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A Study of Some Effects of Commercial Television on Seventh and Eighth Grade Students in the Chehalis Public Schools

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**A STUDY OF SOME EFFECTS OF COMMERCIAL TELEVISION
ON SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADE STUDENTS
IN THE CHEHALIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS**

**A Thesis
Presented to
the Graduate Faculty
Central Washington College of Education**

**In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Education**

**by
James W. Pomerenk
August 1959**

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by

James L. Pomeroy

August 1972

APPROVED FOR THE GRADUATE FACULTY

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

Parents and educators have shown deep concern over the effects of commercial television on young viewers since its advent throughout most of this country in 1950. Much of the criticism television originally received was not well founded. Research has dispelled some of the fears, and much has merely subsided through time. Yet those persons vitally concerned recognize that television in itself is neither beneficial nor detrimental, but has the potential of being either or both depending upon how it is used. It becomes essential that this medium be properly assessed in order to help children live with it and use it as a tool and potential influence for better living.

Television, available to most every child in this country, holds a tremendous fascination for its youthful viewers. When unrestricted, they tend to take it uncritically and in great quantities. Parents and teachers have an obligation to concern themselves with what is going on in television, how it is being used, and how children are reacting to it. With increased knowledge of the effects television has on children, it becomes easier to find the proper place for this medium in children's lives so that

it can make a positive contribution and not dominate their time and thoughts.

I. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Statement of purpose. It was the purpose of this study to determine (1) how much time a sample of seventh and eighth grade students spend viewing television; (2) how this time compares with the amount of time they spend at all other activities; (3) what television programs are their favorites; (4) how much guidance they receive in their television viewing; (5) the relationship of church attendance to the quality of programs viewed; (6) the role of living in the city or the country as related to the amount of viewing; and, finally, (7) if there are significant relationships between the amount and quality of television viewing and such factors as adjustment, intelligence, academic achievement, and guidance in television viewing.

Hypotheses to be tested. A more clearly defined manner of stating the purpose of this study is to do so in the form of specific statements or hypotheses to be tested. The first four hypotheses have been stated in positive form. The validity of these statements required testing on the basis of data gathered in this study.

Hypotheses:

1. Children not restricted in total amount of television (TV) viewing tend to watch it excessively.

2. Excessive viewing occupies a disproportionate amount of children's time; so much that they are unable to achieve a satisfactory balance of activities necessary for proper health and for satisfactory social and mental adjustment.

3. Children living in the city spend a greater amount of time viewing television than do children living in the country.

4. Children who attend church and Sunday school every week are less apt to watch programs featuring violence than are those who do not attend church and Sunday school every week.

The last five hypotheses to be tested are expressed in the form of null hypotheses. The test of the null hypothesis determines if a significant relationship exists between the two variables. Rejecting the null hypothesis is the same as saying that a significant relationship exists without implication as to why. If the null hypothesis can be rejected, it is possible to determine the level of confidence of this rejection, i.e., the amount of confidence one can place in the relationship. If the

null hypothesis cannot be rejected, no significant relationship exists between variables.

Null hypotheses:

1. There is no significant relationship between total time spent viewing television and adjustment as judged by teachers.

2. There is no significant relationship between total time spent viewing television and academic achievement.

3. There is no significant relationship between total time spent viewing television and intelligence.

4. There is no significant relationship between the number of violence programs listed as favorite programs and psychological adjustment as judged by teachers.

5. There is no significant relationship between the number of violence programs listed as favorite programs and the amount of guidance received in the choice of programs.

II. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Commercial television. Throughout this investigation, "commercial television" was interpreted as any and all presentations appearing on open circuit television, sponsored financially by a commercial company, corporation,

or agency. Such programs may be viewed without cost or restriction. This includes sponsored presentations originating from the local transmitting station as well as programs made available through nation-wide television networks.

Television viewing. In this study "television viewing" or "viewing" means the act of watching the visual image while listening to the audio portion of a telecast presentation reproduced by a television set. Viewing need not be the only activity the viewer is engaged in, provided the other activity does not prevent the viewer from following the audio and visual portions of the television presentation.

Excessive viewing. For the purposes of this study "excessive viewing" was interpreted as an amount of time spent in viewing television that precluded or prevented the student from engaging in a balance of activities. A well balanced schedule of activities would provide time for activities essential for proper physical development as well as satisfactory psychological and social adjustment. Such activities would not be the same for all children nor would the total time devoted to them be the same in all cases; however, it would not be possible to devote sufficient time to these essential activities if

more than four hours a day were spent viewing television. Excessive viewing, therefore, has been considered as any amount of viewing time in excess of four hours a day or twenty-eight hours a week.

Violence programs. Throughout the investigation all Western dramas (Westerns) and all suspense dramas (mysteries) presented on television were considered to be "violence programs." Programs having violence, aggression, or horror as main ingredients are also often presented in other types such as dramatic shows, adventure shows, or television movies, but these also include many non-violent programs. With these program types it would be necessary to assess each presentation to determine if it were of a violent nature, but in Westerns and mysteries only very rare exceptions do not feature violence.

Viewing guidance. "Viewing guidance" was interpreted as a two phase process involving control and direction in children's television viewing. For the purpose of this study, any restriction in amount of viewing and any effort to influence selection of programs was considered to be viewing guidance, regardless of whether the influence were authoritarian or democratic.

Viewing traits. This term was interpreted as meaning the viewer's usual television viewing habits and customs. Viewing traits might include his general manner of viewing, i.e., planned or unplanned; the basis for his program choices; and his willingness to discontinue viewing when he didn't care for any of the presentations offered.

III. IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

A television set occupies a place of prominence in most homes in the Chehalis, Washington area, and is viewed regularly by most adults and children within these homes. The seventh and eighth grade students represent only a portion of these viewers, but a very important portion. Patterns of behavior and standards of ethics and morality established in childhood are being questioned; new values are being developed. At this age they seem to turn less and less to their parents for advice and counsel, and instead look more to the example of their peers and other sources outside the home. One of these sources of influence is television, which occupies a definite portion of most adolescents' time. The nature of commercial television's influence on its youthful audience is still not completely understood, despite considerable research already performed.

Perhaps complete understanding of a problem of this magnitude, with so many related factors, can never be accomplished. But investigation on all levels, in a variety of research settings will undoubtedly produce more factual knowledge regarding the problem. Increased understanding and insight resulting from an analysis of these facts should assist teachers and parents in providing children with effective guidance and direction in television viewing.

IV. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study is primarily based on data gathered with a questionnaire administered to a sample of young adolescents, the seventh and eighth graders of Chehalis, Washington. The questionnaire, discussed in detail in Chapter III, has certain recognized weaknesses. First, it must be recognized that the students personally supplied all the data necessary to complete the questionnaire. They placed their names on them and thus identified themselves with the information provided. It seems natural to the author, therefore, to expect some of them to be a little too "discreet" and "conservative" in their answers to avoid possibly placing themselves in position for criticism. The author's personal knowledge of most of the students, however, leads him to believe that the group as a whole

completed the questionnaire as accurately and honestly as could be expected under the circumstances.

Second, the author recognizes that the data contained in the weekly schedule is subject to error for several reasons. Accomplishing this part of the questionnaire proved to be too difficult, arithmetically, for some of the students. Also, completing it accurately required a good deal of work and considerable time. There is reason to believe that a few students sacrificed accuracy in completing the schedule hastily and without care. This was too difficult a task for the slower students. Though willing to complete it properly, they lacked the arithmetic skill and concentration in abstract thought to fill out the schedule properly. This does not invalidate the results of Section III and IV. It indicates only that the data is subject to some error.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A great deal of writing on the subject of television's effect on children has appeared in various types of materials in the past ten years. In fact, the amount is so great and the subject so broad that only the selections dealing with the effects of television viewing on junior high age children will be considered here. However, a study of the effects of television viewing would have no logical beginning without a background of basic facts about the availability of the medium and about children's viewing habits. Such a study would also be incomplete without a guide to future action. Therefore, this review consists of three major parts: (1) a background of children's viewing habits, (2) the effects this viewing has on children, and (3) some contemporary ideas for increasing favorable effects of this medium.

I. BACKGROUND OF VIEWING HABITS

Television in America dates back as far as 1931, when practical broadcasting and receiving sets first became available. Commercial TV was displayed at the 1939 World's Fair. But for industry, modern television began in 1949, when commercial sponsorship started in volume and

three million sets were sold. Others date the real beginning from 1952, when the Federal Communications Commission lifted a three year "freeze" on new broadcasting permits. In 1955 a total of 441 stations beamed programs to a potential 95 per cent of the population. In 1955 thirty-three million homes had TV, and this number is expected to increase to 55 million by 1965 (21:76).

As an indication of the increase of TV ownership, Carl Witty's studies of children in the areas of Evanston, Illinois, Chicago, and Kenosha County, Wisconsin, indicate that in 1950, 43 per cent of the children had TV sets in their homes and in 1957 this percentage had risen to 97 per cent. Some children report two sets in their home; a few have three, including color (29:287).

A measure of the availability of television is reported in the March 16, 1959, issue of Broadcasting, the TV industry's trade magazine, which reported that 44 million, 86 per cent of this country's homes, have TV (22:116).

There is considerable disagreement about many aspects of children's television viewing. However, most writers now can agree on at least two points: (1) television is tremendously fascinating to most children, and (2) television is here to stay.

Amount of viewing. All studies do not agree on the amount of time children spend with television. In 1950 many believed TV would be a passing fancy, but recent studies show children now spend almost as much time with TV as when it first moved into their homes. In 1950, elementary pupils spent 21 hours a week televiewing; in 1955, 23 hours; in 1957, about 22 hours. The average for high school pupils was 14 hours in 1955 and 12 hours in 1957 (29:287).

In a 1951 study in Ann Arbor, Battin found that sixth, seventh, and eighth grade students watched TV more than any other group, with between 22 and 26 hours spent viewing each week (2:18). Johnson confirmed this number in stating that if allowed to do so, children between the ages of 7 and 13 view 20-30 hours a week (15:365). In an attempt to explain excessive viewing, Josette Frank has stated that an over-amount of viewing for some children is escape from monotony of the daily routine, for others it may be a substitute for action or adventure lacking in their lives; and still others just can't think of anything else to do (9:3-4).

The fact that TV occupies a great deal of our time is shown in the following report from the March 10, 1956, issue of Business Week:

Last year in homes with television sets -- three quarters of all the families in the country -- more total time was spent watching television than in any other single activity except sleep (21:76).

Pattern of viewing. Studies show that a general pattern of viewing is established by children of various age groups. Children of all ages, Battin reported, tend to watch most programs in conjunction with other members of the family. The same study indicated that the sixth, seventh, and eighth graders' pattern involves heaviest viewing on weekends. Pupils indicated that they were permitted to stay up later for TV on Friday night (2:18).

Although children spend somewhat different amounts of time with TV at various age levels, these differences are small in comparison to changes that take place in their program preferences. These changes are most vividly shown in the reasons children of different ages give for program preferences. Battin found that children in grades four to six want shows filled with action. At grades seven to nine they prefer variety and suspense. In high school they stress the informational aspect of the program and are aware of qualities of writing and production (2:7).

A study cited by Bogart indicated that very little difference exists in the program preferences of teenagers coming from different socio-economic levels.

This suggests that television-viewing is so deeply embedded in the group culture of the present-day teenager that it can create a high uniformity of preferences and interests quite apart from the traditional influence of the family and its particular position in society (3:257).

Choice of programs. Teenagers list "interest" and entertainment as the prime factors in determining the attractiveness of a program (2:7). However, Lawrence Laurent feels that the viewer has little real choice in the type of program because the networks generally offer the same basic fare at any given time. One can only choose in quality of production and personality of performers; the program type is generally the same on all stations (16:158).

Children's favorite programs often change markedly within a short time, but many of the old favorites rank near the top year after year. In 1950 Hopalong Cassidy, Howdy Doody, and Milton Berle were all high in popularity with school children. In 1952 I Love Lucy took over top spot and continued there until 1955 when Disneyland replaced it as the favorite. In 1957 Disneyland was still ranked first, with Mickey Mouse Club second and I Love Lucy third (29:187).

Children in their early teens were the youngest age group showing an interest in news programs. Also, they expressed a desire to see a greater number of programs on television devoted to (1) stories of great men, (2) stories

of science, (3) great moments in history, and (4) lives and work of great artists (2:18).

Johnson reports that in 1958, 41 per cent of all children's viewing was composed of mystery and crime programs. One reason for the viewing of such a large number of violence programs might be the great frequency with which they appear in TV programming (15:365).

In October, 1958, Newsweek indicated a trend in TV programming toward more violence programs. Of 31 new programs added in 1958, half featured violence. Twenty-four hours a week during the select viewing hours, from 7:30 to 10:00 p.m., were devoted to violence programs. Newsweek's TV and radio editor terms this "danger in numbers" (5:55).

The March 30, 1959, issue of Time recorded the full impact of Westerns on the television scene. "Adult Westerns" had practically taken over the nation's choice of top ten programs. The Nielson rating agency reported the latest top ten in this order: Gunsmoke, Wagon Train, Have Gun, Will Travel, The Rifleman, Maverick, Wyatt Earp, Zane Grey Theater, Wanted Dead or Alive, followed by two non-Westerns, Lucy-Desi and Danny Thomas. In explaining the popularity of Westerns, American Broadcasting Company Program Director Thomas W. Moore stated, "The western is just the neatest and quickest type of escape entertainment, that's all." Others think "the western helps people to

get away from the complexities of modern life and back to the 'restful absolutes' of the past." The article ends with the following platitude: "In its (the Western's) finest expressions, it is an allegory of freedom, a memory and a vision of the deepest meaning of America." Regardless of the reason for their popularity, the "adult Westerns" are also highly favored by teenagers as well as younger children (25:36-60).

The chief parental complaints of television concern violence and crime programs. Despite this criticism, the number of violence and crime programs offered on television seem to be increasing. A study in Los Angeles indicated that such programs offered in 1953 were four times as prevalent as in 1951. The National Association for Better Radio and Television found 40 per cent of the children's programs "objectionable" (14:82).

Shayon believes that teenagers actually realize the shortcomings of television and yet watch it avidly. He reports, "They may be repelled, appalled, offended -- but they are fascinated" (19:23).

Viewing guidance. Studies indicate that the guidance in viewing received by children varies greatly, not only in amount but also in kind.

From Freda Koch's 1952 survey of twelve schools in the area of Columbus, Ohio, it appears that parental control over children's TV viewing is drastically reduced after the child finishes grade school. She also reported that 13 per cent of the children in grades four through eight were always permitted to choose the programs they wanted to watch, 76 per cent were sometimes allowed to choose the program they wanted to watch, 61 per cent reported that their parents had rules on watching, and 47 per cent reported that they disagreed with parents on some programs (3:262).

It further appears that parents primarily set rules on the amount of viewing rather than on content. Of the children reporting guidance in viewing, only one-fourth of the grade-school children and almost none at the high school level said parents restrict the choice of programs (3:263).

A survey of Better Homes and Gardens readers revealed that where conflict over the choice of program occurred between parent and child, one-third of the parents reported they "usually kept the upper hand" but 10 per cent said the children usually had their way (3:261).

Erna Christensen asserts that children's TV viewing habits are determined by a complex pattern of factors and that the pattern is different for each child. Factors

included are age, sex, amount and kind of programming available, length of time of set ownership, parental control, and competing interests and activities (4:2).

Not saying that television doesn't have faults, Inglis nevertheless feels that most of the ill effects of television cannot be blamed on the medium itself; rather, the responsibility for guidance lies with the parents. They must take an interest in their children's viewing and actively supervise it (14:80).

II. EFFECTS OF TELEVISION VIEWING

Bogart considers the effects of television as two separate problems. First is the question of whether television's illustrations of the techniques of crime actually incites children to commit acts of violence. The second problem, more extensive than the first, concerns the over-all effects of television in the every day values, beliefs, and behavior of children in the mass (3:788). Literature dealing with the over-all effects of television will be considered first, then television's effects on crime will be reviewed.

In Witty's first studies, parents reported that as a result of television viewing, children's vision was suffering, they slept less, played less, and were more nervous and disturbed. The latest studies still contain

such complaints, but it is significant that even with greater number of children viewing television, fewer and fewer parents now voice these complaints (29:3).

Eyesight and health. The National Society for the Prevention of Blindness has stated that the eyes are not usually adversely affected in television viewing if rules for proper seating, clear focusing of the set, and proper lighting of the room are observed. Parents often insist that television viewing be varied with other activities to prevent long continuous periods of viewing (29:288). It is recommended that the child sit at least six feet away from the small screen and ten feet away from the large screen; he should watch from the front rather than from the side; provide a soft light at night, some distance from the set, and avoid long hours of continuous viewing (27:24).

Television's effect on the over-all health of children is not extensively discussed in the literature. Witty does report, however, that some parents and teachers believe that excessive viewing may divert the child from participation in recreational activities (2:14). Bogart was in agreement with this criticism. Further, he cited a study which revealed that although three out of four parents felt there was no change, since TV, in the kinds of games

played, one-half of all parents thought TV had decreased the amount of exercise children engaged in. Only a few parents reported that TV made their children more tired by the end of the day. One-third of the parents felt that television delayed the bedtime of children (3:265).

The Foundation for Character Education expresses the view that TV does not damage eyesight and has no measurable effect upon performance in school (9:17).

Achievement in school. Excessive viewing, according to Witty, "seemed to be associated with lower academic achievement." He compared the viewing time of the children in his study to their rating on standard educational tests. The average time devoted to TV in the upper fourth of the group was 21 hours per week, while the average of the lower fourth was 26 hours. Even though television did not appear to greatly influence the achievement of the group as a whole, individuals were apparently affected adversely. On the other hand, other children may have been led to do better work in school because of TV (28:14). Children personally reported to Witty that they learned much about science, and the lands and cultures of other peoples from TV (29:288).

Battin's study revealed that TV helps children most with school studies in civics, current events, history, and

English (2:18). Frank reports that learning from TV may be "incidental" to actual class work, yet very important (9:6).

Children admit they can't study with television on; therefore, if time is not provided exclusively for study, grades may suffer (9:7). Witty tested the statistical relationship of televiewing to achievement and intelligence. Correlations between IQ's and TV viewing were insignificant in this study of children in grades one through six. Also, there was very little correlation between educational test results and amount of viewing; however, there was some indication that excessive televiewing was associated with lower achievement. Due to the great number of other influencing factors, a case study of each child would be required in order to accurately predict the effect of TV on school achievement (28:12).

Clara Evans reported that viewing weekly children's television programs had a noticeable effect on the vocabulary of kindergarten children. The effect might be good or bad, depending on the quality of the programs. She concluded that when properly guided, television could become an important educational tool (7:542). A study of 1,500 sixth graders indicated that twenty hours of viewing a week was not detrimental to reading or to academic achievement (29:288).

Reading. Many parents and teachers continue to hold that children read less now because their time is monopolized by television; however, these complaints have decreased. In 1957, about 50 per cent of the pupils reported reading less than before TV; and 50 per cent reported more. It is clear that the average amount of reading has not been altered appreciably. The fact that some children read less, however, is a real problem to parents and teachers. Yet they should also recognize that many children are reading more widely today than ever before (29:288).

Of the many surveys made regarding TV's effect on reading, few are considered "definitive." Most of them, however, agree on this point: reading declines when a set enters the home, then gradually increases, but never regains its pre-television level; only "long habituated readers get back nearly to that level" (6:348).

Results from Battin's study do not entirely agree with this. He found that junior high age children read about three books a week and spend one to two hours a week with magazines, the same amount as before TV (2:18).

Witty and Bricker feel that studies so far have not proved that TV viewing has reduced reading. Excessive viewing does take time that children could spend in reading

books, but there is no way to know if they actually would spend that time reading (27:25-26).

Family life. The sixth, seventh, and eighth graders in Battin's study reported that since television had entered their homes, they had "continued their family activities as before" (2:18), but Bogart refers to a survey in which three out of five families reported conflict over viewing if the ages of the children differed five years or more.

Further, Bogart states that television becomes a bone of contention between parents and children when they want to watch different programs at the same time and also when parents attempt to enforce restrictions on viewing. He specifically states, "Parental discipline has two aspects: (1) control over times in which viewing is to be done, and (2) control over the selection of individual programs" (3:261).

Inglis reported that one family difficulty was getting children to meals (14:80). On the subject of family meals, Bogart refers to a survey revealing that one family in three permitted the child to watch TV while eating supper (3:261). A psychiatrist, Glynn, expresses the opinion that TV viewing is not a social activity; actually it "smothers contact, really inhibiting inter-personal exchange" (6:180). A group watching television is

frequently a group of isolated people not in real exchange. However, Frank suggests that televiewing may be a "unifying factor" tending to keep the family together more in the home (9:14).

Delinquency. Since television's first impact on America, it has been accused of being so heavily loaded with violence and aggression that it encouraged and stimulated aggressive acts by children. The extent of this criticism is shown in the following:

A nationwide survey conducted by George Gallup and released in November 1954, reports that 70 per cent of the adults questioned, place at least part of the blame for 'the upsurge on juvenile delinquency' on crime-type comic books and on mystery and crime programs on television and radio. A fourth of those who blame either the comic books or television and radio programs said they contribute a great deal to teenage crime. Men and women did not differ at all in their responses on this question, although older people were more apt than younger ones to ascribe the blame to the mass media (3:273).

Newsweek reports that numerous authenticated crimes have been inspired by TV. "Crime doesn't pay" programs backfire, also detailed hints and tricks of criminal acts are shown on television. J. Edgar Hoover states that "TV flaunts indecency and applauds lawlessness" (5:66).

The charges against television closely resemble those voiced earlier against each of the mass media as it rose to popularity. As an example of this, Henry Forman's book, Our Movie-Made Children, which appeared

in the early 1930's, had the following description on its jacket:

Here is a book showing the movies for what they really are -- a monster Pied Piper, with marvelous trapping, playing tunes irresistibly alluring to the youth of the present day. They have become, in fact, a sort of superimposed system of education for the young, a system with which established social institutions, such as the School and the Church, cannot compete, in attraction or appeal (3:274).

In 1952, 1954, and 1955 a special Senate subcommittee headed by Senator Kefauver reported that television crime programs are "potentially much more injurious to children and young people than motion pictures, radio, or comic books" because comics and movies must be sought out and paid for, but television "is available at a flick of a knob" in the child's own living room. Combining sight and sound, it has a great impact upon its audience (3:278-79).

Another reference to this Senate subcommittee indicated that in 1953 it received literally thousands of letters from parents who feared the adverse effects of television (14:80).

Not all reports to the subcommittee were in agreement about the effects of violence programs. Many clinicians were cautious in drawing connections. For example, Otto Billig of Vanderbilt University reported that:

My clinical experience has led me to believe that television programs, movies, etc., have a very limited influence on the child or juvenile. We have performed rather exhaustive psychiatric and psychological studies on juvenile delinquents. Most youngsters do not seem at all influenced by such outside factors. The well adjusted personality can resist them without difficulties. A very occasional case was triggered into some delinquent act and possibly received specific ideas on how to carry out a crime. But only the emotionally disturbed and insecure individual appears susceptible to outside forces. Other outside pressures have probably greater significance, such as recognition by neighborhood gangs, inadequate or lack of group activities, etc. (3:283).

Still another expert, Louis H. Cohen, a psychiatrist, made this observation:

I believe that though these bad programs are always rather silly and in bad taste, the degree to which they are actually influential in determining juvenile crime is so vague and probably statistically impossible to evaluate that it would be foolish to ascribe to such programs the weight of a causal factor sufficient to justify any thundering campaign against them on this basis. I am personally convinced that they should not be produced, but only because they encourage a degraded taste for a kind of knowledge which is unnecessary for healthy social life (3:284).

In 1954, a special study was made of children in the Chicago area who were exceptionally heavy viewers. This study, conducted by teachers, included many well adjusted children and ones who were good students. There were also some problem cases, but most of these could not be related to television alone. Rather, poor home conditions or a lack of interest and affection caused most of the difficulties (3:287).

Bogart feels that a child who is already seriously disturbed may be stimulated by television to place his aggressive impulses into action. However, such a person may borrow from any phase of his experience in forming an anti-social act. He is just as likely to commit the act because he has seen it done on television, in a motion picture, or read about it in a comic book as he is because a friend mentioned the idea or because he read about a similar case in the newspaper. It is his opinion that "the isolated criminal act which can be directly linked to a specific television performance is certainly no basis from which to generalize." Empirical evidence regarding the influences of television on delinquency is rather scarce because it is very difficult to trace the specific influence of television violence and relate it to actual delinquent or disturbed behavior. However, even if it cannot be proved that television is a cause in turning children into neurotics or criminals, this does not prove it is an entirely healthful influence on the growing child (3:288-89).

Adjustment and character. Literature concerning the effects of television on the adjustment and character of children provides very little evidence from which to draw conclusions. Most of the data available consist of

opinions only. The sources of the greatest number of these opinions are authorities on children's adjustment and behavior problems.

A psychiatrist, Eugene Glynn, contends that "the chief effect of television is passivity and dependence in multiple shapes and forms. The world supplies and the individual feasts." He also acknowledges that viewing could stimulate "aggressive forces," but this depends not only on the content of the program but on other stimuli from without (11:179).

Fred Werthram, author of Seduction of the Innocent, feels that the TV affected child has developed a "callousness," has suffered moral and emotional harm from viewing television. Judge Frank J. Kroneberg asserts that television convinces the immature mind that violence is the accepted way of life. He calls it a "subtle form of brainwashing" (5:66).

Glynn claims that we have no answer yet to what will be "the stimulation and fantasy effects of TV" on the first TV generation. It is wondered if constant stimulation received from TV since birth will dull the "sensibilities" of these people. Also, concern is felt for the effect the "fantasy" of television viewing will have on these who have experienced it for so long. These people have had much of experience, vicariously, exhausted in advance (11:180-81).

They have had many experiences early in life, but these have only been "second-hand" experiences. Glynn feels that when the experience actually comes in real life "it will be watered down, for it has already been half lived, but never felt" (3:179). Joseph Klapper calls this a problem of "premature maturity" (3:287).

Shayon supports this point in contending that television, like other mass media, does not satisfy the hungers of children because "it is not a genuine experience, merely a substitute for genuine experience" (19:31).

The Foundation for Character Education maintains that there is some evidence that prolonged exposure to the "pictorial media" makes children more stereotyped in their moral judgments; they are more likely to see other people as "all good" or "all bad." However, all evidence about the effects of TV must be qualified in terms of one important point: "the impact of television programs upon any given child is as much a product of what the child is like before he sees the particular program as it is of the program itself." No particular effect of television will apply to all children in all conditions (8:19-20).

The real sources of children's disturbances arise primarily out of interpersonal relationships, particularly with their parents and peers. Television does not create

psychological problems, though it may influence the way in which they find expression.

In summarizing the effects of television, Bogart says,

Television is no different than any other popular art in its effects; it has become the focus of recent attention because it is both the newest mass media and the one with which children spend the greatest amount of time (1:284).

The problem facing the broadcaster in the case of children's programs, as well as those for adults, is that the content characteristics critics find most at fault are often the very features which attract the audience (3:284).

III. CONTEMPORARY IDEAS

The literature seems to indicate that television has certain limitations as well as a definite potential for favorably influencing children. Most writers on the subject of television's effect on children have ideas for gaining the greatest good from this medium. These ideas involve guidance in viewing, education in appreciation, and efforts to influence broadcasting.

Guidance in viewing. A constructive program of guidance will do much to eliminate the undesirable effects of television. This involves efforts on the part of parents and teachers to help children limit their viewing as well

as to help them choose programs with discrimination. Television is generally a problem in homes where it has been allowed to become and remain a problem (29:7).

Johnson feels that the answer to gaining the most from TV and preventing it from becoming an undesirable influence is "controlled viewing." It is the parents' responsibility to prevent their children from viewing excessively and choosing undesirable programs (15:365).

Stated in more positive terms, Witty suggests that if too much time appears to be spent viewing, parents should encourage other activities to insure a balanced schedule. Children should also be "guided" to choose programs with discrimination (29:7).

Shayon feels that it would be futile and senseless to try to completely bar children from TV. Even if television were not present in his own home the child would, nevertheless, fall under its influence within the neighborhood, at school, or elsewhere. Shayon asserts that it is far better to have television in the child's home where its viewing can be regulated than to have no control over its influence in an unnatural setting (19:42-43).

Witty and Bricker suggest that parents and children cooperatively plan a schedule of viewing. This schedule should be reasonably flexible and allow for a balanced

program of activities. A schedule works best when it is planned with the child, not for the child (27:27-35).

If all teachers recognized that approximately five per cent of television's network programs can be directly related to classroom work and that many others contain incidental learnings, it is believed that more teachers would attempt to influence their pupils' viewing habits (27:31).

Parents and teachers are offered the following positive suggestions for helping children make the most of television: (1) know each child better as an individual, (2) study the child's interest in the media, (3) learn more about television, (4) suggest programs the child may enjoy, (5) share the child's experiences, and (6) provide the child with opportunity for a variety of interesting, worthwhile opportunities to participate and learn (27:32-34).

Education in discrimination. Children are not born with innate standards and values; these must be learned. If the child is ever expected to make decisions and judgments on his own, he should begin developing this skill early. With adult guidance, children can develop the standards needed for making discriminating judgments. One application of an ability to critically judge is made by

children when they are given an opportunity to choose between various television offerings (27:36-37).

To become a discriminating viewer a child needs careful supervision and guidance. He should be given sufficient freedom to make some poor program choices, but it will also be necessary to place some restrictions on his choices. Parents and teachers should encourage the child to make value-judgments of some of his viewing. He should be encouraged to discuss the programs and be given help in identifying reasons for his judgments. The goal for the child should be an increasingly mature discrimination in program selections (26:38-39).

Classroom work in developing critical judgment and appreciations often helps children establish standards for judging television programs. Such instruction could be a unit of study in appreciation of mass media or a continuing part of the English program. As children learn to be more discriminating, they choose programs more carefully and spend less time with television (27:39-40).

Efforts to influence broadcasting. The television broadcaster's job is not an easy one. His programming must satisfy more requirements than most critics of television have knowledge of. He must: (1) devise programs having wide audience appeal, (2) produce programs satisfying

sponsors' requirements, (3) produce programs which avoid criticism from adults, (4) meet cost of production and time requirements, and (5) create a large volume of programs (8:21-25).

In regard to the responsibilities of broadcasters to children, the Television Code of the National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters states:

The education of children involves giving them a sense of the world at large. Crime, violence, and sex are a part of the world they will be called upon to meet, and a certain amount of proper presentation of such is helpful in orienting the child to his social surroundings. However, violence and illicit sex shall not be presented in an attractive manner, nor to an extent such as will lead a child to believe that they play a greater part in life than they do. They should not be presented without indications of the resultant retribution and punishment (6:332).

Inglis notes that only 60 per cent of the nation's broadcasters subscribe to the code and that monitoring of television by the National Association of Educational Broadcasters indicates the code is frequently ignored. He further feels that violence shown on TV has no relation to real life, and that television violence, in addition to the violence presented in comics, movies, and life itself, is more than the amount to which children should be subjected (14:84).

The television industry, very sensitive to criticism, has no defense other than to point to the fact that harmful

effects on children's behavior and attitudes have not been proven (14:83).

The Federal Communications Commission (FCC) is the governmental agency which controls the nation's airwaves, but the control, in practice, is limited to the power to issue broadcasting permits. The FCC has no legal power to censor presentations. In fact, television has no official censor; it must rely on the discretion of broadcasters, who in turn are sensitive to public criticism. In the final analysis, control of the quality of television presentations is the responsibility of the public (19:61-70).

Shayon feels that the best way for the public to influence the offerings of television is to organize community "listening councils" to monitor programs and present reports of their findings to official agencies and to the television industry. They also can publicize facts and figures and generally try to alert the public to television's presentations, both good and bad (19:71-82).

Laurent draws attention to the general public's power to influence broadcasting by refusing to view programs they consider undesirable. If enough people do this the ratings will go down, the sponsor will no longer support it, and the program will be discontinued. Some people who feel they hold a minority view that deserves attention

should write letters to the station; others should write directly to sponsors, probably the most effective protest (16:150).

However, Johnson expresses the opinion that efforts to influence what is offered on television have not been rewarding. Court tests have generally ruled against censorship of any kind. Because of this, parents and teachers must control the viewing habits of children by helping them develop discriminating standards for use in evaluating television programs (15:366).

CHAPTER III

SAMPLE STUDIED AND MATERIALS USED

I. SAMPLE STUDIED

The sample studied in this investigation was composed of the three eighth grade classes and four seventh grade classes in the R. E. Bennett School of Chehalis, Washington. Of the 215 enrolled in these two grades, nine were absent; therefore, the sample consisted of 206 children. There were 120 in the seventh grade and 86 in the eighth grade. The boys, with a total of 111, outnumbered the 95 girls of the sample by 16.

The Bennett School is located in Chehalis, the county seat of Lewis County. The town has a population of approximately 7,000. Its economy is primarily based on a combination of farming, lumbering, and light industry. No marked diversity appears to exist in the socio-economic level of the residents of Chehalis, who support their social institutions well, as is evidenced by a new million dollar high school and at least ten sizeable churches within this relatively small community.

II. MATERIALS USED

The questionnaire method of gathering data was used in this study. Information from this questionnaire was

supplemented with data revealed by a teacher-rated adjustment test as well as by the student's cumulative record.

The Questionnaire

A questionnaire was constructed to gather the type of data needed in this study (Appendix A). Only the first three pages were to be completed by the students. The fourth page, containing a list of the most popular network programs offered in the area, was provided as a help in recalling names of programs and as an aid to spelling.

The first of the questionnaire's three basic parts, Section I, primarily concerned personal information about the viewer. This section was designed to secure the following facts about the students: whether they lived in the city or the country, the extent of their participation in various activities, the number of TV sets in their home, and a general idea of how much they viewed television.

Those persons who almost never watched television were not asked to complete Section II because it dealt with the number of years they had viewed television, favorite programs, television viewing traits, and amount of guidance received in viewing--items non-viewers would not be able to answer. A place was provided for listing the viewers' top four selections. The fourth page could be used to aid them in the process.

C of Section II asked six multiple-choice questions to learn more about the student's general viewing traits and to gather information regarding the amount of guidance they received. The viewer was given a choice of four answers to each question. One answer usually indicated an extreme in one direction, another answer the opposite extreme, and one answer ranked midway between the other two. A place was also provided for a written comment in the event none of the other three choices seemed to fit the person answering. To illustrate, question one inquired as to the amount of restriction placed on viewing. A person making the first choice indicated some restriction on viewing; the second choice, no restriction; the third choice, definite restriction; and the last choice provided space for a written comment if none of the other choices fit properly.

The third main part of the questionnaire, Sections III and IV, was to be completed by the entire sample of students, regardless of whether they viewed television or not. Section III consisted of a schedule of weekly activities. This method of determining amounts of time spent at various activities was chosen because it provided for differences occurring in the daily schedules throughout a complete week. It also provided a chance to check the correctness of amounts indicated for each day's activities

(by adding the figures in each column and comparing that total with 24, the number of hours in a day). This method also gave them a comprehensive view of how their time was actually spent. They had a chance to make some personal comparisons of time spent at various activities.

If honestly and carefully filled out, the schedule gave a complete picture of how the student's time was spent. Weekly totals for each activity were easily obtained by adding across columns.

In Section IV, the time spent with parents was to be indicated in the proper columns, and totals were figured by merely adding from left to right.

Ullmann Forced-Choice Test.

The Ullmann Forced-Choice Test was used in this study to measure the general adjustment of the sample members (Appendix B). This, a teacher-rated instrument, was developed by Charles A. Ullmann of the United States Department of Public Health.

In constructing the Forced-Choice Test, it was assumed that teachers' judgments of maladjustment would be more valid if items considered valid and important by both clinicians and teachers were employed as discriminators. Also it was assumed that the validity of teachers' ratings would be highest if only items were included to

which teachers could react with confidence. The number of items included was restricted to an amount which normally could be rated in a maximum of five minutes for each child.

Items within the test were first paired, with one item highly indicative of adjustment, either favorable or unfavorable, while the other, though of equal preference value, having a neutral discrimination value and thus acting as a suppressor. Then the pairs were assembled in groups of four or five items. The discrimination values assigned each item were obtained from clinicians' ratings in order to compensate for teachers' earlier discovered tendencies to overvalue conforming behavior. Through the approach described, greater validity was gained than in usual ratings.

Normative data obtained by Ullmann from a study of 810 ninth grade pupils indicate mean adjustment ratings of 19.24 for the boys, 22.64 for the girls, and 20.94 for the entire standardizing sample.

There is an indication of very high consistency in teachers' ratings with the Forced-Choice Test. A reliability coefficient of .90 was determined by Ullmann in a study of a sample of 100 boys and 100 girls.

Students' Cumulative Records

Cumulative records are maintained for each student in the Chehalis school system. These records were used as the source of intelligence scores and first semester grade averages for each child in the sample.

Intelligence scores. The intelligence score entered in the cumulative record of each child is in the form of an intelligence quotient. IQ, determined by the student's performance on the S. R. A. Primary Mental Ability Test for ages 7 to 11, is a percentile derivative rather than ratio IQ. This is a group test administered by the teachers. Most of the scores were from tests given in 1956. Intelligence quotients determined by the Primary Mental Abilities Test are measures of seven factored abilities but are used only as a total score in the school concerned.

Grade averages. Each student's first semester grades were secured from his cumulative records. These semester grades were averages of grades given for the first two quarters of work in English, reading, arithmetic, spelling, and physical education for all students, in addition to grades in music or art and shop or social studies. The last four subjects were offered to students for only one of the two semesters. For example, if a

student had art the first semester, he had music the second semester, and the reverse was also true.

The grades given were in letter form, ranging from A as the highest to U as the lowest grade. Because pluses (+'s) and minuses (-'s) were also employed, it was necessary to assign a value of 11 to an A, 10 to a B+, and on down to 1 assigned to a D- and 0 to a U. The students' grade averages were calculated by adding each student's grade values and dividing by the number of grades he had. Thus, expressed as numbers, it was possible to use these averages directly in statistical analysis.

CHAPTER IV

PROCEDURE

Interest in this study was first stimulated in 1957-58 when the writer was teaching in the school later chosen for the study. Informal inquiry into the subject of television viewing indicated that many of the students viewed television more hours each day than they spent in school, and only in rare cases did it appear that they received guidance or any form of control in their television viewing. All too often programs featuring violence and aggression seemed to make up the major portion of the children's viewing. The author wondered whether excessive viewing of violence programs might tend to develop an insensitivity to acts of violence and crime, possibly causing students to accept such conduct as normal, thus adversely affecting attitudes of social behavior and ethical values.

With this vital interest as a motivating factor, inquiry was made into the literature related to this subject. Although much has been written about television and children, results are inconclusive. It was felt that a statistical study of the subject would provide more specific empirical data upon which valid judgments could be based.

The need for further research into this problem was supported by a comment made by Richard M. Allerton, Manager of Research, National Association of Broadcasters (NAB). In a letter accompanying some material requested from the NAB, Mr. Allerton wrote the following to the writer:

To my knowledge there has been no one fully informative and authentic study in this field of research. There have been a number of studies done approaching the problem or some single aspect of it, but each of these lack certain basic aspects of sound research.

Following discovery of the need for further investigation into the subject of effects of television on junior high age children, the specific purposes of this study were set forth in the form of hypotheses to be tested. These hypotheses appear in Chapter I, pages 2-4. Following this, investigative procedure for testing these hypotheses was determined. This involved plans for gathering data with a questionnaire, securing ratings of adjustment of the students in the sample, and securing facts from their cumulative school records.

The questionnaire was constructed and reproduced in sufficient number for administration to all members of the sample. It was decided to use the teacher-rated Ullmann Forced-Choice Test as the instrument for measuring the student's adjustment. After securing permission from the school's administration, the questionnaire and the adjustment test were taken to Chehalis by the writer.

The homeroom teachers of the sample's seven classes were personally visited by the author. At that time the purpose and general nature of the study were explained to these teachers and their cooperation was secured. They were given a copy of the questionnaire with a brief explanation of how it was to be administered. A date when all the teachers would administer the questionnaire at the same time was established (March 2, 1959). The teachers agreed to complete the forced-choice adjustment test for each member of their homeroom class.

During the time the questionnaire was being completed by the students, the author moved from room to room, checking on progress, offering explanations where needed, and occasionally supplementing the teacher's directions. The teachers collected the questionnaires when the students were finished, and the author picked them up from the teachers.

At a later date, the completed adjustment ratings were received from the teachers. Also the data needed from the students' cumulative records were secured.

The results from the questionnaires were tabulated so that total responses for each question could be determined. Pierson Product Moment correlation coefficients were calculated to test hypotheses concerning relationships of certain variables within the study.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter is the heart of the study. Within it are presented the research results, including a presentation of raw data from the questionnaire and a statistical analysis of key portions of this data. Much of the analysis deals with determining the degree of relationship existing between certain variables. For this purpose correlation coefficient, coefficient, and the symbol "r" will be used interchangeably throughout the rest of this study.

I. DATA FROM THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This chapter presents a report of the major findings from the questionnaire. Appendix C contains a detailed enumeration of total answers for each question and its parts as well as a breakdown of separate totals for boys and girls.

Section I. Personal information. Results indicate that the sample is about evenly divided between city dwellers and non-city dwellers. The 111 students living in the city outnumber the 93 living in the country by only 18. Active participation in at least one organization was

reported by 148, with 57 not participating in even one organization. Church Youth Groups claimed more participants than any other, with 90 reporting an active part in church-sponsored groups. Second high was scouting, with 57 reporting activity in that organization. Some sex differences occurred in two areas, scouting, with 37 boys and 20 girls, and in the total reporting no participation in organized groups, with 39 boys and only 18 girls. Proportionately, the girls in the sample reported active participation in more total organizations than the boys. Generally, church attendance is proportionately heavy, indicated by the fact that only 6 girls and 11 boys reported never attending in comparison to a total of 129 of the sample attending every week.

Less than a third of the sample report active participation in after-school intramural sports. The totals show 60 taking an active part in intramurals and 154 not participating. The boys show much greater activity in this area than do the girls, with 81 male participants compared to 9 female.

As might be expected, more boys than girls engage in unorganized recreational activities; 108 boys and 73 girls reported activity in at least one unorganized recreation. Fishing, with 90 listing it, is the favorite recreation of the boys. Skating is the leading activity listed

by the girls, with 39 mentioning it. Generally, high participation in unorganized recreation is indicated for the sample as a whole.

The data showed that 23 students do not have a television set in their home, 167 have one set, and 16 have two sets. Not one reported having more than two sets. No marked difference is shown in the number of sets reported by boys and the number reported by girls. An approximate estimate of total amount of television viewing is given in these figures: 128 view television regularly, 55 occasionally, and 18 almost never.

Section II. Viewing profile. The student sample reported having viewed television for an average of 3.91 years. This average includes a range of figures from zero on the part of those never viewing television to nine years for those who have viewed it since it first became available in this area. The listing of their four favorite television programs, in the order the programs rated with them, was not hard for the majority of the sample. Most teenagers have several programs they like above all others and some they distinctly dislike. For program choices other than these, they generally choose the program offered at the time that they personally feel is most entertaining. A list of the sample's favorite programs is found in

Tables I and II. Table I presents the favorite programs as rated separately by the seventh and eighth grades. Table II shows composite ratings for the entire sample. The ratings were established by assigning a value of 4 to a first choice, 3 to a second choice, 2 to a third choice, and 1 to a fourth choice. With a rating of 109 for the seventh grade and 62 for the eighth grade, Maverick is distinctly the program receiving the highest rating by the entire sample. The four top programs, the same in both grades, are not rated in the same order by each group. American Bandstand was given a rating of 86; the Dick Clark Show, 78; and 77 Sunset Strip, 70 by the seventh grade. The eighth grade gave 77 Sunset Strip a rating of 62; American Bandstand, 51; and the Dick Clark Show, 48. These programs also emerged as the top four for the complete sample, in the order rated by the seventh grade. It is not surprising to find the only two network teenage programs, American Bandstand and the Dick Clark Show, rating very high with this teenage sample. These programs feature teenage couples dancing, in the latest manner and step, to currently popular recorded music.

Further analysis of the data reveals that the seventh grade viewers list a variety of program types among their top 20 shows. These include 6 Westerns, 2 teenage musical shows, 7 situation comedies, 2 suspense dramas, and a

TABLE I

RATINGS OF THE FAVORITE TELEVISION PROGRAMS OF THE
SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES AT CHEHALIS,
WASHINGTON, BY GRADE

7th Grade	Ratings	8th Grade	Ratings
1. Maverick	109	1. Maverick	62
2. American Bandstand	86	2. 77 Sunset Strip	53
3. Dick Clark Show	78	3. American Bandstand	51
4. 77 Sunset Strip	70	4. Dick Clark Show	48
5. Father Knows Best	45	5. Huckleberry Hound	42
6. Red Skelton	36	6. Red Skelton	33
7. Leave it to Beaver	31	7. Father Knows Best	32
8. Ozzie and Harriet	28	8. Gunsmoke	25
Perry Mason	28	9. Perry Mason	20
10. Huckleberry Hound	27	Rawhide	20
Sportscasts	27	11. Real McCoys	19
12. I Love Lucy	22	12. Rifleman	18
13. Real McCoys	20	13. Wagon Train	16
14. Cheyenne	15	14. Science Fiction	13
Colt .45	15	15. Ozzie and Harriet	11
16. Gunsmoke	14	16. Death Valley Days	10
Movies	14	17. Leave it to Beaver	9
Our Miss Brooks	14	18. Man with a Camera	8
19. Rifleman	13	Danny Thomas	8
The Texan	13	Have Gun, Will Travel	8

TABLE II
 RATINGS AND PROGRAM TYPES OF THE FAVORITE TELEVISION
 PROGRAMS OF THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES AT
 CHEHALIS, WASHINGTON

7th and 8th Grade	Ratings	Program type ¹
1. Maverick	171	Western Drama
2. American Bandstand	137	Teenage Musical ²
3. Dick Clark Show	126	Teenage Musical ²
4. 77 Sunset Strip	123	Suspense Drama
5. Father Knows Best	77	Situation Comedy
6. Red Skelton	69	Situation Comedy
Huckleberry Hound	69	Cartoon Comedy ²
8. Perry Mason	48	Suspense Drama
9. Leave it to Beaver	40	Situation Comedy
10. Ozzie and Harriet	39	Situation Comedy
Real McCoys	39	Situation Comedy
Gunsmoke	39	Western Drama
13. Rifleman	31	Western Drama
14. Sportscasts	27	Sportscasts ²
15. I Love Lucy	22	Situation Comedy
16. Have Gun, Will Travel	21	Western Drama
17. Rawhide	20	Western Drama
18. Wagon Train	16	Western Drama
19. Cheyenne	15	Western Drama
Colt .45	15	Western Drama

¹Nielson Marketing Service designations (18)

²Designation by author

cartoon comedy, a televised sportscast, and movies. With 8 violence programs within its 20 top rated shows, the seventh grade listed 2 less than the eighth grade. The eighth grade favorites are distributed by program type as follows: 7 Western dramas, 2 suspense dramas, 2 teenage musical shows, 6 situation comedies, and a cartoon comedy and an adventure program. The composite ratings for the entire sample contain 9 violence programs within the first 20 choices.

From the ARB (1:3) national ratings shown in Table III, it is seen that 7 violence programs were listed by the nation's television audience among its top 20. As an indication of the popularity of these selections with the nation's teenage audience, the percentage of teenagers in each program's total audience is given in the column headed "Per cent Teens." Of the top 20 programs, Maverick had the highest per cent of teens in its nation-wide audience. The top four programs in terms of percentage of teenage audience composition are Maverick, with 23 per cent, Danny Thomas and Perry Como, with 22 per cent, and 77 Sunset Strip, with 21 per cent. This does not mean that these programs are necessarily the nation's teenage viewers' favorites, for only the programs rated highest by a sample of the total television audience are represented here. Other programs rating much higher with the teenage

TABLE III

NATIONAL RATINGS AND THE PER CENT OF TEENAGE AUDIENCE
COMPOSITION OF THE TOP TWENTY NETWORK
TELEVISION PROGRAMS, MARCH, 1959

Rank	Program	Rating ¹	Per cent ² Teens
1.	Gunsmoke	45.2	18%
2.	Wagon Train	42.3	19
3.	Some of Manie's Friends	37.5	-- ³
4.	Danny Thomas	37.3	22
5.	I've Got A Secret	37.1	16
	Maverick	37.1	23
	The Rifleman	37.1	18
8.	Have Gun, Will Travel	36.5	20
9.	Perry Como	34.8	22
10.	Father Knows Best	34.2	18
11.	Red Skelton	33.7	17
12.	Perry Mason	33.4	17
13.	Real McCoys	32.9	17
14.	Person to Person	32.0	-- ³
	The Millionaire	32.0	16
16.	77 Sunset Strip	31.6	21
17.	Bing Crosby Show	31.2	-- ³
18.	Loretta Young Presents	30.7	16
19.	The Price Is Right	30.5	17
20.	What's My Line	30.1	11

¹ARB rating (1:3)

²Pulse audience composition data (17)

³No data available

audience might rate low with the total audience. A further consideration involves the composition of the nation's teenage audience. It includes a far wider range of ages than is found in this study's sample. Also, factors such as the time of the day a program is presented would greatly influence the percentage of audience composition. Thus, it is not possible to directly compare data concerning the national teenage audience with results from this sample.

Aware that direct comparisons would not be valid, it is nevertheless possible to make qualified observations in relating the sample's program ratings to the nationwide ratings. It is noted that 10 of the study sample's top 20 programs are included in the top 20 nationally rated favorites. From among the nation's top 20 shows, the four programs highest in per cent of teenage audience composition rank as follows in this study's sample rating: Maverick, first; 77 Sunset Strip, fourth; and Danny Thomas and Perry Como, not among the sample's favorite 20. In comparing program types, the Chehalis sample's top 20 is seen to include 10 violence programs compared to 7 within the nation's top 20. The seventh and eighth graders chose 6 situation comedies as favorites, the national audience listed 4; the sample lists no audience participation quiz shows, the national audience has chosen 3; and the sample

picked 2 suspense dramas whereas the national audience chose 1 among its top 20.

In summarizing information concerning favorite programs, a certain amount of similarity in program rating on the part of the study group and the national television audience is noted. The study sample listed a greater number of violence programs in its top 20 than did the national audience. The nation's teenagers tended to agree with the sample in the type of program viewed. The sample rated situation comedies and Western dramas higher than the national audience and held less regard for quiz programs. In terms of grade level, the eighth grade chose more violence programs, especially more Western dramas, among its favorites than did the seventh grade. The seventh grade leaned more heavily toward situation comedy. However, there is a remarkable similarity shown in the top four programs for the two grades. Teenage musical shows rated high in both groups.

Information regarding the study sample's viewing traits, the amount of viewing guidance its members receive, and the frequency of conflict in viewing is provided by results from the multiple-choice portion of Section II in the questionnaire.

The first question deals with a basic part of guidance in television viewing, that of restriction in total

amount. Of the students answering this question, 113 (54.9 per cent) reported they could view as much as desired after homework and all other work was finished. No limitation on amount of viewing was reported by 22 (10.7 per cent). At the opposite extreme, 29 (14.1 per cent) considered their viewing to be definitely limited.

A measure of the guidance in quality and kind of viewing is provided by answers to Question Two. Complete freedom to choose their own programs was recorded by 88 (42.7 per cent) of the sample. Those watching only programs others chose for them were 20 (9.7 per cent) in number. There were 27 (13.1 per cent) with general freedom to make their own program choices but with certain programs they were not allowed to view. The programs they were not permitted to view appear in Table IV. Included in this list are Divorce Court, mentioned three times; Nightmare, Night Court, The Vise, Late Movies, and Alcoa Presents, each mentioned two times; and twelve others, in a variety of program types, were mentioned once.

Question Three deals with the manner in which the viewer decides what program to watch. Eighty-one (39.3 per cent) consult a television guide or schedule when viewing begins. Almost an equal number, 79 (38.3 per cent) know what program they want to see before that program is presented. Eleven (5.3 per cent) merely watch whatever

TABLE IV
 PROHIBITED PROGRAMS FOR CERTAIN MEMBERS
 OF THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES IN
 CHEHALIS, WASHINGTON

Program	Number of Times Mentioned
Divorce Court	3
Nightmare	2
Night Court	2
The Vise	2
Late Movies	2
Alcoa Presents	2
Horror Movies	1
Ozzie and Harriet	1
Mike Hammer	1
Lassie	1
Donna Reed	1
Bold Adventure	1
Have Gun, Will Travel	1
Jack Benny	1
Rifleman	1
Garry Moore	1
Zorro	1
Peter Gunn	1

happens to come on regardless of what it might be. This indicates that less than half of the sample follow a viewing plan or know what they will view more than a moment before viewing begins.

For 25 (12.1 per cent) of the children, the basis of program selections is the decisions of others. This is contrasted with 123 (59.7 per cent) who choose programs they personally feel are most enjoyable and entertaining. Thirty-two (15.5 per cent) report that they sometimes choose certain programs for more than entertainment.

A further indication of guidance is shown in replies to Question Five, which deals with amount of advice and help received in choosing programs. The greatest number, 82 (39.8 per cent) report receiving no guidance and select their own programs without help from others. Another 68 (33.0 per cent) report that they receive some guidance, in that others occasionally discourage the viewing of certain programs and encourage the viewing of others they feel are beneficial.

Question Six seeks to determine what the members of the sample would do if they were viewing television and realized that none of the programs offered were ones they cared for. Fourteen (6.8 per cent) indicated that they continued to watch whatever happened to come on regardless of what it might be. An additional 45 continued to watch

after choosing a program which "might not be too bad." The largest group, 117 (56.8 per cent) reported they would discontinue viewing.

Where the number of viewers exceeds the number of television sets and there is a variety of offerings to choose from, conflict often arises. Question Seven deals with such conflict, and the following answers give an indication of its frequency: conflict never occurs in 14 (6.8 per cent) cases; seldom, 109 (52.9 per cent); quite often, 48 (23.3 per cent); and very often, 17 (8.3 per cent). The girls seem to experience more viewing conflict than the boys. Five girls and nine boys reported never having conflict, whereas ten girls and only seven boys complained of having viewing conflict "very often."

Section III. Weekly schedule of activity. The weekly schedule of activities presented in Table V indicates how the members of the sample spend their time. The average number of hours a week the students spend at each activity is shown in the column headed "Per Week." Daily averages are shown in the column headed "Per Day." From these figures it is seen that these seventh and eighth graders spend an average of 63.2 hours a week sleeping. This amounts to slightly more than 9 hours a day. Attending school requires 32.5 hours a week, or 6.5 hours each

TABLE V
 AVERAGE NUMBER OF HOURS SPENT AT EACH ACTIVITY
 IN A SCHEDULE OF ACTIVITIES OF THE
 SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADERS OF
 CHEHALIS, WASHINGTON

Section III	Average Hours	
	Per Week	Per Day
Sleeping	63.2	9.03
Eating	7.5	1.13
Attending school	32.5	6.50*
Traveling to and from school	3.3	.66*
Working on homework	4.6	.65
Reading for pleasure	3.0	.42
Working at home	7.1	1.01
Working away from home	3.1	.45
Playing in unorganized activities	7.9	1.13
Watching TV	17.2	2.46
Listening to a phonograph	2.1	.31
Listening to the radio	3.6	.52
Casually talking and visiting with friends	4.7	.66
Church and Sunday school	2.0	.29
<u>Section IV</u>		
Watching TV with one or both parents	12.3	1.76
Total time spent with parents at all types of activities	26.4	3.77

*Calculated for five school days a week.

school day. Ranking third in the average amount of time spent at an activity is television viewing, with 17.2 hours a week and 2.46 hours a day. Falling far below television viewing is playing in organized and unorganized activities, which has an average of 7.9 hours a week devoted to it; this amounts to 1.13 hours per day.

Eating takes an average of 7.5 hours per week, or 1.13 hours a day. Almost the same amount of time, 1.01 hours a day, is reportedly spent working at home. Casually talking and visiting with friends, including telephone conversations, occupies 4.7 hours of the week's time, or .66 hours (39 minutes) day. With 4.6 hours devoted to homework, this activity is reported to closely rival casual conversations. The sample reports spending more time traveling to and from school than it spends reading for pleasure. Also, more time is spent with radios than phonographs. About three hours a week is spent at jobs away from home.

In comparing these figures it is important to remember that these are average number of hours. This would indicate higher or lower individual time values for all activities. There are chances for much greater individual variation in any activity than the average figures indicate. For example, times spent at television viewing and playing differ 9.3 hours a week for the average of the sample, but

viewing time ranges from 47 to 0 hours and playing from 44 to 0 hours; therefore, for any given pupil 9.3 hours can be expected to occur frequently.

Section IV. Time spent with parents. Results from Section IV indicate that the average number of hours the members of the sample spend with their parents is 26.4 hours a week or an average of 3.77 hours a day. This figure includes time spent at all types of activities, such as work, play, church, and television viewing. Watching television with one or both parents occupies an average of 12.3 hours a week. This is 4.9 hours less than the total time spent viewing television, which indicates that almost two-thirds of the students' viewing is done with one or both parents. On an average, television viewing occupies almost half of the time the children spend with their parents.

II. STATISTICAL TREATMENT OF THE DATA

Amount of viewing time. The total amount of time children spend viewing television varies greatly from child to child, as is shown in the distribution of number of hours of viewing in Table VI.

A distribution of the number of hours reportedly spent viewing TV for an average week is given on the left.

TABLE VI
DISTRIBUTION OF NUMBER OF HOURS OF VIEWING TIME
BY SEX AND BY GRADE

Hours	Girls		Boys		Entire Sample
	7th	8th	7th	8th	
45 - 47			1		1
42 - 44			1		1
39 - 41	1		1	1	3
36 - 38	1		1	1	3
33 - 35	4	1	3		8
30 - 32	4		3		7
27 - 29	4	2	10	2	18
24 - 26	2	2	7	1	12
21 - 23	4	4	6	9	23
18 - 20	4	3	7	7	21
15 - 17	12	6	11	7	36
12 - 14	8	3	5	2	18
9 - 11	6	5	3	5	19
6 - 8	4	5	1	1	11
3 - 5	3		3	2	8
0 - 2	1	8	5	3	17
	Number = 58	39	68	41	206
	Range = 39	34	47	40	47
	Mean = 17.07	13.13	19.65	17.25	17.22
	Median = 16.67	13.0	20.07	17.71	17.0

In parallel columns to the right of this are frequency distributions for two main groups, boys and girls, as well as a frequency distribution which describes all students' viewing time. Within each sex group a distribution is given for both the seventh and eighth grades. For example, under the column designated seventh grade girls, 12 of the 58 girls viewed TV from 15-17 hours per week. Inspection of these distributions shows important differences on the basis of sex as well as grade level. The median number of hours seventh grade girls watch television is 16.67 hours a week, in comparison to 13.0 hours for eighth grade girls and 20.07 hours for seventh grade boys. Seventh grade boys reported viewing the greatest amount of television, with an average weekly total of 20.07 hours. Eighth grade boys view television 17.71 hours a week, about 2 hours less than seventh grade boys. The eighth grade girls, with only 13.0 hours, view television less than any of the rest. This 13 hours total is just 4 hours less than the median value of 17 hours for the entire sample.

Relation between amount of viewing and restriction on viewing. Question One in Section II C was included in the questionnaire as a measure of the degree of parental restriction placed on the amount of viewing the student was allowed to do. For the purpose of statistical analysis,

the first three possible answers to the question were assigned numerical values of 1 through 3, depending on the degree of restriction the answer indicated. To the question, "How much TV are you allowed to watch?" the answer "some restriction" was assigned a "2"; "no restriction" was assigned a value of "1"; and "definite restriction" was assigned a value of "3." The choice in which the student described his situation if none of the others seemed to fit him did not elicit a sufficiently specific category of answers to be statistically treated.

As in all correlation tables to follow in this study, Table VII presents separate coefficients for girls and boys in both the seventh and eighth grades to show sex and age differences. Also given in each correlation table are average correlations for all girls and all boys as well as a comprehensive average correlation for all students in the sample. All correlation averages throughout the study were obtained by using Fisher's z coefficients. The number studied (N) in each sex-grade group appears in parentheses directly below the coefficient for that group.

To correct for the small number of classes (categories) in the "restriction" variable, it was necessary to apply Sheppard's correction to each coefficient (12:360).

Inspection of Table VII shows r 's ranging from $-.188$ to $+.280$ with no significant relationship existing between

TABLE VII
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN AMOUNT OF TELEVISION VIEWING
AND REPORTED AMOUNT OF RESTRICTION ON VIEWING

	7th Grade	8th Grade	Average 7th & 8th	Average Entire Sample
Girls	-.032	+.280	+.129	
N=	(52)	(38)	(90)	
				-.009
				(183)
Boys	-.105	-.188	-.147	
N=	(60)	(33)	(93)	

Note: All averages secured by using Fisher's z coefficients.

total amount of viewing and degree of restriction on viewing. This is true when considering sex-grade groups separately. The average r of $-.009$ for the entire sample indicates a complete lack of correlation. Therefore, the hypothesis that children not restricted in total amount of TV viewing tend to watch it excessively is not supported.

Comparison of viewing time to time spent at essential activities. This investigation has not provided sufficient data to satisfactorily test the hypothesis that excessive viewing occupies a disproportionate amount of children's time (so much that they are unable to achieve a satisfactory balance of activities necessary for proper health and for satisfactory social and mental adjustment).

The results from the student's weekly schedule of activities, Section III of the questionnaire, appear in Table V, page 61. It is seen that television viewing ranks behind only two other activities: sleeping and attending school. Also, TV viewing occupies far more time than recreational activities, which rank fourth. Other activities play a lesser role in the students' schedule. Whether or not television keeps the child from a satisfactory balance of activities becomes a matter of individual interpretation and thus defies being truly tested as a hypothesis.

Amount of viewing by city dwellers compared to amount of viewing by non-city dwellers. It has been hypothesized that children living in the city view a greater amount of television than those living in the country. The mean viewing time for these two groups is presented in Table VIII. Inspection reveals such an obvious similarity between average viewing time of the two groups that it would not be worthwhile to statistically test their difference.

The difference between the means of these two groups is not sufficiently large to support or refute the hypothesis that children living in the city spend a greater amount of time viewing television than do children living in the country. The two groups appear to spend essentially the same amount of time viewing TV.

Effect of church attendance on the viewing of violence programs. The measure the questionnaire provides for determining the number of violence programs viewed by members of the sample is the number of violence programs listed as favorite programs. This provides an indication of the total number of violence programs, based on the assumption that a list of favorite programs probably indicates the general trend of television viewing. Without proper validation of this assumption, it is not possible

TABLE VIII

A COMPARISON OF THE MEAN AMOUNT OF TIME SPENT VIEWING
TELEVISION BY THOSE LIVING IN THE CITY
AND THOSE LIVING IN THE COUNTRY

	Town (N=111)	Country (N=95)	Entire Sample (N=206)
Mean viewing time in hours per week	16.98	17.65	17.22

to check the original hypothesis with a known degree of accuracy; however, with these limitations in mind, a comparison of the average number of violence programs listed as favorites by those attending church weekly and the average for those not attending every week provides evidence for qualified observations on the subject. Table IX contains the data for such a comparison. The column headed "Attend Church Every Week" includes only students reporting weekly attendance; the column headed "Do Not Attend Every Week" includes those reporting monthly and yearly attendance as well as those who never attend.

Table IX indicates an inspectional difference between mean number of violence programs listed as favorites by the two groups compared. The difference is most evident in the composite averages found at the bottom of the two columns. With an average of 2.07, those who do not attend church every week list .63 more violence programs among their favorites than does the group attending church every week. It is also noted that there is a greater difference in average viewing of violence programs for the girls than there is for the boys.

The data suggests a tendency for the group attending church to list fewer violence programs among their favorites.

No conclusion regarding the original hypothesis is warranted by this data. Nevertheless, the author feels

TABLE IX

AVERAGE NUMBER OF VIOLENCE PROGRAMS LISTED AS FAVORITES
BY STUDENTS ATTENDING CHURCH EACH WEEK COMPARED
TO THE NUMBER OF VIOLENCE PROGRAMS LISTED
AS FAVORITES BY THOSE NOT ATTENDING
CHURCH EACH WEEK

Violence Programs By Grade and Sex	Attend Church Every Week (N=129)		Do <u>Not</u> Attend Every Week (N=67)	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
7th grade	1.1	1.9	2.0	1.9
8th grade	1.3	1.5	2.3	2.1
7th & 8th	1.18	1.75	2.15	2.0
	Girls & Boys		Girls & Boys	
7th & 8th	1.44		2.07	

that the information is noteworthy in relation to the trends in the data.

Relationship of amount of viewing to adjustment.

The data concerning the amount of time children spend viewing television in relation to their adjustment as judged by their teachers are presented in Table X in the form of correlation coefficients. The most noteworthy correlation shown in Table X is that of the seventh grade boys. This r of $-.438$ is significant at the one per cent level of confidence, indicating a substantial negative correlation between the two variables. This suggests that for this group, the greater the viewing time, the poorer the rated adjustment.

The correlations for the other three sex-grade groups are not significant. However, seventh grade boys' r is large enough to raise the boys' average r to $-.225$, significant at the five per cent level of confidence. In turn, the average r of the entire sample is sufficiently influenced by the relatively high seventh grade boys' r to raise the total sample average r to $-.195$, a value significant at the one per cent level of confidence.

It was stated earlier, in the form of a null hypothesis, that no significant relationship existed between the amount of viewing time and adjustment as judged by teachers.

TABLE X
 CORRELATIONS BETWEEN AMOUNT OF TELEVISION VIEWING
 AND ADJUSTMENT AS JUDGED BY TEACHERS USING
 THE ULLMANN FORCED-CHOICE TEST,
 BY GRADE AND BY SEX

	7th Grade	8th Grade	Average 7th & 8th	Average Entire Sample
Girls	-.193	-.138	-.165	
N =	(54)	(35)	(89)	
				-.195**
				(193)
Boys	-.438**	+.019	-.225*	
N =	(63)	(41)	(104)	

*5% level of confidence

**1% level of confidence

This null hypothesis can be rejected at the five per cent level of confidence for all boys and at the one per cent level of confidence for the seventh grade boys and the group as a whole. Rejection of this hypothesis is interpreted to mean that a low but definite negative relationship exists between TV viewing time and rated adjustment.

Relationship of amount of viewing to grade average.

The correlational record of the relationship between amount of television viewing and first semester grade average is presented in Table XI. The r between amount of viewing time and grade averages for the seventh grade girls is shown to be $-.408$, significant at the one per cent level of confidence. This moderate negative correlation suggests that the higher the amount of viewing, the lower is the grade average for this group. An r of $-.149$, the average r for the entire group, is significant at the five per cent level of confidence. Correlations for the seventh grade boys and the two eighth grade groups taken separately are not significant.

The null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between amount of television viewing and grade averages is rejected for the entire group on the five per cent level of confidence and for the seventh grade girls on the one per cent level of confidence. A small but

TABLE XI
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN AMOUNT OF VIEWING AND
FIRST SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES,
BY SEX AND BY GRADE

	7th Grade	8th Grade	Average 7th & 8th	Average Entire Sample
Girls	-.408**	+.098	-.171	
N =	(55)	(39)	(94)	
				-.149*
				(204)
Boys	-.138	-.116	-.127	
N =	(68)	(42)	(110)	

*5% level of confidence

**1% level of confidence

definite negative relationship exists between viewing time and grades. The magnitude is insufficient for use in individual prediction as a single variable but is suggestive regarding group trends.

Relationship of amount of viewing to intelligence.

Table XII presents correlation coefficients as indications of the degree of relationship between amount of television viewing and tested intelligence using the S.R.A. Primary Mental Abilities Test. Five significant correlations are shown, all of them significant at the one per cent level of confidence. Of these five, two are for the eighth grade. The eighth grade girls' r is $-.680$, and the eighth grade boys have an r of $-.398$. The correlations in the seventh grade are not significant, but the average correlation for the girls and the average correlation for the boys are significant at the one per cent level of confidence with r 's of $-.477$ and $-.267$, respectively. The r of $-.357$, the average for the entire sample, is also significant at the one per cent level of confidence.

The null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between viewing time and intelligence can be rejected on the one per cent level of confidence for the entire sample considered as a whole and for the eighth grade group. The negative correlations suggest that for

TABLE XII
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE AMOUNT OF TELEVISION VIEWING
AND INTELLIGENCE, BY SEX AND BY GRADE

	7th Grade	8th Grade	Average 7th & 8th	Average Entire Sample
Girls	-.125	-.680**	-.477**	
N =	(54)	(35)	(89)	
				-.405**
				(193)
Boys	-.134	-.398**	-.267**	
N =	(63)	(41)	(104)	

**1% level of confidence

these groups the less the viewing time the higher the tested intelligence.

As a further test of the relationship between the amount of viewing time and intelligence, a comparison was made of the mean (M) viewing times of the top thirty and bottom thirty students in terms of intelligence scores. The group at the top of the intelligence scale included all students with an IQ of 120 and above. The data are presented in Table XIII.

Inspection of Table XIII reveals no significant difference appearing in the means of the two groups. For further comparison, the means of the entire sample appear in the column to the extreme right. The similarity between the M of 18.1 hours per week for the top intelligence group and the M of 17.7 hours per week for the bottom group would suggest that within these groups intelligence does not appear to significantly affect the amount of time spent viewing television or vice versa.

Comparison of records of top and bottom ten per cent of group in terms of viewing time. As a further test of the inter-relationship of time spent viewing television and the group of variables previously tested for correlation with the amount of viewing, a comparison of means is shown in Table XIV. The record of the top ten per cent and

TABLE XIII

A COMPARISON OF THE AVERAGE VIEWING TIME OF THE
TOP THIRTY AND THE BOTTOM THIRTY STUDENTS
IN TERMS OF INTELLIGENCE SCORES

	Top 30 (IQ=120 & above)		Bottom 30 (IQ=94 & below)		Entire Sample (Mean IQ=106)	
	Girls N=12	Boys N=18	Girls N=15	Boys N=15	Girls N=97	Boys N=109
Viewing time in						
hours per week	15.8	19.7	16.4	19.1	17.2	19.6
	18.1		17.7		18.5	

TABLE XIV

A COMPARISON OF THE RECORDS OF THE TOP TEN PER CENT
AND LOWEST TEN PER CENT OF THE SAMPLE IN TERMS
OF AMOUNT OF TIME SPENT VIEWING TELEVISION

	Mean Score of Highest 10% (30 hrs. or more) (N=23)	Mean Score of Lowest 10% (4 hrs. or less) (N=23)	Entire Sample (N=206)
Viewing time in hours per week	35.26	1.39	17.22
Adjustment test	18.70	18.44	20.04
IQ	105.05	105.48	105.66
Grade Average (C=5)	5.53	5.76	5.77

lowest ten per cent of the sample was chosen for comparison because of the extremely wide difference in amount of viewing time. Theoretically, if a marked linear relationship existed, a comparison of these records would reveal a significant difference in the average scores of the high and low viewing groups. If there were no great difference in the scores of the two groups, it would suggest a lack of significant linear relationship. Any curvilinear relationship that might exist would, of course, escape detection by this method.

An inspectional comparison of the records of the top ten per cent and lowest ten per cent of the sample in terms of amount of time spent viewing television suggests a lack of significant difference in the average ratings of these two groups on any of the four variables. In fact, a comparison of the ratings of these two groups with the mean ratings of the entire sample shows a remarkable similarity. Only in the case of the teachers' rating of adjustment is there a difference.

The average adjustment score for the top ten per cent is 18.70, and the average score for the lowest ten per cent is 18.44. The average score for the entire sample is slightly higher, at 20.04. A lack of similarity in this direction might suggest that the highest and lowest ten per cent of the sample in terms of viewing time appear to be

less well adjusted (as perceived by teachers) than is the average of the entire sample.

Relationship between number of violence programs and rated adjustment. The relationship existing between the number of violence programs listed as favorite programs and adjustment as judged by teachers was tested for significance by correlational procedures. The correlation coefficients are contained in Table XV. Sheppard's correction for coarse grouping has been applied to these correlations.

The most outstanding correlation shown in Table XV is the r of $-.751$ for the eighth grade girls. It is significant well beyond the one per cent level of confidence and indicates a marked relationship between the two variables for this group. This high negative correlation suggests that for this group of eighth grade girls the higher their rated adjustment, the lower the number of violence programs listed as their favorites. For seventh grade girls and boys and the eighth grade boys, significant correlations do not exist; however, the average r for all girls, at $-.491$, and the average r of $-.344$ for the entire sample are significant at the one per cent level of confidence.

TABLE XV
 CORRELATION BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF VIOLENCE PROGRAMS
 LISTED AS FAVORITE PROGRAMS AND ADJUSTMENT AS
 JUDGED BY TEACHERS, BY SEX AND BY GRADE

	7th Grade	8th Grade	Average 7th & 8th	Average Entire Sample
Girls	-.177	-.751**	-.491**	
N =	(55)	(36)	(91)	
				-.344**
				(198)
Boys	-.086	-.213	-.147	
N =	(66)	(41)	(107)	

**1% level of confidence

The significant coefficients for the eighth grade girls, the girls' average, and the average of the four sex-grade groups make it possible to reject the null hypothesis for these groups at the one per cent level of confidence. The null hypothesis contended that there is no significant relationship between the number of violence programs listed as favorite programs and adjustment as rated by teachers. However, it cannot be concluded on the basis of this evidence that poor adjustment results in the choosing of a large number of violence programs or that viewing violence programs causes poor adjustment. The correlation coefficient merely indicates the degree of relationship existing between variables, not cause and effect relationships.

Relationship between number of violence programs and amount of guidance received in program choice. The degree of guidance received by the students was measured by Questions Two and Five in Section II of the questionnaire (Appendix A). Values from one through three were assigned the answers. When combined, a high of six was possible and a low of two was assured. Values were assigned answers to Question Two as follows: a, 3; b, 2; and c, 1. Question Five was assigned the following values: a, 1; b, 3; and c, 2.

The number of violence programs listed as favorites has been correlated with the amount of guidance reportedly received in the choice of programs. The coefficients for this relationship are shown in Table XVI.

The only correlation of notable magnitude is the $-.580$ for the eighth grade girls. This moderately high coefficient, significant on the one per cent level of confidence, indicates a substantial relationship between the variables for this group of girls. It could be inferred from the marked negative relationship that the greater the degree of guidance in program choice, the fewer the number of violence programs they list as favorites.

Coefficients for the seventh grade and the eighth grade boys are not significant. However, the one substantial r raises the average r of the girls to $-.340$, significant at the one per cent level of confidence. This carries over into the average r of $-.186$ for the sample so that with the large N it also is significant at the one per cent level of confidence. Thus, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between number of violence programs listed as favorites and amount of guidance in choosing programs can be rejected at the one per cent level of confidence for three groups: the sample as a whole, the girls of the sample, and especially the eighth grade girls.

TABLE XVI

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF VIOLENCE PROGRAMS
LISTED AS FAVORITE PROGRAMS AND THE REPORTED
AMOUNT OF GUIDANCE RECEIVED IN THE CHOICE
OF PROGRAMS, BY SEX AND BY GRADE

	7th Grade	8th Grade	Average r 7th & 8th	Average r Entire Sample
Girls	-.037	-.580**	-.340**	
N =	(54)	(34)	(88)	
				-.186**
				(200)
Boys	-.009	-.037	-.023	
N =	(62)	(40)	(102)	

**1% level of confidence

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate some effects of television viewing on the seventh and eighth grade students of Chehalis, Washington. In order to accomplish this, it was necessary to determine (1) how much time the students in this group spend viewing television; (2) how this time compares with the amount of time they spend at all other activities; (3) what television programs are their favorites; (4) how much guidance they receive in their viewing; (5) the relationship of church attendance to the quality of programs viewed; (6) the role of living in the city or the country as related to the amount of viewing; and (7) if statistically significant relationships exist between the amount and quality of viewing and such factors as adjustment, intelligence, academic achievement, and guidance in television viewing.

I. SUMMARY

The complete investigation can best be concluded by presenting a summary of the literature and a summary of the study itself as two separate but related parts.

Summary of the Literature

Today, almost every child in the country either has television in his home or has access to it. In 1955, approximately thirty-three million homes had TV, and in 1959 the number had increased to forty million, or 86 per cent of American homes. Several studies show sixth, seventh, and eighth graders to be the heaviest viewers. These pupils are reported to spend between twenty and thirty hours a week with television.

It appears that boys and girls spend about the same amount of time viewing and that the amount of viewing for both sexes tends to decrease from early to late adolescence. However, the amount of viewing does not change as much as does the choice of programs. Elementary children prefer programs filled with action; junior high youths stress variety and suspense; and those in high school consider the informational aspects of the program as well as qualities of production and writing. Program preferences among teenagers do not greatly differ from one socio-economic level to the next.

The choice of the programs children view is determined partly by preference but also by the variety of programming available. Some writers feel that little choice can be made in the type of program because the networks generally offer the same basic types at any given

time. Also, there has been a tendency in the past few years to present an increasing number of violence programs, especially "adult" Westerns. Many of these violence programs rank high as teenage favorites.

The guidance children receive varies greatly in amount and kind. More guidance is given in the form of restriction of total viewing time than in the quality of programs viewed. Parents are reported to give elementary school children more guidance than they do older children. Many writers contend that the ill effects of television viewing could be eliminated by proper supervision of children's viewing.

Most authors agree that if children view television as recommended by eye specialists, eyesight will not be damaged. They also feel that only an excessive amount of viewing could prevent children from participating in a sufficient amount of recreational activity.

One study indicated that some children read less than they did before the advent of TV and that other children read more. In addition, complaints from parents and teachers that television has caused children to read less have decreased in past years. Another study indicated that twenty hours of viewing a week did not adversely affect reading or achievement. In fact, some evidence suggests that television viewing increases children's

vocabularies, especially those of primary children. Most data concerning the effect of television on academic achievement are inconclusive.

Reports referring to television's effect on family life indicate that TV owners stay at home more since acquiring television, but not all writers agree that television viewing contributes to favorable family relations. In fact, surveys show that families with children, especially if there is at least five years difference in children's ages, have frequent conflict over choice of programs. Many parents report that TV interferes with family meals.

Television has been severely criticized as a stimulation to delinquency. Many experts feel that programs featuring aggression and violence encourage children to perform aggressive acts. Some writers suggest that only children already seriously disturbed will be affected adversely by violence on television. Still others assert that it cannot be proved that delinquency can actually be attributed to TV since it is only one of many sources of stimulation.

Most writers acknowledge that television's offerings are not all undesirable, but they also show concern for its over-all effect on children's adjustment and character. Undesirable effects cited include the beliefs

that constant entertainment of children produces "dependence and passivity"; children vicariously live experiences on television too early in life, causing "premature maturity"; they may become stereotyped in their moral judgments; and they can develop a "callousness" from this "subtle form of brainwashing." However, other authors indicate that children's disturbances generally result from interpersonal relationships and not from television.

Guidance in television viewing is suggested as the best way to help children receive the greatest number of benefits from this medium and to avoid its undesirable effects. Such guidance would insure that children do not spend an excessive amount of time with television and would also guide them to choose programs with discretion.

A fuller understanding of the problem requires recognition of the difficulty the television producer has in attempting to satisfy the audience and the sponsor, avoid criticism, and remain within cost and time requirements. Even so, it is the responsibility of the broadcaster to present programs which do not affect children adversely. Television has no official censor; instead it relies indirectly on the public's support and criticism in judging the success of a presentation.

Summary of the Study

Most of the data for this investigation were acquired through the use of a questionnaire administered to the sample of 206 seventh and eighth grade students by their homeroom teachers. This group consisted of 120 seventh graders and 86 eighth graders; by sex, it was composed of 95 girls and 111 boys. Teachers rated the adjustment of each pupil in their homeroom class with the Ullmann Forced-Choice Test. Also, intelligence scores and first semester class grades were secured from the students' cumulative records.

Data from the questionnaire: personal information.

The study sample showed 111 students living in the city and 93 living in the country. Also, 148 reported activity in at least one organization, with 57 not participating. Generally good church attendance is indicated by the fact that 129 of the student sample attend every week and only 17 reported never attending.

The students reported low participation in intramurals, with less than one-third active in that area. They indicated high activity, however, in unorganized recreation.

Results further showed that 89 per cent of the students reported having television in their homes; 16 students have two sets. Only 23 students do not have TV. Over half

of the sample views television regularly and 18 reported almost never viewing. This reveals that 5 of those not having TV at home occasionally must view it elsewhere.

Data from the questionnaire: viewing habits. The data presented in Section II reveal a fairly distinct television profile. The sample has viewed television for an average of four years. Maverick is distinctly their favorite program, with American Bandstand second, Dick Clark Show third, and 77 Sunset Strip fourth. The students included 10 violence programs in their top 20, compared to 7 listed by the national television audience. The amount of guidance in viewing received by the group varies. Most of the children have some restrictions placed on their viewing, but a disturbingly large number have entirely no restriction on the amount of viewing. By far the greatest portion of the viewers are completely free to choose their own programs. Only twenty-five of them listed programs they were not permitted to view. Although not entirely consistent with the other information, thirty-five persons reported that with the help of other persons they planned a schedule of viewing. It is evident that the sample is not entirely uninfluenced by guidance, but it is also clear that the majority of the sample is free to choose programs without advice or help from anyone, and a large number of

them are completely unrestricted in the amount of television they can view.

Certain general television viewing traits appear significant. First, almost half of the viewers generally know what programs they want to view even before the programs are presented. Such prior knowledge of television offering might result from one of these situations: following a preplanned viewing schedule, an almost automatic routine of viewing, or from selective viewing of favorites only. Second, two-thirds of the viewers always choose programs they personally feel are enjoyable or entertaining. Only one-sixth of the viewers sometimes selected certain programs in hopes of getting more than entertainment from them. From this it can be inferred that for most of the sample, television viewing is primarily intended to be an entertaining experience, since their choices are based entirely on the entertainment qualities of the show. Third, more than half of the sample elects to discontinue viewing if they do not care for any of the programs offered during the time they are before the set, but a sizeable number are content to continue viewing anything that happens to be on, regardless of what it may be. The latter group appears to be viewing merely for the sake of viewing, for they no longer are even being entertained. And fourth, being prevented from viewing a certain program because

another's choice is being viewed is a problem which occurs "only seldom" for about half of the sample. Nevertheless, conflict in viewing is a real problem for more than one-fourth of the group. A good plan to resolve this problem might well do more than reduce friction.

Data from the questionnaire: activities. Students report an average of nine hours of sleep each night. They also spend 6.5 hours each weekday in school and an average of 2.46 hours a day viewing TV. Only 1.13 hours a day are spent in active recreation, and lesser amounts are devoted to each of the other activities. The reported average of only 39 minutes spent in casual conversation, which includes telephone conversations, is believed to be a very conservative figure, especially in the light of the fact that they reported spending the same amount of time working on homework each day. They reported attending church and Sunday school 2 hours each week, a seemingly high average for the whole group until this is compared with the 2.1 hours a week spent listening to the phonograph and 3.6 hours a week listening to the radio.

Data from the questionnaire: time with parents. An average of 26.4 hours a week is spent by the students with their parents. Of this, 12.3 hours are spent viewing television. Three-fourths of the students' viewing is

done with their parents, but even more important, almost half of the total time these children spend with their parents is occupied viewing television.

Statistical Treatment of the Data

Because sex and age differences often exist in children's viewing habits, a fully accurate analysis of the data required separate statistical treatment of data for each sex-age group in the sample. Analysis of data for the group as a whole was accomplished by combining the statistical findings for all four sex-age groups.

The entire sample views television an average of 17.0 hours a week. Seventh grade boys view TV more than any other sex-age group with a median of 20.07 hours a week, and the eighth grade girls are low, with only 13.0 hours a week. The total range of viewing time is from a low of 0 hours of viewing, for ten persons, to a high of 47 hours for one boy.

Statistical analysis of the data indicated the following results with reference to the positively stated hypotheses of this study:

Hypothesis (1): Children not restricted in total amount of television viewing tend to watch it excessively.

Results: A correlation study revealed that the relationship existing between total amount of viewing and

amount of restriction was not significant when considering sex-age groups separately or when considering the r of $-.009$ for the group as a whole. Therefore, this hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis (2): Excessive viewing occupies a disproportionate amount of children's time, so much they are unable to achieve a satisfactory balance of activities necessary for proper health and for satisfactory social and mental adjustment.

Results: This investigation did not reveal the type of data necessary to statistically test this hypothesis. However, TV viewing was found to rank third in time consumption behind sleeping and school attendance, which might be interpreted as evidence towards disproportionate time spent televiewing.

Hypothesis (3): Children living in the city spend a greater amount of time viewing television than do children living in the country.

Results: A comparison of the mean viewing time revealed a marked similarity in the amount of time these two groups spend viewing television. The difference between means is not sufficiently large to support the hypothesis. This comparison suggests that the two groups spend essentially the same amount of time viewing television.

Hypothesis (4): Children who attend church and Sunday school every week are less apt to watch programs featuring violence than are those who do not attend church and Sunday school every week.

Results: Children attending church every Sunday tend to list fewer violence programs among their list of favorites than do those not attending every week, but it cannot be established that children actually follow a pattern of viewing indicated by a list of their favorite programs. Therefore, no conclusion regarding this hypothesis can be made with a known degree of confidence.

The null hypotheses were tested with the following results:

Null hypothesis (1): There is no significant relationship between total times spent viewing television and adjustment as judged by teachers.

Results: This hypothesis was rejected at the one per cent level of confidence for the seventh grade boys on the basis of a correlation coefficient of $-.438$. The average r for the boys in the sample is significant at the five per cent level and the average r for the four sex-age groups is significant at the one per cent level of confidence. The rejection of this hypothesis indicates that a definite negative relationship exists between the two

variables, viewing time and adjustment: the less time spent viewing the better the rated adjustment.

Null hypothesis (2): There is no significant relationship between total time spent viewing television and academic achievement.

Results: It was possible to reject this hypothesis at the five per cent level of confidence for the entire sample. An r of $-.408$ for the seventh grade girls shows that within that group a marked relationship exists between the two variables. This negative correlation suggests that the higher the viewing time the lower the achievement.

Null hypothesis (3): There is no significant relationship between total time spent viewing television and intelligence.

Results: Rejection is made at the one per cent level for all groups except the seventh grade class. The eighth grade correlations are particularly significant since they come well within the one per cent level of confidence. Greater amounts of viewing time is indicative of lower grades. However, a second comparison of the average amount of viewing for the top thirty and bottom thirty students of the sample in terms of intelligence scores revealed no significant difference between the two means.

This suggests that the general trend for the entire group is not applicable to the extremes.

Also a comparison was made of the mean adjustment ratings, IQ's, and grade averages of the highest ten per cent and the lowest ten per cent of the group in terms of viewing time. In every instance the difference between mean scores was insignificant.

Null hypothesis (4): There is no significant relationship between the number of violence programs listed as favorite programs and psychological adjustment as judged by teachers.

Results: This hypothesis is rejected at the one per cent level of confidence for the entire sample. An exceptionally significant relationship exists between variables within the eighth grade girls group, where an r of $-.751$ exists. This, of course, suggests a trend towards poorer rated adjustment being associated with the selection of more violence programs as favorites.

Null hypothesis (5): There is no significant relationship between the number of violence programs listed as favorite programs and the amount of guidance received in the choices of programs.

Results: The null hypothesis can be rejected at the one per cent level of confidence with particular emphasis on the eighth grade girls. Individually the

other three sex-age groups' correlations are not significant, but the one highly significant r raises the average r for the entire sample to significance. A rather surprising interpretation, necessitated by the evidence, is that the more direction in viewing, the greater the selection of violence programs as favorites.

II. DISCUSSION

Although this study does not provide conclusive evidence regarding the effects of television viewing on young adolescents, it reveals the complexity of the problem, and certain trends in the research results appear to substantiate the findings of others. When studying the effects of television a tremendous number of variables must be taken into account, as well as chance error which often enters into the gathering of data. Qualifications must be placed on the data in terms of limitations existing in the data gathering instrument, the questionnaire, and in the accuracy of the students' self descriptions.

It is not possible to isolate television's effects as a single factor in children's lives; it is interwoven into their complex of experiences. Within the limits of studying TV as a single variable, this study was an attempt to discover the students' viewing habits and investigate the degree of relationship existing between this variable

and certain other variables identified with the students. If and when significant relationships were discovered, these did not prove television caused such relationships, only that television was associated with the variable and might be one determining variable, one among other factors. Perhaps researchers will include many of these relevant determining variables in future studies, using complex factorial design and analysis of variance, in order to see how the interaction of television with other variables affects young adolescents' behavior.

The author has recognized limitations of the information gathered by the questionnaire. The students were expected to complete it honestly and accurately, but no check could expediently be made on the validity of the data. Battin's survey, cited in the review, supplies some evidence regarding the accuracy of children's reports of their viewing habits. He first asked the children in his sample to estimate the number of hours they spent viewing TV. He then gave them a diary in which they recorded their actual viewing time over a seven-day period. The diary reports were within one or two hours of the original estimates in 86 per cent of the cases. In only one per cent of the cases was there a discrepancy of more than four hours (2:2-3).

Assuming that the students were as honest and accurate as possible, it was, nevertheless, observed that complete accuracy was not possible for students with difficulties in simple, basic arithmetic. Such students were unable to accurately complete the weekly schedule of activities which supplied the figures for total amount of viewing as well as time spent at other activities. The author also recognizes that the part of the questionnaire used to measure guidance in viewing was not sufficiently definitive. The amount of restriction placed on viewing was measured with only one question, allowing a choice of only three degrees of restriction. A similar situation existed in measuring guidance in the choice of programs.

Even with recognition of limitations of the data, this study reveals certain noteworthy trends. Time spent televiewing far exceeds all other activities except sleep and school attendance. An activity occupying such a great amount of time undoubtedly has some effect on children. There is slight tendency for a high amount of television viewing to be associated with poor adjustment, as rated by teachers; lower academic achievement; and lower intelligence. The choosing of a greater number of violence programs as favorites is related to poorer church attendance and poorer rated adjustment.

The sample as a whole views TV less than the nation's average seventh and eighth graders do; however, many students report viewing television excessively. Although most students report some restriction on the amount of television they are allowed to view, the majority report receiving no guidance in the choice of programs to view. Even though research is currently inconclusive concerning television's effects on children, the little evidence that is available has led to the assumption that excessive viewing in general and/or excessive viewing of violence programs has adverse effects on some children. The assumption suggests a need for a constructive program of guidance by parents as well as teachers. A fully successful program of guidance would involve parents and children cooperatively planning a reasonably flexible schedule of viewing which would provide for a balanced program of activities. Also, more teachers and parents should help children gain the greatest good from television by working with them in the development of critical judgment for use in choosing programs with discretion.

Parents and teachers should realize that young adolescents are still children; although maturing rapidly and no longer as dependent as before, they perhaps need adult guidance and direction now more than in previous years. An activity occupying as much time as television

viewing cannot be left to chance, especially in view of the dual potential of the medium. It is evident that youth will respond to television, but will responsible adults accept the challenge of insuring that the response children make to TV will not be deleterious, but instead will enrich and inspire as well as entertain?

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APPENDIX A

INFORMATION PLEASE

Name _____ Grade _____ Date _____

The purpose of this series of questions is to provide information for educational research about students and their TV life. The students of the Seventh and Eighth Grades at the R. E. Bennett School have been selected to represent students of your age level. As one of these students your complete cooperation is needed in completing this questionnaire accurately and correctly.

The study is interested mainly in results from the group as a whole. This is not a test. Your answers will not affect you or your grades. Be as honest and accurate as possible. Please complete everything that concerns you.

SECTION I PERSON TO PERSON

Mark an X in front of the correct answers to the question in this section.

1. Do you live in town or in the country?
 town country

2. In which of the following organization are you active?
 Scouts Rainbow Hobby Club
 4-H Church Youth Group None of these

(If you belong to organized groups other than these, list them:

_____.)

3. How often do you attend church or Sunday School?
 every week about once a month
 once a year never

4. Do you take an active part in after-school intramural sports?
 Yes No

Note: The original questionnaire was not divided in the same manner as it is presented in this Appendix. In an effort to limit the number of pages in the instrument administered to the students, the questionnaire was mimeographed on four sheets of legal size paper (8½x14).7

5. In which of the following unorganized recreational activities do you take active part?
 hunting skiing skating horseback riding
 fishing hiking bowling none of these

(If you take part in other types of unorganized recreation (not team sports) than those mentioned here, list them: _____.)

6. How many TV sets do you have in your home?
 none one two more than two

(If you do not have TV in your home but watch it elsewhere, indicate the approximate number of hours a week you watch it. _____ hours a week)

7. Roughly speaking, how often do you watch TV?
 regularly occasionally almost never

(Those persons who "almost never" watch TV cannot accurately answer the questions in Section II. Those persons now go ahead to the activity schedule (Section III) on page 4 and complete that.)

SECTION II THIS IS YOUR (TV) LIFE

- A. Approximately how many years have you been watching TV?
 _____ years
- B. What are your favorite TV programs? List the program you like best as number one and continue on down in the order of your choice. (If you need help with program names, see the list attached to the back of this questionnaire.)

1. _____ 3. _____
 2. _____ 4. _____

- C. There are four possible answers to each of the seven questions below. Mark an X before the statement which to you is the best answer.

1. How much TV are you allowed to watch?

- a. I may watch TV as much as I want to after I have completed my homework and all other work I have to do.

- b. I may watch TV as much as I want to, at any time I care to do so.
- c. The amount of TV I am allowed to watch is definitely limited to certain times.
- d. None of the above descriptions fit my situation. (If so, briefly describe your situation: _____.)

2. How much freedom do you have to choose which programs you will watch?

- a. I am allowed to watch only the programs others have chosen for me.
- b. There are only a few programs I am not allowed to watch. (If so, name one of them: _____.)
- c. I am free to choose the programs I want to watch.
- d. None of the above fits me. (If so, describe your situation: _____.)

3. How do you decide what program to watch?

- a. I generally know what program I want to see before that program comes on.
- b. I generally watch whatever happens to come on, regardless of what it might be.
- c. As I begin watching, I generally consult a TV guide or schedule to help me decide what to watch.
- d. My situation is none of the ones mentioned above. (If so, describe your situation: _____.)

4. What is the basis of your program selections?

- a. I usually follow the decisions or advice of others.
- b. I always choose programs I personally feel are most enjoyable and entertaining.
- c. Sometimes I choose certain programs because I hope to get more than entertainment from them.
- d. None of the above fits me. (If so, explain the basis of your selections: _____.)

5. How much advice and help in choosing programs do you get from others (parents, teachers, etc.)?
- a. I select my own programs without help from anyone.
 - b. With the help of others I plan a schedule of TV viewing.
 - c. Others occasionally discourage me from watching certain programs they feel are not best for me and encourage me to watch programs that they feel I will benefit from.
 - d. My situation is not given above. (If so, describe your situation: _____.)
6. If you are before the TV set and you realize there is nothing on that you care for -- what do you do?
- a. Continue to watch after choosing a program which may not be too bad.
 - b. Watch whatever happens to come on regardless of what it may be.
 - c. Discontinue watching TV.
 - d. None of the above. (If so, describe what you would do: _____.)
7. How often are you prevented from seeing a program you want to see because another member of the family is watching another program at that time?
- never seldom quite often very often

SECTION III HOW YOUR WEEK IS SPENT

This is your personal schedule and only you can complete it accurately. Don't be concerned with what others put down. Please show in the column under each day the number of hours you spend at the activities listed in the column to the left.

It is recommended that you try to complete one day's column before going on to the next. Total the number of hours for each day at the bottom of each day's column. If too many hours or not enough hours have been indicated for any one day please review your figures and adjust them as best you can. Remember, these will only be approximate times during an average week. You will not have entries for each activity every day of the week. If time spent at an activity could be listed under several categories, try to choose the most appropriate one, but show it only once. Each day should total approximately 24 hours.

	Sun.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Sat.
Sleeping							
Eating (not counting lunch at school)							
Attending school (including lunch)							
Traveling to and from school							
Working on homework							
Reading for pleasure (books, magazines, etc.)							
Working at home (such as doing dishes, chores)							
Working away from home (paper routes, baby sitting, etc.)							
Playing in unorganized activities as well as organized sports (not during regular school hours)							
Watching TV							
Listening to a phonograph							
Listening to the radio							
Casually talking and visiting with friends (telephone conversation included)							
Church and Sunday School							
Miscellaneous activities (anything not included above)							
Total hours in each day							

SECTION IV (Times shown here will be indicated in above schedule also)

	Sun.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Sat.
Watching TV with one or both parents							
Total time spent with parents at <u>all</u> types of activities (such as work, play, church, TV)							

(This is a list of commonly watched TV programs. It definitely is not a list of all the programs offered -- even your favorite program may not be here. You do not need to limit your choice of favorites to these. This list is to be used only if you need help with the name of a certain program.)

SUNDAY

Morning

Bible Puppets
Basketball

Afternoon

This is the Life
Industry on Parade
Movie
Cartoon Carnival
Playhouse
Mama
Liberace
Twentieth Century
Face the Nation
Lassie

Evening

Victory at Sea
I Love Lucy
Father Knows Best
Burns and Allen
Medic
December Bride
You Asked For It
If You Had a Million
Maverick

Evening (cont'd)

Steve Allen
Ed Sullivan
Damon Runyan
The Lawman
Chevy Show
Colt .45
G.E. Theatre
Alfred Hitchcock
Loretta Young Show
Mike Hammer
Meet McGraw
What's My Line
Movie

WEEKDAY AFTERNOONS

Captain Puget
American Bandstand
Cisco Kid
Jungle Adventure
Mickey Mouse Club
Doug Edwards
Twenty-six Men
Bold Adventure
Popeye
Our Miss Brooks
Brakeman Bill
Huckleberry Hound

MONDAY Evening

News
Death Valley Days
Sheriff of Cochise
Father Knows Best
Millionaire
Restless Gun
Danny Thomas
Wells Fargo
Bold Journey
Peter Gunn
Voice of Firestone
Desilu Playhouse
Arthur Murray
Patti Page
Buccaneers
Jack Parr Show

TUESDAY Evening

Air Power
Life of Riley
I Married Joan
Leave It to Beaver
Medic
Cheyenne
Dragnet
Whirlybirds

TUESDAY Evening
(cont'd)

Wyatt Earp
Red Skelton
Rifleman
Naked City
Alcoa Presents
The Vise
Wrestling

WEDNESDAY Evening

Roy Rogers
Sir Lancelot
Tugboat Annie
Life of Riley
Mr. & Mrs. North
Buttons
Disney Presents
Wagon Train
Navy Log
Trackdown
Lawrence Welk
Millionaire
I've Got a Secret
Ozzie and Harriet
Milton Berle
U. S. Steel Hour
Bat Masterson
Glencannon
Patti Page
Jack Parr

THURSDAY Evening

Mackenzie's Raiders
Derringer
Steve Canyon
Zorro
Zane Grey
Highway Patrol
Real McCoys
Playhouse 90
Wyatt Earp
Pat Boone
Loretta Young
Groucho Marx
Movie

FRIDAY Evening

Annie Oakley
NBC News
Your Hit Parade
Tournament Bowling
Boxing
Rawhide
Rin Tin Tin
Ellery Queen
Phil Silvers
Science Fiction
Man with a Camera
Lineup
77 Sunset Strip
Person to Person
Wells Fargo

SATURDAYMorning

Cartoons
Telaventure Tales
World Around Us
Robin Hood

Afternoon

Seattle Bandstand
Movie
Zorro
Cartoon Carnival
Lone Ranger

Evening

Air Force Story
26 Men
Perry Mason
People Are Funny
Dick Clark Show
Wanted
Tennessee Ernie
Have Gun, Will Travel
Gale Storm
Perry Como
Gunsmoke
Night Court
Lawrence Welk
Cimarron City
Alfred Hitchcock
Movietime
Wrestling

APPENDIX B

FORCED CHOICE TEST

Student's Name _____ Teacher _____

Directions: In each of the 18 sets of descriptive statements below, pick out for each pupil that statement which you feel fits the child most aptly. Mark through the letter of that description. Do not be concerned if the description does not apply exactly, and do not dwell too long upon your decision. Experience has shown that in most instances, the ratings can be completed in about 4 minutes per child. Just pick out the one statement in each set which comes closest--the one which the child is "most like."

When you are finished, there should be 18 marks for each pupil.

1. A. Sees the bright or funny side of things
B. Likes to be praised
C. Obedient
D. Participates actively in school functions
2. A. Pitches in when things are to be done
B. Requires corrections
C. Needs much extra help
D. Respects rules
3. A. Is easily excited
B. Dislikes criticism
C. Works better when praised
D. Popular, has many friends
4. A. Talkative
B. Is happy and easy to get along with
C. Is conscientious
D. Will always manage to get along
5. A. Carries through an undertaking about as well as others of his age
B. Figures out things for himself
C. Requires encouragement and praise
D. Omits optional assignments
6. A. Would answer truthfully if asked a question but would not volunteer any information harmful to himself
B. Recognizes his own shortcomings
C. Shows emotions in a restrained way
D. Helps others who are having difficulty

7.
 - A. Other children are eager to be near him or on his side
 - B. Sensitive
 - C. Enjoys just being a part of the group without taking the lead
 - D. A scattered thinker
8.
 - A. Is easily irritated, flustered, or upset
 - B. Talks about self, what he has done, how he feels, etc.
 - C. Has trouble getting along
 - D. Quiet
9.
 - A. Resentful
 - B. Puts up a good front
 - C. Gives up a habit which annoys others when it is called to his attention
 - D. A typical child for his years
10.
 - A. Will work hard at a task only when he has chosen it himself
 - B. Is easily upset
 - C. Is more apt to give in than continue a quarrel
 - D. Rubs people the wrong way
11.
 - A. Does not seem to profit by experience
 - B. Criticizes other people
 - C. Is easily confused
 - D. Quiet
12.
 - A. Other children regard this child as a pest
 - B. Is always thinking up alibis
 - C. In group work, often insists that his way is better
 - D. When something goes wrong, is more apt to blame himself than the other fellow
13.
 - A. Never gives up regardless of how difficult the job
 - B. Is self-confident
 - C. Resents it when people hurt his feelings
 - D. Repeats mistakes
14.
 - A. Is rarely asked for his opinions by other students
 - B. Considers the welfare of his class, team, club, or school as his own personal interest
 - C. Maintains a calm appearance and behavior even when emotionally disturbed
 - D. Lacks confidence in himself

15. A. Can become absorbed by his own interests
B. Gets along well in school activities
C. Is alert, interested
D. Laughs at children who clown
E. An active child
F. Can be depended upon by an adult leader of a group to do his share
16. A. Needs much prodding
B. Expresses his annoyance when provoked
C. Makes sensible, practical plans
D. Is popular with all his classmates
E. Pretty honest, on the whole, though he may occasionally "slip"
F. Assertive
17. A. Others come to him for help
B. Reports those who break the rules
C. Sometimes disturbs others by laughing and talking, but stops at once when reminded
D. Continually on the defensive
E. Is forgetful
F. Show-off, attention-getter
18. A. When assigned work in school, does only part of it
B. Others cannot work with him
C. Will not give in even when proven wrong
D. Likes to daydream, but can bring himself back to reality when there is work to be done
E. Is tense or ill-at-ease when reciting
F. Although he does not show enthusiasm for group activities, he cooperates when assigned a task

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

	Girls (N=95)	Boys (N=111)	Entire Sample (N=206)
SECTION I			
1. Live in town	47	64	111
Live in country	47	46	93
2. Active in Organizations (At least one)	74	74	148
Scouts	20	37	57
4-H	23	17	40
Rainbow	14	--	14
Church Youth	52	38	90
Hobby Club	--	3	3
None of these	18	39	57
Other than these	1	--	1
3. Attend church or Sunday School			
Every week	66	63	129
Once a month	10	20	30
Once a year	3	17	20
Never	6	11	17
4. After-school intramurals			
Take active part	9	51	60
Do not take active part	81	73	154

	Girls (N=95)	Boys (N=111)	Entire Sample (N=206)
5. Recreational activities (At least one)	73	108	181
Hunting	7	55	62
Fishing	20	90	110
Skiing	7	7	14
Hiking	29	58	87
Skating	39	26	65
Bowling	28	29	57
Horseback riding	7	28	35
None of these	16	7	23
Other than these	26	32	58
6. TV sets in your home			
None	11	12	23
One	75	92	167
Two	8	8	16
More than two	--	--	--
7. How often watch TV			
Regularly	52	76	128
Occasionally	22	23	55
Almost never	8	10	18

Girls (N=95)	Boys (N=111)	Entire Sample (N=206)
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SECTION II VIEWING PROFILE

A. Years watching TV	M =	3.41	4.35	3.91
B. Favorite TV programs (See Table I)				
C. TV traits and amount of guidance received				
1. How much TV allowed to view				
a. As much as desired after work is finished		52	61	113
b. As much as desired, at any time		8	14	22
c. Amount is definitely limited		11	18	29
d. None of the above		14	11	25
2. How much freedom to choose own programs				
a. Watch only programs others choose for me		11	9	20
b. Only a few programs not allowed to watch (A list of the pro- hibited programs appears in Table IV)		11	16	27
c. Choose own programs		40	48	88
d. None of the above		21	25	46

	Girls (N=95)	Boys (N=111)	Entire Sample (N=206)
3. How decide what program to view			
a. Know program before it comes on	37	42	79
b. Watch whatever comes on regardless of what it is	5	6	11
c. Consult a TV guide when begin viewing	30	51	81
d. None of the above	4	3	7
4. Basis of your program selections			
a. Usually follow decisions of others	10	15	25
b. Choose programs feel are entertaining	57	66	123
c. Choose certain programs for more than entertainment	15	17	32
d. None of the above	2	5	7
5. How much advice and help in choosing programs			
a. Select own programs without help	28	54	82
b. With the help of others, plan a schedule of viewing	19	16	35
c. Others discourage certain programs and encourage others	29	39	68
d. None of the above	7	5	12

	Girls (N=95)	Boys (N=111)	Entire Sample (N=206)
6. Nothing on that you care for			
a. Continue to watch after choosing a program which may not be too bad	17	28	45
b. Watch whatever happens to come on regardless of what it may be	8	6	14
c. Discontinue watching TV	55	62	117
d. None of the above	8	9	17
7. Conflict in viewing			
Never	5	9	14
Seldom	43	66	109
Quite often	25	23	48
Very often	10	7	17