliefs.

    1   2   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

5. My parents often say something like "You should always look at both sides of an issue."

    1   2   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

6. I usually tell my parents what I am thinking about things.

    1   2   3   4   5
    Strongly   Strongly
    Disagree   Agree

7. I can tell my parents almost anything.

1   2   3   4   5
Strongly   Strongly
Disagree   Agree

8. In our family we often talk about our feelings and emotions.

1   2   3   4   5
Strongly   Strongly
Disagree   Agree

9. My parents and I often have long, relaxed conversations about nothing in particular.

1   2   3   4   5
Strongly   Strongly
Disagree   Agree

10. I really enjoy talking with my parents, even when we disagree.

1   2   3   4   5
Strongly   Strongly
Disagree   Agree

11. My parents like to hear my opinions, even when they don't agree with me.

1   2   3   4   5
Strongly   Strongly
Disagree   Agree

12. My parents encourage me to express my feelings.

1   2   3   4   5
Strongly   Strongly
Disagree   Agree

13. My parents tend to be very open about their emotions.

1   2   3   4   5
Strongly   Strongly
Disagree   Agree

14. We often talk as a family about things we have done during the day.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

15. In our family we often talk about our plans and hopes for the future.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

16. My parents often say something like "You'll know better when you grow up."

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

17. My parents often say something like "My ideas are right and you should not question them."

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

18. My parents often say something like "A child should not argue with adults."

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

19. My parents often say something like "There are some things that just shouldn't be talked about."

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

20. My parents often say something like "You should give in on arguments rather than risk making people mad."

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

21. When anything really important is involved, my parents expect me to obey without question.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

22. In our home, my parents usually have the last word.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

23. My parents feel that it is important to be the boss.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

24. My parents sometimes become irritated with my views if they are different from theirs.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

25. If my parents don't approve of it, they don't want to know about it.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

26. When I am at home, I am expected to obey my parents' rules.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree

Please place and seal the questionnaire into the attached envelope.

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix C

Instruction Letter

February 11, 2001

Dear Parent:

My name is Michelle Mazur, and I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Oklahoma. Currently, I am conducting research into parent-adolescent communication and the media. This survey should take no more than 15 to 20 minutes for you and your adolescent to complete separately.

At this time, I would like to ask you to look over the adolescent questionnaire (green survey) to assess its appropriateness for your child. If you believe it is appropriate for your child, please give the questionnaire to him/her along with the informed consent form and envelope. Next, please complete the informed consent form and the parental questionnaire (blue survey). You and your child should complete the surveys **SEPARATELY** without discussing your answers. If you do not wish to participate or do not believe this material is appropriate for you child, please return the entire packet to the individual who asked you to participate in this study.

I greatly appreciate your participation in this study. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me via phone (405) 292-9905 or email shellann@ou.edu.

Thank you,

Michelle A. Mazur
Doctoral Candidate

Appendix D

Informed Consent Form (Parent)

Parental Consent Form
University of Oklahoma, Norman
for
An Examination of Parental Knowledge of Adolescent Media Consumption and Parental Mediation

This research is being conducted under the auspices of the University of Oklahoma-Norman Campus. This document is a parental consent form for participation in this research project. Please look over the attached questionnaire carefully to assess if it is appropriate for your child.

Principal investigator: Michelle Mazur
                      Department of Communication
Faculty Sponsor: Dr. Dan O'Hair
                      Department of Communication

Description: This study is exploring parental knowledge of media consumption and how parents and adolescents communication about television and other media forms.

There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts to the subject as a result of participation in the study. Participants do stand to benefit from a greater knowledge of adolescent media consumption and parent-adolescent communication.

Approximate Duration of Study: 15-20 Minutes

I hereby give my consent to participate in this study. I understand that:

1. I carefully examined this questionnaire and give my permission for my child to complete the questionnaire.

2. My child's participation in this study is entirely voluntary. Refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which my child is entitled.

3. My child may terminate my participation at any time during the duration of this study without penalty.

4. Any information my child may give during my participation will be used for research purposes only. Responses will not be shared with persons who are not directly involved with this study.

5. All information my child gives will be kept confidential and will be used in such a way that identification of my child as a participant is impossible.

6. I understand that there are no foreseeable risks to my child for participating in this study.

7. I know that the investigators are available to answer any questions I may have regarding this research study.

8. I grant consent for my child, _____, to participate in this research project. Initials___   Child's Name
If you have any questions, you can reach the investigator Michelle Mazur by phone at 325-7767, by e-mail (shellann@ou.edu), or by contacting the Department of Communication, 101 Burton Hall, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK, 73019. In addition if you have questions regarding the rights of research participants, please contact the Office of Research Administration at 325-4757.

Name: _____

Signature: _____   Date: _____

Appendix E

Individual Informed Consent Form (Adolescent)

Individual Informed Consent Form for Research (Adolescent)
University of Oklahoma, Norman
for
An Examination of Parental Knowledge of Adolescent Media Consumption and Parental Mediation

This research is being conducted under the auspices of the University of Oklahoma-Norman Campus. This document is your consent form for participation in this research project.

Principal investigator: Michelle Mazur
                           Department of Communication
Faculty Sponsor: Dr. Dan O'Hair
                           Department of Communication

Description: This study is exploring parental knowledge of media consumption and how parents and adolescents communication about television and other media forms.

There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts to the subject as a result of participation in the study. Participants do stand to benefit from a greater knowledge of adolescent media consumption and parent-adolescent communication.

Approximate Duration of Study: 15-20 Minutes

I hereby give my consent to participate in this study. I understand that:

1. I must be 18 years of age to participate in this study or have my parent's permission to participate in this study.

2. My participation in this study is entirely voluntary. Refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which I am entitled.

3. I may terminate my participation at any time during the duration of this study without penalty.

4. Any information I may give during my participation will be used for research purposes only. Responses will not be shared with persons who are not directly involved with this study.

5. All information I give will be kept confidential and will be used in such a way that identification of me as a participant is impossible.

6. I understand that there are no foreseeable risks for participating in this study.

7. I understand that if I am participating in this experiment to obtain course research participation credit and I decide to withdraw from participating, I might not get the course credit associated with the experiment.

8. I know that the investigators are available to answer any questions I may have regarding this research study.
If you have any questions, you can reach the investigator Michelle Mazur by phone at 325-7767, by e-mail (shellann@ou.edu), or by contacting the Department of Communication, 101 Burton Hall, University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK, 73019. In addition if you have questions regarding the rights of research participants, please contact the Office of Research Administration at 325-4757.

Name: _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Appendix F

Institutional Review Board Approval

The University of Oklahoma
OFFICE OF RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION

February 7, 2001

Ms. Michelle A. Mazur
University of Oklahoma
Communication
CAMPUS MAIL

Dear Ms. Mazur:

The Institutional Review Board-Norman Campus has reviewed your proposal, "An Examination of Parental Knowledge of Adolescent Media Consumption and Parental Mediation," under the University's expedited review procedures. The Board found that this research would not constitute a risk to participants beyond those of normal, everyday life, except in the area of privacy, which is adequately protected by the confidentiality procedures. Therefore, the Board has approved the use of human subjects in this research.

This approval is for a period of twelve months from this date, provided that the research procedures are not changed significantly from those described in your "Application for Approval of the Use of Humans Subjects" and attachments. Should you wish to deviate significantly from the described subject procedures, you must notify me and obtain prior approval from the Board for the changes.

At the end of the research, you must submit a short report describing your use of human subjects in the research and the results obtained. Should the research extend beyond 12 months, a progress report must be submitted with the request for re-approval, and a final report must be submitted at the end of the research.

Sincerely yours,

Susan Wyedwick, Ph.D.
Administrative Officer
Institutional Review Board-Norman Campus

SWS:pw
FYOI-172

Cc: Dr. E. Laurette Taylor, Chair, Institutional Review Board Dr. Dan O'Hair, Communication