# CHAPTER - II

## PROBLEM AND HYPOTHESES

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In research process, the first and foremost step happens to be that of selecting and the properly defining a research problem. A researcher must find the problem and formulate it so that it becomes susceptible to research. A research problem, in general refers to some difficulty which is a researcher experiences in the context of either a theoretical or practical situation and wants to obtain a solution for the same. It may take years for an investigator to seek answers to his question. In scientific investigation, the best way is to frame research worthy problems in the form of clear and unambiguous interrogative statements.

According to Hill and Kerber (1967), the statement of the problem should also define and preserve an appropriate universe of discourse which is based upon the body of prior knowledge containing the subject matter. Therefore, in the present chapter an attempt has been made to frame research worthy problems, in an interrogative form. These are as under:

**STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

1. How independent variables (parent-child interactions, intelligence, aggression, parental-restrictions) are related to the amount of TV viewing?

2. Does parent-child interactions has any bearing upon the amount of TV viewing among children?
3. Does intellectual level of child affects amount of TV viewing?

4. Does level of aggression affects amount of TV viewing?

5. Does parental restrictions affects amount of TV viewing?

It is clear from the above expressions of problems that the present study has attempted to deal with all five variety of variables out of which four are independent variables i.e. parent-child interactions (nurturing and rejecting), intelligence (high and low), aggression (high and low) and parental restrictions (high and low). The effect of these variables will be seen on one dependent variable i.e. amount of TV viewing. Therefore, in order to know each variable included in the present research it is necessary to throw some light upon its operational definitions, theoretical and empirical nature.

NATURE OF THE VARIABLES

PARENT-CHILD INTERACTIONS:

Family is the child's first and longest-lasting context for the development compared to other species. Human children develop slowly, requiring years of support and instructions before they are ready to be independent. Families are pervasive, and parents are universally important in the lives of children. Of course, other social settings also mold children's development, but in power and breadth of influence, none equals the family. Family introduces children to the physical world through the opportunities it
offers for play and exploration of objects. It also creates bonds between people that are unique. The attachments children form with parents and siblings usually last life time, and they serve as models for relationships in the wilder world of neighbourhood and school. With in the family, children also experience their first social conflicts. Discipline by parents and arguments with siblings provide children with important lesson in compliance and cooperation and opportunities to learn how to influence the behaviour of others. Finally, the family serves as children's first context for learning the language, cognitive skills, and social and moral values of their culture.

The human family in its most common form - a life long commitment between a man and woman who feed, shelter and nurture their children until they reach maturity. Operationally parent-child interactions can be defined as "Sharing of relations with one another, which can be emotionally, socially, physically or mentally". It may come as something of a surprise to say that a child is born to a mother watching television. Indeed, the first moving images in the child's primary environment are mother and the television set. A famous author Shobha De in her new book 'Speedpost' talked about parenting in the new century. According to her "parents have lost their moral authority as parents. And Kids are capitalising on this lapse. No body knows what's right or wrong any longer".

Henggeler et.al (1991), showed that maternal ratings of life events stress and fathers marital satisfaction were associated with TV viewing, independent of each other and of social class. Thus, high TV viewing is
associated with a relatively stressful family context. Lawrence, Patricia, Frances and Wozniak (1989), reported data from personal interviews indicated that 65% of Ss' viewing time was spent with another family member, most often a sibling. Fathers were more likely than mothers to be co-viewers. Family characteristics did not affect likelihood of Ss and parents watching TV together. Lack of access to parents (mother was employed or no father was in the home) generally increased the time adolescents spent with the TV (Brown, et al., 1990). Peters, et al., (1991), concluded that majority of children programmes were viewed without parents, while majority of adult programmes were watched with parents. Co-viewing patterns of adult programmes were predicted from parents' individual viewing habits, but not from the child's. Co-viewing declined with age. Parental encouragement and regulation of viewing were orthogonal dimensions. Children whose parents encouraged viewing watched more child informative programming; Children of restrictive parents watched less entertainment programmes. Greenberg (1987) found that adolescents who lived with both original parents watched less television than teens from single-parent or parent-step parent families. In another study, 12 yr. old children from father absent homes were found to watch an average of one hour more TV on weekend days than children with two parents at home (Medrich, Roizen, Rubin Buckley, 1982). Messaris and Kerr (1983), found that mothers who perceive themselves as more communication-oriented reported using more non-directive utterances when watching TV with their children. Non-directive utterances include those statements to the child that do not command the child to do some particular action.
Liebes (1992), concluded that (1) TV is a presence to be reckoned with; (2) variation in family culture have a lot to do with the way in which TV is incorporated into the process of socialization. Tangney (1988), reported that only 22.4% of the children reported that they usually watched TV in the company of their parents and siblings. A larger proportion of his sample responded that they usually watch with siblings only (39.4%) or alone (34.2%). Further evidence for the independence of parents and children's viewing habits is found from parents' global estimates of their own viewing frequency. The majority of parents (60%) reported that, on weekdays, they typically watch TV about 1 hr. a day or not at all. Roughly half of the parents reported 0-1 hrs. per day devoted to TV on weekends. Even allowing for the possibility of underestimated reports due to a social desirability bias, these data stand in sharp contrast to the average weekly viewing frequency reported by the children—more than 20 hrs. per week. It would thus appear that a substantial portion of children's viewing time is not shared with parents. The effects of coviewing may partially, but certainly not fully, account for observed relation between parental attitudes and children's television viewing patterns.

Children who are already disadvantaged by virtue of relatively dysfunctional parent-child relationships, spend more time viewing TV, in general, than their peers—that is, more than 25 hrs. a week (Tangney and Feshbach, 1988). Researchers have reported the effect of demographic variables on amount of time children spend viewing television (Juster and Stafford 1985,
Robinson, 1977; Lawrence, 1985). Limited research has been reported concerning the effect of demographic variables on coviewing. Palmer (1983), Rossiter and Robertson (1975) and Goodman (1983) stated that parents are more likely to watch television with younger children than with older children, possibly because older children have more extra familial activities. Parent-child coviewing is effective in influencing children viewing behaviour (Abelman, 1986; Robert, 1981) and in guiding children's learning from television (Bryce and Leichter, 1983; Davis and Abelman, 1986; Messaris & Kerr, 1984) it seemed important to explore how much coviewing occurs. It was also reported by Csikszentmihalyi and Larsan, (1984) and Csikszentmihalyi, Larsan and Prescott, (1977), that adolescents tend to amount of television viewed by children and parents scores on Bavolek's (1984) Adult and Adolescent Parenting Inventory (AAPI), an instrument that assesses parents' inability to be empathically aware of their child's needs, a strong belief in the value of strict punishment, the degree to which parents have unrealistic expectations of a child's developmental level, and the degree to which parents look to their child for support and nurturance. In two samples of upper-elementary children, such maladaptive parenting attitudes were strongly related to children viewing frequency. Watching TV is more than solitary and that much of the children's viewing time is spent in unplanned co-viewing with family members (Bower, 1973; Palmer, Hockett, Dean, 1983; Pearl, Bouthillet & Lazar, 1982).

Sang, et. al. (1992), findings showed that current models of coviewing are in need of refinement. The proposed expansion by a longitudinal perspective allows for differential predictions about age-related trends in
adolescent viewing behaviour in relation to parental coviewing patterns. The family remains a powerful agent of socialization in contemporary society. There are determinations of the family itself in a class society, and parental authority is contested by other sites of power, including school or peer groups. Whereas parents may feel powerless, or seek to exercise power by limiting their children’s viewing, a more open and equal relationship over TV could be an educative and bonding factor. Families need to think about and act upon the way in which they interact with their televisions, not simply try to control the quantity or kind of programmes viewed when or by whom. Such control will typically produce friction and struggle, as it usually combines arbitrary routines with ad hoc exceptions.

In the Medrich (1982) study, children in homes without fathers were found to watch an average of one hour more of TV on weekend days than children with two parents. This suggest that single mothers may rely on TV as a source of inexpensive entertainment for the children. Parents who had greatest experience with TV evaluated TV as less exciting, less interesting and less important (Murray, John, Kipper, Susan, 1977). Schramm, Lyle & Parke (1961) reported that parents who view TV more, their children also tend to view more. Efron, Palmer & Hickey (1969) have also reported that children of highly educated parents watch TV less than other children, just as their parents use. TV less frequently than parents with modest education. In homes where parents take trouble to offer attractive alternatives to TV, the children watch less TV. Also insensitive parents who rather than attracting their children into real life pursuits,
can drive them into TV watching as a refuge. A study by Krcmar (1996) investigated the relationship between the Family Communication Patterns (FCP) inventory and parent-child discourse, the effect of FCP scores on child compliance, and the effect of parent discourse strategies on child compliance. Parents and children did not appear to agree about the norms in their family and appeared to be using different instances of discourse to draw conclusions about their family. For parents, control orientation was related to controlling verbal strategies, for children control was related to global negative affect. Communication orientation was related to information sharing for parents but to fewer parental commands for children. In addition, greater control orientation resulted in less compliance. Parent discourse strategies also were related to child compliance. Younger children were more compliant when parents used directive language coupled with positive affect, but older children were less compliant in response to this verbal strategy.

INTELLIGENCE:

Never in history has there been a mass medium omnipresent than television. Average child spends more hours watching television than attending school. Schooling is presumed to have profound cognitive effects, long-term diet of TV could have major effects on children's cognitive development. TV viewing may interfere with an interest in reading. The belief is that where children devote long hours to watching TV, they find less time and less inclination for the more demanding act of reading. In other words, given the choice they will opt to
Some authors would dispute this. Newman (1988) and Hincks and Balding (1988) argue that there is no necessary link between the two, and that in fact heavy viewers tend to avoid reading. The findings of a survey by Collins (1991) indicate that when fixed with a choice between reading a good book and viewing a good programme, television wins out. Of the children questioned 84% said they would choose to watch the television programmes. Elementary school children spend about 2.3 hrs. per day watching TV, they devote an average of only 8 minutes per day to leisure-time reading (Timmer, Eccles and O'Brien, 1985). The relatively small amount of leisure-time children devote to reading has raised concern among educators and parents, who frequently assume that the contribution of TV to children's cognitive development is inferior to that of Print (Winn, 1985). There is little evidence, however, that TV is a less valuable medium than print. Researchers who have examined the distinctive strengths of the two media, generally agree that TV and print each have specific merits for children's cognitive growth (Davis, Bathurst & Bathurst, 1990; Greenfield, 1984). As indicated by media comparison studies, children more easily understand and remember information conveyed by TV than information provided by print (Beentjies and VanderVoort, 1991a, 1991b; Meringoff, 1980). In the 1960s and 1970s, the generally accepted view was that TV leaves reading unaffected (Hornik, 1981; Murray and Kippax, 1979). A view based primarily on findings from two classic studies conducted during the introductory stage of TV (Himmelweit, Oppenheim and Vince, 1958; Schramm, Lyle and Parker, 1961). In the 1980s, however, the view that TV does not affect book reading was challenged by experimental studies indicating that a reduction in viewing time
may lead to an increase in the time children spend reading (Gadberry, 1980). Therefore, the authors of more recent reviews have not ruled out the possibility that TV viewing reduces book reading (Anderson & Collins, 1988). Some have even argued that a negative effect of TV on book reading is likely (Beentjes and Vander Voort, 1989). The majority of cross-sectional correlational studies have reported a non-significant relation between TV viewing and reading (Heather, 1983; Toussaint-Dekker, 1987; Ward, Mead and Searls, 1983). A negative relation between television and reading was found in four studies (Long and Henderson, 1970; Medrich and Roizen, Rubin and Buckley, 1982; Starkey and Swinford, 1974; Whitehead, Capey, Maddren and Wellings, 1977) whereas a positive relation was found in only one study (NSS, 1963).

Ridley, et. al. (1983) results indicated that (a) Ss whose parents sets rules for watching TV did better in school and had higher IQs than other Ss (b) More TV watching was associated with lower grades in reading and lower IQs. So finding conforms small negative relationship between TV viewing, school achievement and IQs. Hornik's (1981) review of studies and hypothesis relating home TV use to schooling found that many studies showed a modest effect of viewing on reading achievement. Effects were greater for brighter children but diminished after intelligence was statistically controlled. Morgan and Gross (1981) examination of studies relating TV use to schooling and education found a modest negative relationship between viewing and achievement. Heavier viewing was associated with lower intelligence and lower social class. For lower IQ students, especially girls, there was a positive association between viewing
and achievement. Williams (1978) synthesized the results of 23 different studies spanning the year 1954-1980, and found a median correlation between amount of viewing and achievement. There was a significant greater impact for higher IQ students. Viewing up to 10 hrs./week had a positive effect on achievement, and viewing more than 10 hrs. was associated with lower achievement. Results reported by Felter (1984) in his study are (a) Students who viewed more than six hours of TV per day had sharply lower achievement scores on all the three content areas i.e. reading, writing expression and mathematics. (2) Students who found homework easy had higher achievement scores than others, and yet they were more prone to be affected by increased viewing. Also, the study conform, that heavy TV viewing affects school achievement most significantly for students who are more socially advantaged.

Henggeler, et. al., (1991), concluded that academic achievement was negatively correlated with TV viewing and this association was independent of the child's verbal ability. Gortmaker, et. al., (1990), reported that simple analysis at just one time-point revealed substantial relationships between the amount of TV viewing and depressed IQ and Wide Range Achievement Test scores of adolescents. When longitudinal controls were added, however, these relationships became insignificant, indicating no significant casual relationship between amount of TV viewed and mental aptitude and achievement test scores of adolescents.
Further research has implied that there is a negative relationship between TV and school achievement. Using the results of the California Assessment Programme, which included over 10,000 6th graders, there is a point beyond which TV viewing has a negative association with achievement (Felter, 1984). If television was watched in excess of six hr. per day, students received lower reading, mathematics and written expression scores. A study of 290 children in grades 5 to 8 maintained that greater the televiewing, the lower the students IQs (Ridley-Johnson, Cooper and Chance, 1983). Further the students with higher IQs had parents who set rules that governed TV watching. Parke and Hoffmann (1969) found that brightest children were heaviest TV watchers. Studies of the relationships between TV viewing and achievement in elementary and junior high school children have been correlated in nature. La-Bionde (1966), found a significant negative relationship between viewing and IQ for girls but not for boys. Lyle and Hoffmann's (1972), reported there was little difference in amount of TV viewing among different ability groups for first and sixth graders, however, for tenth graders, there was a tendency for brighter students to watch TV less. Schramm, et al., (1961), reported that heavy TV viewing was associated with higher mental ability in adolescents, but they found no relationship between viewing time and ability among older, preadolescent children.

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Two panel studies have explored the longitudinal influence of TV viewing on children's viewing behaviour. In one panel study (Morgan, 1980; Morgan and Gross, 1982), 216 students originally in grades 6 to 9 were surveyed three times, at 1 year-intervals. A positive longitudinal correlation was found between viewing time in the first year and reading time in the third year suggesting that television viewing may stimulate reading. In the second panel study (Mutz, et. al., 1993), found a significant relation between television viewing and reading. On the basis of these findings, Mutz and colleagues concluded that the time spent reading was unaffected by TV viewing. Children's reading of comics suffered as a result of the introduction of television (Himmelweit, et. al., 1958; Schramm, et. al., 1961). Children tend to invest little mental effort in watching television because they perceive television as an "easy medium" (Salomon, 1981). Although children are far from cognitively passive while watching TV (Anderson and Lorch, 1983; Collins, 1982) there are indeed indications that the amount of mental effort children invest in watching television programmes is relatively small, at least as compared with the effort required to read books (Beentjes, 1989; Salomon, 1984). There are indications that frequent TV viewing may shorten the time children are willing to spend trying to solve intellectual problems (Furu, 1977; Gadberry, 1980), although there is no evidence to indicate that television's fast pace is responsible (Anderson, Levin and Lorch, 1980).
There is indeed some evidence for a negative influence of TV viewing on children's attitude toward school (Price, Ritchie, Roberts and Lieberman, 1986). A study by Gaddy (1986), showed that simple correlations between TV viewing and achievement suggest a negative effect.

Studies in which measures of achievement (i.e., grades or basic skills) were correlated with amount of viewing have provided more dramatic findings: Thompson (1964), La-Blonde (1966) and McLeod, Atkin and Chaffee (1972) reported significant negative correlations, whereas Childers and Röss (1973) reported negative but non-significant correlations. In McLeod, et al., (1972), study of seventh and tenth grade children, total viewing time as well as viewing of all different types of shows was negatively related to school performance in one of the two samples of children. In two studies Greenstein (1954) and Hornik (1978), reported a positive relationship between TV ownership and achievement. Research has implied that there is a negative relationship between TV and school achievement (Eron, 1980; Belson, 1978; Singer and Singer 1981). The attraction of TV for school-aged children has led to an increasing amount of research on the relationship between TV and academic achievement (Salomon, 1979). Belson (1978) and Singer and Singer (1981), found low academic achievement was related both to TV viewing and to aggression. Eron (1982), concluded that less achieving children watch TV more often. Hornik (1978), pointed out several possibilities of the kinds of effects of watching TV. The consequences of TV viewing could be negative, with the TV displacing time from more beneficial activities such as reading, hobbies, artistic and creative
skills or imaginative play (Newman, 1988). On the other hand, the consequences of viewing could be positive. TV not only may entertain, but may inform and stimulate as well. It provides ready access to world wide news, cultural events and positive role models. It may stimulate interest in academically relevant topics to which a child may not otherwise be exposed. Other writers (Rubinstein, 1983) have theorized that TV may have differential effects, taking time away for those who live in beneficial environments, thus improving their cognitive skills. Reinking, David and Wu, Jen-Huey (1990), found that data from the last 30 years does not support the perception by teachers, parents and other concerned parties that TV is a major threat to children's reading achievement.

Some experts argue that because TV presents a complete data to the senses, in heavy doses it encourages reduced mental effort and shallow information processing. Too much television also takes up time children would otherwise spend in activities that require sustained concentration and active thinking, such as reading, playing and interacting with adults and peers (Singer and Singer, 1990). Abelman, Robert (1992), reviewed research during the past 10 yrs. regarding the relationship between TV and gifted children. It is suggested that TV viewing gives young gifted children the opportunity to observe and familiarize themselves with advanced or abstract concept and relationships that are normally learned at an older age. Such viewing allows them to practice their perceptual abilities and puts their knowledge of the real and televised worlds to the test. TV can be a valuable resource for educators of gifted children if taken seriously and used correctly. However, TV can support cognitive
development as long as children's viewing is not excessive and programmes are especially designed to take into account their developmental needs.

AGGRESSION:

For decades, lawmakers have been debating what they can do to protect children from the harmful effects of violence on TV. The debate has intensified recently with three major proposals: (a) to require manufacturers to install a V-chip into all new televisions so parents can programme their sets, thus preventing their children from being exposed to violence. (b) to require TV programmers to display a violence rating for each programme and (c) to limit the showing of violent programmes to 'Safe harbors' when children are not viewing.

Violence as mentioned earlier, is a repeated concern of adults when they consider television. Violence is defined as "the overt expression of force intended to hurt or kill". Aggression is even more startling. It means everything that "violence" means, plus: "antisocial conduct" a concept that covers everything from small-fry belligerence at the sand pile to mass murder.... and the energetic pursuit of any goal, whether pro- or anti-social, creative or destructive!

The assumption is that the greater the number of violent acts as a child is exposed to, the more risk is there that the child would show aggressive behaviour. The way to reduce the risk, therefore, is to reduce the amount of exposure. For years, critics (Gunter, 1985, Newcomb, 1978) have been arguing
that it is not the frequency but the type of portrayal that generates the effect. In a major review of literature, Comstock, and Strasburger (1990), concluded that the two contextual elements of reward-punishment of the act and justification-consequences of violence were the most important context factors that mediated imitative effects of televised violence. Because fear and desensitization are also potentially harmful effects, a wider range of contextual variables is needed for an adequate analysis of aggressive or violent programming. Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1994), predicts that people are more likely to imitate the behaviours of others that are rewarded, or at least not punished. This prediction has been conformed in empirical studies (Bandura, Ross and Ross, 1963; Rosekrans and Hartup, 1967) and literature reviews (Comstock, 1978). Research has indicated that when violence is shown with no consequences (lack of pain or suffering), viewers are not likely to feel inhibited in performing aggressively, and their level of aggressive behaviour usually increase (Baron, 1971a, 1971b, 1979; Berkowitz and Rawlings, 1963; Comstock, 1978). Gunter (1983, 1985), reported that viewers rated violent scenes with observable harm as more serious than those without observable harm and even those with quick and painless fatalities.

Experiments indicate that heavy TV watchers can become "habituated or desensitized to violence" in the real world. M Lilebert 1986 a psychologist at the State University of Newyork says "The more violence and aggression a youngster sees on TV regardless of his age, sex or social background, the more aggressive he is likely to be in his own attitude and
behaviour". Violence on TV encourages violent form of behaviour, and fosters moral and social values about violence in daily life which are unacceptable in a civilized society. Surveys done in America and England showed that delinquent-type adolescents watch much more TV and TV violence than their stabler non-delinquent peers. Anglo-American studies also show, with greater consistency, that the group in the society that does the heaviest watching of TV violence is the group that is least intelligent, less educated poorest and most unstable. Collins (1991) reported that when his sample was asked if they thought there was too much violence shown on TV, their response was clear. Less than one-third (30%) felt that there was. In children's programming, the incidence of violence is especially high: 32 violent acts per hour, a rate that is greater than that of adult prime time shows. It is estimated that the average child will witness 8,000 made-for-TV murders before finishing elementary school. Of all TV fare, children's cartoons are the most violent (Waters, 1993). Reviewers of thousand of studies have concluded that TV violence increases aggressive acts in adolescents and children (Dorr and Kovari, 1980; Friedrich-Cofer and Huston, 1986; Hearold, 1986; Liebert and Sprafkin, 1988). In addition, the relationship between TV violence and aggression remains the same after many factors that might otherwise account for it are controlled, such as IQ, social class, school achievement and child rearing practices (Friedrich-Cofer and Huston, 1986; Parke and Slaby, 1983). Longitudinal research reveals that highly aggressive children have a greater appetite for violent TV. As they watch more, they become increasingly likely to resort to hostile ways of solving problems, a spiraling pattern
of learning that contributes to serious antisocial acts by adolescents and young adult hood (Friedrich-Cofer and Huston, 1986). Boys who watched many violent programmes at age 8 were more likely to be rated by peers as highly aggressive at age 19 and to have committed serious criminal acts by age 30 (Huesmann, 1986; Lefkowitz, 1972). Further more, compare to light viewers, heavy viewers of violent TV believe that there is much more violence and danger in society (Gerbner, 1979; Singer, Singer and Rapaczynski, 1984).

Evidence from both laboratory and field studies has led most reviewers to conclude that aggressiveness and viewing violence are inter -dependent to some degree (Andison, 1977; Chaffee, 1972; Comstock, 1980; Eysenck and Nias, 1978; Hearold, 1979; Huesmann, 1982; Lefkowitz and Huesmann, 1980). More aggressive children watch more violent TV. There can be little doubt that in specific laboratory settings exposing children to violent behaviour on film or TV increases the likelihood that they will behave aggressively immediately afterward. Large number of laboratory studies have demonstrated this effect both before and after the 1972 Surgeon General’s report appeared (Comstock, 1980). This effect has usually been attributed to observational learning (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, Ross and Ross, 1961, 1963a, 1963b) in which children imitate the behaviours of the models they observe. Just as they learn cognitive and social skills from watching parents, siblings and peers, they can learn to behave aggressively from watching violent actors. Similarly children can learn to be less aggressive by watching prosocial models. Lefkowitz, Eron, Walder, Huesmann study (1977; Eron, 1972) provided the first substantial evidence
from a field setting that implicated TV violence as a cause of aggressive behaviour. Without rehashing tired arguments, the results suggested that excessive violence viewing increases the likelihood that a child will behave aggressively. Although many researchers have appropriate reservations about the analysis used to extract casual inferences from these longitudinal observational data (Comstock, 1978; Kenny 1972), the critics advocating a complete rejection of the results (Armour, 1975; Kaplan, 1972), contained such serious errors of reasoning that they have not had a major impact (Huesmann, Eron, Lefkowitz, Walder, 1973, 1979).

Lefkowitz (1977) studied a number of other observational studies and field experiments and suggested that violence viewing is indeed a precursor of aggression. The one longitudinal study (Milavosky, Keesler, Stipp and Rubens, 1982), that led its authors to a conclusion of no casual effect has been interpreted by others as suggesting a weak positive effect similar to that found in the above studies and in the current study (Cook, Kendzierski & Thomas, in press). Even if one considers Milavosky, et. al., results to be negative, it still seems reasonable to conclude that exposure to TV violence increases a child’s aggressiveness under many conditions.

An important finding in early field studies of aggression and TV violence was that females were less affected by violence viewing than were males. Eron (1972), found no correlation between a girl’s violence viewing and her later aggressiveness. One important mediating variable obviously would be the frequency with which a child watches TV in general and the frequency with
which he or she watches violent programmes in particular. A violent programme that is viewed only once in a while would not be expected to have as much effect as a violent programme viewed regularly. Two studies that were done in areas where TV was recently introduced, Granzberg and Steinbring, 1980; William, 1978, suggested frequency of viewing was a crucial variable. In these and in a study by McCarthy, Langner, Garsten, Eisenberg and Orzeck (1975), amount of television viewed appeared to be critical potentiating variable in elucidating the relation between violent TV and aggressive behaviour.

Huessmann, Lagerspetz, Eron (1984), reported that TV violence viewing was significantly related to concurrent aggression and significantly predicted future changes in aggression. The strength of the relation depended as much on the regularity with which violence was viewed as on the quality of the violence. Path analyses suggested a bidirectional casual effect in which violence viewing engenders aggression and aggression engenders violence viewing. No evidence was found that only those children already aggressive or those with aggressive parents are affected by TV violence. However, a number of other variables were found to be correlates of aggression and violence viewing. The child most likely to be aggressive would be one who (a) watches violent programmes most of the time they are on (b) believes these shows portrays like just like it is (c) identifies strongly with aggressive characters in the shows (d) frequently has aggressive fantasies and (e) if a girl, prefers boy's activities. In addition, such a child, is likely to (a) have a more aggressive mothers (b) have parents with lower education and social status (c) be performing poorly in school and (d) be unpopular with his or her peers.
Feshbach and Singer (1971), claim that having aggressive fantasies and seeing aggression in others, can lower the probability of a person acting violently. Bushman (1995), conducted three studies to test the hypotheses that high trait aggressive individuals are more affected by violent media than are low trait individuals. In study 1, participants read film descriptions and then choose a film to watch. High trait aggressive individuals were more likely to choose a violent film to watch than were low trait aggressive individuals. In study 2, participants reported their mood before and after the showing of violent or non violent video tape. High trait aggressive individuals felt more angry after viewing the violent video-tape than did low trait aggressive individuals. In study 3, participants first viewed either a violent or non violent video-tape and then competed with an "opponent" on a reaction time task in which the loser resolved a blast of unpleasant noise. Video-taped violence was more likely to increase aggression in high trait aggressive individuals than in low trait aggressive individuals. In a study with preschool children, it was found that mothers who described themselves as imaginative had children who were more likely to be imaginative and less physically aggressive when observed by strangers during free play (Singer and Singer, 1976). Also children whose parents assert power as a major form of child rearing and discipline may present models of a direct aggressive response to frustration, which children imitate through, observational learning (Bandura, 1973).
Freedman, Jonathan (1984), concluded that although exposure to and preference for violent programming on TV is correlated with aggressive behaviour, there is no evidence that viewing violence in natural settings causes an increase in subsequent aggressiveness. Walker, Kim, Morley, Donald (1991) in their analysis indicated that attitude was the strongest predictor of aggression. The more adolescents reported liking TV violence, the more aggressive were their intentions. Results suggest that while more exposure to violence and parental factors both play a part in mediating subsequent aggression, viewing violence is less important than liking violence. One American study report concluded that 40% of poor black children and 30% of poor white children were ardent believers in the realistic nature of TV contents, compared with only 15% of children from the white middle class families. Adolescents and children did not perceive violent programmes as being any less real than non violent ones (Liebert, Neale, Davidson, 1973) and 46% of American adolescents agreed with the statements that crime programmes tell about life the way it really is. Delinquent boys and those who were rated as being aggressive were more likely than others to perceive the violence in drama series shown on TV as being realistic. Hughes, Jan, Hasbrouck (1996), research support the view that TV violence contributes to children's level of aggressiveness and subsequent violence and criminality.

Eron (1982) in a study concluded that the casual effect is circular, with TV violence affecting Ss aggression and aggressive Ss watching more violent TV. Contributing increments to a Ss level of overt aggression were
popularity, intellectual ability, aggressive fantasy, extent of physical punishment, rejection by parents and tendency of the parents to endorse attitudes and behaviours are often seen in socio-pathic individuals. It is show that it is possible to intervene to attenuate the relationship between TV violence and aggression with simple tuitional procedures that supersede the influence of the parents variables studied. Important intervening variables in the TV violence-aggression relationship are Ss identification with aggressive characters and the extent to which Ss believes TV potrays reality. In a sample of 169 children selected, because of their high exposure to TV violence was randomly divided into an experimental and a control group. Over the course of 2 yrs., the experimental subjects were exposed to two treatments designed to reduce the likelihood of their imitating the aggressive behaviours they observed on TV. The control group recieved comparable neutral treatments. By the end of the second year, the experimental subjects were rated as significantly less aggressive by their peers, and the relation between violence viewing and aggressiveness was diminished in the experimental group (Huessmann, Eron, Klein, Brice, Fisher, 1983). Cline, Craft, Courrier, (1973), reported that heavy TV viewers were less aroused by violent programmes than were less frequent viewers. Exposure to aggressive models on TV can increase children's subsequent aggressive behaviour (Parke and Slaby, 1953). Heavy doses of TV violence can affect children's attitudes as well and can lead them to view violence as an acceptable and effective way to solve interpersonal conflict (Thomas and Drabman, 1977). Frequent viewers show less emotional reaction when viewing aggression (Cline, Craft and Courrier, 1973).
According to Eron (1982) in terms of interaction between parent and child, those parents who punish their children physically and express dissatisfaction with their children's accomplishments and characteristics have most aggressive children. It is also probable that aggressive children prefer to watch more and more violent television. The process is very likely circular. Aggressive children are unpopular, and because their relations with their peers tend to be unsatisfying, they spend more time watching television than their more popular peers. The violence that they see on TV reassures them that their own behaviour is appropriate while teaching them new coercive techniques that they then attempt to use in their interactions with others, which in turn makes them more unpopular and drives them back to TV, and the circle continues.

**PARENTAL RESTRICTIONS**

Improving children's TV is an especially challenging task. Over time, high quality programming has dropped off and advertising has risen as commercial broadcasting stations have tried to reach larger audiences and boost profits. Furthermore, there are fewer restrictions today than there once were on programme content and advertising for children. Until children's TV does improve, parents need to be educated about dangers of excessive TV viewing, and children need to be taught critical viewing skills. Below are some strategies that parents can use to regulate their children's viewing and protect them from the impact of harmful TV.
Abelman, 1985; Dorr, Kovaric and Doubleday, 1989; st. Peter's et al. 1991, have reported parental strategies for regulating children's TV viewing that TV should not be used as a baby sitter. Parents should establish clear rules for limiting their children's tele-viewing. They should not use TV to reward or punish their children because it increases its attractiveness. Parents should also encourage their children to watch programmes that are child-appropriate and informative. As much as possible, they should watch TV with their children, helping them to understand what they see. When adults express disapproval of on-screen behaviour, it raises questions about the televised information, and encouraged children to discuss it. Parents should teach children to evaluate TV content rather than accept it uncritically. Parents should help their children to use TV in a constructive way, encouraging children to move away from the set into active engagement with their surroundings. For example, a programme on animals might spark a trip to the zoo, a visit to the library for books about animals, or new ways of observing. Parents should not allow their children to watch violent programmes too much. Parental viewing patterns influence children viewing patterns. Thus they should also avoid watching such programmes. They should respond to children with warmth and try to understand their demands.

Parental Restrictions means controlling the child's televiewing by parents. Parental restriction on the child's handling of TV is not enforced. Many parents tend to believe that an infant is too young to be influenced by or understanding what's happening on TV and that TV viewing is a harmless activity. In a study by Unnikrishnan and Bajpai (1996), almost 70% of children said that they sometimes turn on the TV while 60% also indicated that their parents
often turn on the TV. Also a marginally higher number of children in the 5-8 yrs. said their parents switch off the TV, in the older age group over 60% of the children stated that their parents and they play an equal role in determining when the TV set should be turned off.

Mothers are usually more involved in guiding children TV viewing than are fathers (Voort, 1992). Vanlil, Voojis, Marcel, Voort, Tom (1994), concluded in their study (3 - 16 yrs. age children) that a small majority of parents believed that the benefits of watching TV out weighted the disadvantages. There was a strong relationship between children age and the importance parents attached to TV guidance activities. The parents socio economic status also determined TV guidance activities and parents who attributed a strong positive influence to TV more frequently discussed TV with their children.

During the 1980s, several quasi-experimental studies examined how reading time is affected by a temporary reduction of the amount of TV watched by children. In two studies, parents reduced the amount of TV their children watched by 50% (Gadberry, 1980; Wolfe, Mendes and Factor, 1984), and in a third experiment children's viewing time was reduced to nil (deMayer, et.al., Hendriks and Fauconnier, 1987). The restriction of children's viewing time lasted 3 weeks in deMayer, et.al., study; 6 weeks in Gadberry study and 12 weeks in Wolfe study. All the three studies showed that the experimental reduction of viewing time was associated with a considerable increases in the amount of time spent reading. Increased reading has also been found among those people
and among people deprived of TV viewing due to a national broadcast strike (Windhal, Hoyerback and Hedinson, 1986). There is no evidence that increased reading during periods of restricted viewing is maintained for longer than about 6 weeks (Anderson and Collins, 1988). Wolfe (1984), who restricted children's viewing during a period of 12 weeks, observed that reading time dropped back to its original level 6 weeks into the reduced viewing periods.

Studies have shown that when parents impose rules about amount or content of TV viewing, the amount of TV viewed is reduced (Greenberg, 1987). But few parents of adolescents impose such rules. Although Bower (1973), found that more than one half of the parents of 10 to 12 yrs. old said that they often forbade viewing of certain programmes. Chaffee, McLeeod, Atkin (1971) reported that only 10% of parents of 12 to 16 yr. old had any kind of viewing rules. Working mothers of adolescents may be even less likely to have rules about TV. Medrich (1982) studied children in homes without parents were found to watch an average of 1 hr more of TV on a weekend day than children with two parents. Mothers who have rules about their children's TV use apparently are stricter, in general, about media use, because adolescents whose mothers restrict their TV viewing also listen to the radio less oft (Brown, Childers, Bouman, Koch, 1990). The extent of parental control over TV is found by Bower (1973) to vary by educational level. Bower reported definite rules in effects about children's viewing among 46% of college educated parents and 25% of parents with a grade-school education. In those latter households, TV use is found to be more likely encouraged as a means to occupy the child's time—the "pacifier".
role. Bower also conclude that children from households with a higher educational level have some input in deciding which programmes the family is to watch but less than in households of a lower educational level.

The amount of time a child spends with TV is not determined solely by the child himself and in most cases it is affected to some extent by parental controls. A minority of parents, around one-third impose definite rules that restrict the hours when children can watch. More often parents invoke sporadic controls, directing which programmes their children may watch or forbidding viewing at a particular time. Of course, parents preference influence choice of channel, and thus provide one source of control over what children actually see (Leifter, Gordon, Graves, 1974). In a British investigation undertaken on behalf of the Independent Broadcasting Authority (Wober, 1974), it was found that almost a third of all parents denied that they ever tried to stop their children watching any TV programme. Among those parents who did claim that they sometimes prevented their children from viewing, by far the most commonly chosen reason was that it was too late for viewing, but 27% of the reasons these parents gave were related to the amount of sex in the programmes, and 20% of their reasons concerned violence on TV. On the whole, parents in lower social classes were found to be more permissive than wealthy parents, but working class parents who did limit viewing were more likely than the others to claim that the reason for their preventing children watching some programmes was because they contained too much sex.
Rossiter and Robertson (1975) examined 253 mothers child pairs regarding commercial influence and TV control. Parents claimed less viewing, more co-viewing, stricter control and greater parent-child interactions. This study found that upper class parents, consistently gave the most socially desirable answers. Therefore, actual parental control may be as low among better-educated parents as among the more poorly educated parents, children watch more actively and intensely than adults, at least as long as, viewing is kept within reasonable limits.

Parents may wish to limit the amount or type of viewing by their child as a precautionary measure to reduce academic problems or social avoidance behaviour. In particular young children who has been free to watch TV as often as he or she wishes may fail to decrease viewing time as academic demands increase at older age. Success in reducing TV viewing can be obtained, when parents are trained to promote imagination and cognitive skills in children (Singer and Singer 1983; Jason and Klinch, 1982; Jason and Smith, 1980; Quattrochi and Jason, 1980).

Wolfe, Mendes, Factor (1984) concluded children hours of TV viewing each week averaged 21 hrs, except for holiday season, their viewing seldom fell below 15 hrs per week. Within the initiation of the TV reduction programme there was an immediate decrease in TV viewing to 10 or fewer hrs/ week. The children remained within 10 hrs limit throughout the 3 months in which the programme was in effect.
Reducing excessive TV viewing has been a topic concerning researchers for several years (Jason and Smith, 1980; Jason and Klich 1982; Quattrochi-Tubin and Jason 1980). Parents are right to protect their children from over-stimulation when they are young, but they should not worry unduly about occasional 'modality mistakes' or over-reactions to specific programmes. These are indicative that learning is taking place, as children try to make things fit their scheme of the world by experimenting. Nor should parents be over-anxious at older children's seeming callousness as if it were "narcotization", when it is simply an accurate perception of the unreality of television. Adults in their contact with children should take an active part in helping to mediate children's interaction with and ideas about television. Significant adults should be wary of blanket rejection of programmes which are avidly viewed by children, or which provoke strongly positive responses. They should also acknowledge the role of peer interaction, as vital for a child's normal development.

Hess and Goldman (1962) concluded in their research that father exert little control over the child's televiewing behaviour. He may, however, prompt the set 'for his own use or regulate it for his own convenience, such behaviour being reported by 60% of the mothers. The response indicated that in the homes of at least half of the group the child turns the set on whenever he/she wishes. The responses strongly argued for the conclusion that in most homes the young child exercise effective control over the TV set during his working hours. Also the child exercises more control than do his parents over both amount of his viewing time and selection of the programmes content. Self-monitoring proved
effective in treating children in a study by Jason (1983). In a second study with children, a token-actuated timer was implemented to reduce effectively excessive televiewing (Jason and Reback, 1984). Tokens were dispensed for taking part in certain prosocial activities which in turn could activate the TV for 30 min. via, an attached device. In other studies the reliability of the token-actuated timer was assessed by the use of an electronic counter, which was used to verify the parents reports of the token-count placed in the device by the target child (Jason, 1985; 1987). Desmond, Calam, Singer and Singer, Calimore (1985), reported that children's ability to distinguish between reality in the world and TV is greater when family restricts TV use and when TV related rules and disciplines are upheld.

Tangney (1988), observed that the TV viewing behaviour of a child over one week period involves considerable decision making. Even given parental regulation and restriction, most children exercise considerable individual control over the time they spent in front of the TV set. Moreover, they exercise a great deal of personal choice in selecting from a broad menu of programming options. Of the families surveyed in this study, 81% owned two or more TV sets and over one third of the children reported that they usually watch TV alone. For the child who watches 40 hrs of TV a week, the selection of 10 hrs of violent fare seems quite different from a similar selection by a child who devotes only 15 hrs of his/her week to TV.
Gory, Sarlo, Jason, Lonak (1988), reported that children watched TV average 21.5 hr./week, although their parents would like them to watch average of 15.0 hr. Pearson correlations indicated that amount of overall TV viewing in the family increased with the number of children, however, as the number of children increased, the occupational and education level of the parents decreased. However, parental estimates of amount of acceptable viewing increased as their child's viewing time increased. Parents tried to limit televiewing because they disapproved of its content.

In a study one method used to reduce excessive TV viewing was to limit the hours of children could watch, a tactic used by 44% of parents. This method was more likely to be employed if there were more children in the family. Forty eight and one and half percent of the parents who choose this method found it effective. Another means of reducing excessive TV viewing practiced by 30.7% of the parents was to require certain tasks to be done before watching was permitted. Six and nine tenth percent of the parents said that this method was effective. The other strategy used was to limit the location of the set. Parents frequently tried this method for those children who were heavier viewers. Sixty two percent of the parents who employed this method found it effective but more the children, the less effective was this strategy. 26% of the parents indicated they would purchase such a device were one available. Of the parents, who expressed interest in an invention, more tried either limiting the set location or limiting televiewing by fighting. It was also noted that parent who wanted the invention were of higher occupational status and higher education.
The studies also showed that parents should be responsible for what their children watch. Many parents abdicate their responsibility in terms of TV viewing. Parents should help children to view in an active, critical way, programmes should not simply be imbibed but examined with the help of adults in the house. In this way clear standards for viewing and the relationship between the values of the family and the values offered by TV might be established.

In a study by Collins (1991) the sample was asked to say whether their parents had ever switched off the TV after viewing a programme and discussed it with them. Of the sample 15% of the pupils said they had and 85% said such a thing had never happened in their home. It would appear that few parents prepared to discuss TV viewing with children. For some, concerned with children's welfare this will be a source of dismay. Their reaction may be to struggle against the state of affairs, to attempt to devise ways of encouraging such post programme discussion. Others, more sensibly may accept that this is not the way in which children will be taught to be more thoughtful consumers of TV, and look to others means of encouraging reflective viewing. Also pupils were asked whether there were programmes which their parents did not allow them to watch. The response was only slightly imbalanced: 46% of the parents do not allow children to watch selected programmes, 54% allow uncontrolled viewing. When the sample were asked if they had a TV set in their bedroom, the response was striking over 2/3rd of the sample (68%) reported they had. This clearly has major implications for parental influence on what is watched. Any attempt by the parent either to control viewing or to discuss programmes after they had been viewed become virtually impossible.
AMOUNT OF VIEWING:

Amount of viewing was also found to be inversely related to education, income, occupational status of the parents (Comstock, et. al. 1978; Murray and Kipper, 1979). The average family member in US Watches TV for about half of his or her non sleeping hours at home (Mcleod, et. al., 1982). In India, on an average, children watch approximately 17 hrs. of TV every week. A quick calculation based upon this response indicates that the average 8- year old would, over the next 10 years, have spent about 68 hrs. every month, 30 days (of 24 hrs. each) every year, and one entire year out of 10 exclusively on watching TV. The average American child watches over 3 hrs. per day, clocking in a total of 25 hrs. in a single week (Nielsen 1990). Even toddlers are surprisingly committed viewers . One study found that children under age 2 were exposed to an average of 2 hrs. of TV per day (Hollenbeck 1978). Viewing time rises over the preschool years, shows a slight drop around school entry, and then increases in early adolescence, after which it declines. Boys watch slightly more TV than do girls from the preschool years on (Huston, 1990). At all ages, children with lower IQs, who come from low- income families and who are members of poverty- stricken ethnic minorities tend to watch the most (Huston, Watkin and Kunkel, 1989). Excessive TV viewing is also associated with adjustment problems, such as family and peer difficulties and less trusting perceptions of other people (Liebert, 1986; Singer, Singer & Rapaczynski, 1984). In November 1984, the average preschooler watched 28 hrs. and 20 min./week while the average 5 to 11 yr. old watched 26 hrs. and 34 min./week (World Almanac, 1985).
Lawrence and Wozniak (1989), concluded from their sample (6-17 yrs.) showed that children spent 75 min./day (65% of their viewing time) watching TV with family members, most often with sibling. Child with sibling 40 min. per day (30%), child with mother 11 min. (8%) and child with father 17 min. (13%). The entire family (mother, father and both children) averaged 18 min. per day watching TV together (14% of children's total viewing time). Sarlo, Jason, Lonak (1988), indicated that childrens watched an average of 6.5 hr./week more than their parents wished.

In 1960s the average household during the winter months viewed a little less than 6 hr./day and by 1970's, the figure jumped to about 7 hr. (Comstock 1980). Heavy viewing, especially of violent programming warrants concern because as most of the research from the past decade indicates, such viewing increases aggressiveness (Rubinstein, 1983). For e.g. Singer and Singer (1980) found that heavy TV viewing among pre-schoolers, especially of cartoons or action/adventure shows, was related to overt violence in play. Truglio, et.al. (1996), indicated that children who were frequent viewers of entertainment programmes had parents who had limited education, access to cable, and incorporated TV into their activities. Although parental regulation and encouragement played a role in children's viewing experiences, particularly at 5 and 7 yrs. of age, the strongest long-term predictors on children's entertainment viewing were parent's education, family size, and the age and sex of the child. It is suggested that parents need to become more aware of their role in shaping their children's viewing habits and responsibility for improving children's TV viewing experiences, however, should not rely solely with parents but must be
shared by educators, broadcasters and legislators. Childrens in North America watch, on the average, 24.5 hrs. of TV/week (Comtock, Chaffee, Katzman, McCombs and Roberts 1978). Literature regarding the effects of heavy viewing (greater than 15 hrs./week) of currently available TV fare has indicated that children may be affected in many ways (Murray, 1980), although the extent of TV's direct influence on child development is still unknown (Rubinstein, 1983). Furthermore, Morgan (1980) and Hornik (1978) have shown that children who watch greater amount of TV perform more poorly on reading tests and homework completion, suggesting an inverse relationship between heavy viewing and school achievement. These findings on the relationship between TV viewing and undesirable behaviours among some children have led to increased concerns over the quality and quantity of children's viewing, and increases emphasis on teaching children critical TV viewing skills (Murray, 1980; Singer, 1983). Evidence accumulated over the past 15 yrs. has clear implications for behavioural scientists and practitioners. Researchers, stress, that in general, children spend more time watching TV than they spend in school and possibly in direct communication with parents (Singer, 1983). Studies have found that the amount of time spent watching TV peaks just before the beginning of the elementary school, drops slightly until another peak at early adolescence and then declines during the high school years (Comstock, Chaffee, Katzman, Roberts, McCombs, 1978).
In Schramm, et. al's (1961) studies, children between 11 and 14 yrs. old were found to watch a little more than 3 hrs. of TV a day. A decade later Lyle and Hoffmann (1972) found that the average has increased to 4 hrs. a day. In 1981, the Nielsen TV index estimated that teens 12 to 17 yrs. were watching a little more than 3 hrs. of TV a day. Similar to the findings reported here, the 15 and 16 yrs. old adolescents in Greenbergs, et. al's (1986), Michigan Sample reported watching an average of 6.2 hrs. a day.

In one American investigation, the cameras attached to TV set recorded that only three hrs. of viewing occurred for every four hrs. that families reported in a TV dairy and for every six hours they claimed to have been viewing when answering interview questions about which they had seen on the previous day (Atkin, Murray, Nayman, 1971-72). While viewing TV children were seen to engage in a range of activities including scratching, untangling knots, throwing objects and nose picking.

One interesting study by Weigel, Jassor (1973), has shown association between heavy viewing and strong conventionality. They found that individuals who were psychologically involved with TV highly were found to have pattern of thought and action, that were conventional and they closely conformed to the established norms, traditional majority values and expectation of adult society. Compared with light viewers they tended to place more value on academic success. They were also less tolerant of abnormality and deviance, and less critical of the current state of the world. Their political opinion were less liberal, and their attitudes towards the use of drugs more negative, but they were
more religious. However, actual behaviour of the adolescents who were highly involved with TV was not totally in accord with their expressed attitudes. Their use of marijuana was less than that by the light viewers, as one might expect, but their scores for other forms of generally deviant behaviour, based on measures for lying, stealing and fighting were no lower. Thus it appears that involvement with TV tends to be associated with somewhat rigid, authoritarian attitudes but not with noticeably virtuous patterns of behaviour.

Winick and Winick (1979) noted that 41% of the children moved around while they watched TV, and that, they alternated period of watching and not watching. Many children drifted in and out of the viewing situation, making observations on what was happening in the home, comments on friends at school, play activity and other matters not directly related to TV. Children also engaged in a wide range of activities while viewing including playing with pets, talking to characters on the TV and cheering sporting heroes. Barwise and Ehrenberg, 1938, reported that almost everyone watches TV, but the better off and more educated watch slightly less than the average of about 3 hrs./day. Most viewers have wide yet rather similar demand for a diet of programmes of different types, with remarkably little variation across social groups.

Unikrishnann and Bajpai has reported many findings (1996), which are mentioned below: More than 80% watch TV everyday. Children from middle class families in the 8-15 yrs. age group ranked highest in this regard, with 90% of them claiming that they are daily viewers while 75.46% of those in the upper
class bracket and 67.25% of the child from the lower class families admitted that TV is a part of their daily routine. Of the total sample interviewed, 61.36% said that they usually watch TV in the evenings, while a fairly significant number claim to watch in the afternoons as well (37.12%). Less than 10% said they watch TV in the morning. About 60% of the 8-15 yr. old said that they were encouraged to 'watch TV'. Asked to specify what they were urged to watch, 37% mentioned informative programmes on science and international affairs, quizzes and the news bulletins. Less than 50% of the children, particularly those in the 8 to 12 yr. age group said their parents encouraged them to watch entertainment programmes. Frequency of TV viewing in age group 8-15 yrs. was: Every day viewing 81%, Less than 3 days- 4%, More than three days - 10%, watched only weekends-5%.

Myrtek, et. al. (1996), indicate that different types of TV programmes had differing physiological effects and more specifically, heart rate as compared to other programmes was low for entertainment and high for action shows. Compared to school and leisure time, additional HR. during TV viewing was much higher. Boys with high TV consumption read fewer books, showed diminished activities outside home, a tendency for reduced school-related homework, and reduced interest in hobbies. Findings show that psychophysiological effects of TV viewing can be monitored in the home environment.
FORMULATION OF THE HYPOTHESES:

The problem is the starting point of a research because every research activity is directed towards answering a problem. In order to plan a research so that the researcher may be able to arrive at a conclusive answer to the problem in hand, he has to provisionally accept an answer and then 'empirically test the tenability of the answer'. A researcher observes an event, wonders about it, formulates some tentative ideas about it, and sets out to test the accuracy of his ideas (Bachrach, 1972). Further as a scientific problem raises a question regarding a relationship among two or more variables, the provisional answer to a problem must also be an assertion about the existence of the relationship. Such a conjectural statement about a relationship among two or more variable has been called a hypothesis. While problems asks: How is A related to B? A hypothesis declares: A is related to B. A hypotheses is thus a statement in a declaratory sentence form about a relation among two or more variables which is taken for granted with the explicit purpose of deciding on the basis of an empirical test, about the probable existence of the presumed relationship.

The variables used in a scientific hypothesis should be operationally defined in order that the hypothesis is testable. It is the operational definition of a variable which tells us what specific facts or events are to be observed to provide data for answering a research problem.
A hypothesis must be stated in conceptually clear terms. A hypothesis being the statement of a relationship between two or more variables, the concepts used for the variables should be clearly defined.

A hypothesis should be testable. It should have empirical referents.

A hypothesis should be governed by the law of parsimony. In other words, it should be economical in explaining the events to which it relates.

A hypotheses should be formulated in specific terms, to distinguish it from a theory.

A hypothesis should be related to available techniques.

A hypothesis should be related to the known bodies of facts and theories.

A hypotheses should, therefore, be intended to "refute, qualify or support a theory". Theory building is the ultimate aim of science and a worthwhile hypotheses should help in fulfilling this aim.

While formulating the hypotheses, in a deductive fashion to answer the problems mentioned before, some of the important features of the variables under study, have been taken into consideration for selecting the premises stated below:
PREMISES:

A. PARENT-CHILD INTERACTIONS: Parent-child interaction means sharing of the relations with one another which can be emotionally, socially, physically or mentally.

B. INTELLIGENCE: Intelligence is the global or aggregate capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to act rationally and to deal effectively with his environment.

C. AGGRESSION: Aggression is defined as "the overt expression of force intended to hurt or kill" or "Aggression refers to direct acts of hitting, kicking, physical disruption".

D. PARENTAL RESTRICTIONS: Parental restrictions means controlling the child's televiewing by parents.

E. AMOUNT OF VIEWING: Amount of viewing means number of hours child watches TV per day/week/month/year.

HYPOTHESES

A. CORRELATIONAL HYPOTHESES:

H:1 Considering the premises a and e it could be hypothesized that there will exist a negative correlation between parent-child interactions and amount of TV viewing.
H:II According to premises b and e it could be hypothesized that there will exist a negative correlation between intellectual level and amount of TV viewing.

H:III According to premises c and e it could be hypothesized that there will exist a positive correlation between aggression and amount of TV viewing.

H:IV Considering the premises d and e it could be hypothesized that there will exist a negative correlation between parental restrictions and amount of TV viewing.

B. DIFFERENTIAL HYPOTHESES:

H:V According to premises a and e it could be hypothesized that children of nurturing parents would watch less TV than children with parents who reject them.

H:VI Considering the premises b and e it could be hypothesized that children with high intellectual level would watch less TV than children with low intellectual level.

H:VII Considering the premises c and e it could be hypothesized that children having high aggression would watch more TV than children having less aggression.

H:VIII Considering the premises d and e it could be hypothesized that children under more parental restrictions would watch less TV than their counterparts i.e. children under less parental control.
C. INTERACTIONAL HYPOTHESES (TWO FACTOR)

H:IX According to premises a, b and e it could be hypothesized that children having rejecting parents and low intelligence would differ significantly from those having nurturing parents and high intelligence with respect to their amount of TV viewing.

H:X According to premises a, c and e it could be hypothesized that children having rejecting parents and high aggression would watch more TV than children with nurturing parents and low aggression.

H:XII According to premises a, d and e it could be hypothesized that children having nurturing parents and low parental restrictions would differ significantly from those having rejecting parents and high parental restrictions with respect to amount of TV viewing.

H:XIII Considering the premises b, c and e it could be hypothesized that children with low intelligence and high aggression would watch more TV than their counterparts i.e. highly intelligent and less aggressive children.

H:XIV Considering the premises b, d and e it could be hypothesized that children with high intelligence and high parental restrictions would watch less TV than children with low intelligence and low parental restrictions.

H:XIV According to premises c, d and e it could be hypothesized that children having high aggression and low parental restrictions would differ significantly from those having low aggression and high parental restrictions with respect to amount of TV viewing.
H:XV Considering the premises a, b, c and e it could be hypothesized that children having rejecting parents, low intelligence and high aggression would watch more TV than children having nurturing parents, high intelligence and low aggression.

H:XVI According to premises a, b, d and e it could be hypothesized that children with rejecting parents, less intelligence and low parental restrictions would watch more TV than their counterparts i.e., children with nurturing parents, high intelligence and more parental restrictions.

H:XVII Considering the premises a, c, d and e it could be hypothesized that children having rejecting parents, high aggression and low parental restrictions would watch more TV than children having nurturing parents, less aggression and more parental restrictions.

H:XVIII According to premises b, c, d and e it has been hypothesized that children with low intelligence, high aggression and low parental restrictions would watch more TV in comparison to children having high intelligence, low aggression and high parental restrictions.

(FOUR FACTOR)

H:XIX Considering the premises a, b, c, d and e it has been hypothesized that children having rejecting parents, low intelligence, high aggression and low parental restrictions would watch more TV than children with nurturing parents, high intelligence, low aggression, and high parental restrictions.