Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The Media of mass communications has become very crucial in today's world. Television, Radio, Cinema and magazines or newspapers all have a vital role in the world. However, Television has, in particular, emerged as one of the strongest medium. The busy and expensive life styles of today don't allow people to go out for entertainment every day. Thus, watching TV becomes the most common and least expensive of all modes of entertainment. It is estimated that in the 21st Century approximately 10 crore people will own TV sets in our country.

Television not only provides a whole some entertainment but also gives valuable knowledge through its educational programmes. It also covers all the major political, social, regional, economical and cultural events for the viewers. TV has contributed so very positively towards cultural togetherness that it has got special significance in every aspects. A variety of programmes have made TV popular among all the viewers - from kids to old persons. Moreover it has become a relatively cheaper medium when compared to other modes of similar communication.

Compared to the kids of previous decades, today's children are far ahead in acquiring and grasping knowledge and other activities in every field. They know virtually every thing related to them, besides the latest inventions and scientific advancement. Further more, they seem to be keen to learn new things in life of their own culture as well as the
foreign cultures. In television, children are found to be tremendously interested in the channels like Discovery which is full of historical and geographical information and knowledge regarding wild life etc. The National Foundation (1997)* has revealed, after its study conducted in South Korea, that children can boost their know how through the guidance from TV and there by improve their personality also. The psychological studies conducted in this field also support similar perceptions. TV increases our knowledge and shapes personality (Singh, 1992).

Misra & Khatri (1985) argued that TV viewing and academic achievements were positively related for the younger boys (aged 10-12 years), and TV viewing did not adversely affect academic performance. Fortner (1985) argued that TV increased retainable knowledge and positive attitude. Atkin and Garramones’ (1984) results indicate that the amount of subjects TV newscast viewing was moderately associated with level of knowledge of foreign current events, beliefs, interpersonal discussions about international topics, agenda ratings of the importance of foreign leaders and countries. Mander (1978) argued that television is not an open-window through which all perceptions may pass. Its quite the opposite because there are many technological factors that conspire to limit what the medium can transmit. Some information can pass through, but only after being reshaped and redefined, packaged and made coarser and coarser than before. Some ways of mind can be conveyed and some cannot.

Studies clearly indicate that while television has become virtually an integral part of our personality it is bound to cause a deep imprint on it as well. Television is not only a powerful medium of releasing information but also a tool to fashion our personality in a positive mould.

The analyses of television programmes show that it has caused both positive and negative influences. Studies have fetched both kinds of results.

According to Fernandes (1983) TV can have positive and negative effects on the viewers. Ostman and Parker (1987) concluded that TV has caused both positive and negative impact on the children as well as on adults. Watkins, Sprafkin and Sadetsky (1988) and Neunman (1986) have also reached to the same conclusions. However, the negativity of TV has dominated its positive aspect so heavily that the latter has almost vanished.

In the fast changing era, the Doordarshan, in Indian context, is not the only channel left to the viewers. As a matter of fact, viewers can choose from among a number of channels like Star, Music Asia, Zee, Jain, CNN, BBC, ATN, EL, HOME, Discovery and many others. The very mode of these channels and their programmes apparently make one feel that the values of Indian culture are at stake. These programmes are distinctly different from the one that may belong to Indian tastes. Furthermore, they also contain violence, sex, suggestivity and crime so much that our kids and sentimental children easily get affected. Hence, our social norms are diminishing undoubtedly.

The pride of our age old culture is also facing threat and the very style of the so called modern living indicates that our culture is being attacked from all corners. The literary, political and social norms are not getting their dues, instead the society is facing the critical turn of event in the shape of crime, violence, rape, divorce, dacoity and riots. The most suicidal aspect of TV has been the follow up action committed by kids after seeing crime and violence on the small screen. The notorious criminal of our own country *Auto Shankar* has revealed startling facts saying that the violence and crime depicted in the movies motivated them to imitate the same.

At times, Doordarshan too is criticized for similar reasons. The criticism is not only hypothetical but has its empirical standing. Various investigators have probed into this problem, and have reached significant findings. Numerous reviews of the scientific literature have concluded
that sufficient evidence exits to justify the conclusion that televised violence is a contributory cause of children's aggression (c.f., Cisin et al, 1972; Pearl, Bouthilet & Lazar, 1982). Though, some authors like Milavasky, Stipp, Kessler & Rubens (1982) have contradicted above conclusion on the basis of various studies (e.g., Freedman, 1984; Halloran, 1978; Howitt & Cumberbatch, 1975; Kaplan, 1982; Klapper, 1968; Lazarsfeld, 1955; Sohn, 1981 & 1982; Weiss, 1969), There are numerous theoretical explanations of why televised violence might make children more aggressive (e.g., Bandura, 1983; Berkowitz, 1984, 1986; Berkowitz & Rogers, 1986; Huisman, 1982, 1986). On the basis of the studies conducted by Comstock and Strashurger (1990); Duhs & Gunton (1988), Hoberman (1990); Josephson (1987); Lukesch (1989); Lymn, Susan & Agahi (1989); Ridleyjohnson, Surdy & Laughlin (1991); Sparks & Ogles (1990), it may be concluded that television violence increases aggressiveness in viewer children.

Today even our toy-industry has got adversely affected by crime and violence based programmes. The toys most preferred by kids are guns and rockets. This industry has literally entered the space age with hardly any kid of middle class family found sans toy gun or war games. The tendency to copy violence and crime has became so deep rooted that even the epic serials, like Ramayan and Mahabharat, could not inspire the kids to imitate any thing but their violent parts, so that the kids were now asking for Bow and the Mace (Gada).

The repeatedly telecast serials based on violence and crime have completely changed the very instinct of a child. He/she no longer remains strange to the violence and starts accepting it as normal stuff. The counselors and psychiatrists reveal that the modern day kids are not interested in traditional hide-and-seek or baby doll games, rather they prefer video games on computer. Ever the original games be it tennis or swimming or and other sports, have also become only a source of getting
certificates and not for the elevation of personality. Cricket is played less by the kids than it is watched on TV.

The poor kids - the deserted lot, still play in the sand and tree or with clay toys. The days have gone when the parents used to enjoy seeing their kids flying kites. Today's kids are, however, more keen in watching bat man jumping from one building top to another one. Potts, Huston and Wright (1986) observed that aggressive toys produced aggressive behavior and pro-social toys produced pro-social behaviour. These patterns included some nonspecific generalized influences in addition to direct demands of the play material. It has been repeatedly emphasized that the violence on small screen has affected the sentimental balance of the children. The psychological study conducted by Wilson (1989) and Sparks and Ogles (1990) showed that excessive violence and crime remove the fear from children's mind for ever, and subsequently they start accepting these phenomena so very calmly as if they are not unusual. Their emotional reaction towards the same also gets reduced. One report carried by "UNESCO" reveals that in entire Asia, television has been mainly influential in the recent incidents of increasing violence. In the countries like Philippines, Malaysia, Thailand, Pakistan, Japan, Indonesia, Bangladesh and India, the violence based programmes are increasing day-by-day and they also fuel the negativity. This together has cast an unhealthy shadow upon the children. Our culture is also facing threat from outside through satellite channels. The figures show that the TV viewers are predominantly below 15 years of age. As we enter the 21st century some ten crore Indians would be children. Hence the next generation of kids would be truly affected by TV watching. The study carried out in the field of violence and crime indicates that there is a clear link between what is shown on the screen

and what occurs exactly. The study conducted by Belson (1983); Eron (1983); Libert (1986); Turner, Bradford and Peterson (1986); Huesman (1986) showed that the excess of violence and crime shown on television has evidently been affecting the behaviour and life of the children for a long time.

When we are marching ahead towards the 21st century the so-called pop-culture is injecting a new way of life in the youth, that thrives on sex, success and rejoice. Further more, the youth is embracing it rather gleefully. And that is why the generation gap has become yawning. The new generation is compelled to hide its realities or else they can create havoc within the family. The physical attraction between opposite sex is increasing alarmingly. Students of a higher secondary schools support dating, saying it is nothing but a status symbol. Most of the boys enjoy the company of their girl friends after class 8 and those who do not have one, are to labeled as ‘backward’. In some cases it starts with class 6th or earlier. The boys and girls know comparatively more about sex than what the boys and girls of same age might have known a decade earlier. TV has helped them in this regard tremendously. Chhabra (1998) accuses on the basis of her survey that television has created more attraction towards sex obscene in boys and girls. When they repeatedly see titillating and advertisements whole day and observe hidden comments aimed at sex and suggestivity, how long can they remain aloof from the same, sooner or later they have got to surrender.

Signorielli (1989) analyzed (i) the image of man and woman in annual samples of prime-time New York dramatic TV programming, and (ii) the relationship between TV viewing and espousing sexist views of the roles of men and women in society. She concluded that TV viewing may be related to more sexist views of women’s role in society. Morgan (1987) measured amount of TV viewing, sex-role attitudes and sex-role behaviour. The relationship between viewing and attitudes was mediated
by behaviour in different directions for boys and girls. There was a reciprocal relationship between amount of viewing and the degree of congruence between sex-role attitude and behaviour. Subjects watching large amounts of TV tended to express traditional sex role attitudes. Bearinger (1990) discussed the impact of televised sexuality on adolescent sexual attitudes and behaviour. Brown & Newcomer (1991) studied TV viewing and adolescents sexual behaviour. Subjects who chose heavier diets of “sexy” TV shows were more likely than those who viewed a smaller proportion of sexual content on TV, to have had sexual intercourse. This relationship perceived peer encouragement to engage in sex, regardless of pubertal development or social class. The relationship suggests that either sexual activity results increased interest in sexual content in the media and/or that viewing such content leads to sexual activity.

On the basis of the studies conducted by Aitken, Badie, Leather & McNeill, et al (1988); Atkin (1990); Wallack, Grube, Madden & Breed (1990) it may be concluded that programmes on alcohol consumption increases alcohol consumption. On the other hand, programmes showing deteriorating effects of alcohol and anti-alcohol programmes decreases consumption of alcohol (Barber, Bradshow & Walsh, 1989; Pendleton Smith & Robert, 1991; Risnick, 1990).

Not only can violence, sex and alcohol consumption be harmful but specific music programmes also do the same. Greenfield, Bruzzones & Kristi (1987) discussed what rock music is doing to the minds of youth. They conducted three preliminary studies on the cognitive effects of rock music, lyrics and music videos, using a total of 104 students from grades 4-12 and from college. Subjects completed questionnaires after listening to songs, and it was found that lyrics were often misunderstood, particularly by young children who lacked relevant world knowledge and were at a concrete stage of cognitive development. Experiment II found that music videos provided less stimulation to
imagination and were enjoyed less than the songs alone. Experiment III using different methods confirmed the negative effect of music videos on the imagination.

Venro, Crapo, Szilard and Vargha (1988) observed that frequency of TV viewing had a damaging effect on sleep, and consequently on mental and emotional development. Bybee, Robinson and Turow (1985) observed that Westernized TV programmes decreased children's reading behaviour, increased their propensity to engage in sex stereo typing, reduced their overall physical activity and promoted excessive materialism. They further noticed that it expanded children's view of world knowledge, Henggeler, Cohen, Edwards, Summerville, et al (1991) showed that academic achievement was negatively correlated with TV viewing, and this association was independent of the child's verbal ability. Partial correlations showed that maternal rating of life events, stress and fathers marital satisfaction were associated with TV viewing. High TV viewing is associated with a relatively stressful family context. Armstrong, Blaks, Goeg and Maris (1991) to reading comprehension and memory. Significant deleterious effects of background TV were found controlling prior abilities and motivation. Deleterious effects were stronger and more consistent when testing occurred immediately after reading, rather than after a 5-minute filled delay. Background commercials resulted in more consistently negative effects than did TV drama. Ellison and Cole (1982) tested the hypotheses that (i) subject who watched the largest amounts of TV would correspondingly experience highest regard for the values of individualism and materialism, (ii) there would be a significant relationship between the amount of TV watching and type of religious commitment of the individual, and (iv) watching large amount of Sports programmes would be associated with materialism; soap operas would correspond with high levels of materialism and loneliness, and low levels of spiritual well being and existential well being (EWB), and that late night talk shows
would raise the viewers sense of EWB. Data did not support hypothesis 1 for individualism, hypotheses 2 or 3, and only the assertion in hypotheses 4 that watching high levels of sports programmes was associated with materialism.

When the society is facing threats in the shapes of negativity, violence and obscenity, decency is certainly getting hurt, and the kids are automatically getting influenced by the same. Even the cultural bondage are no longer strong enough to keep the ship afloat. Drinking smoking and prostitution have increased so much in the recent due to TV UNESCO* report says that Indian culture is on the threshold of a sea-change due to TV channels and the metro culture is rapidly moving towards villages also. The kids are calling their parents by names and extra marital or unmatched affairs are becoming a common phenomena. The lady of our country who had been given a very high place of honour has now remained a show piece for small screen advertisements and what not. She is considered only a commodity who has no personal identity. Even in to days Cinema and TV programmes the bright and dignified image of a lady is not present any more.

It may be concluded on the basis of review of literature that TV programmes that are heavily loaded with violence, sex, alcohol consumption, rock music etc have negative impact on viewers specially on our children and young viewers. It has been criticized that cable/satellite channels telecast programmes based on violence, sex etc.**


It is not so clear what impact of these westernized TV programmes would have on Indian children and youth. Therefore, it was thought that it would be a significant contribution in the field of knowledge of designing a study to examine the impact of westernized TV programmes on its young viewers.

Taking the above views into consideration, the present study was undertaken to examine the role of westernized TV programmes on aggression, habits and values among children of late childhood and pre adolescence periods by comparing regular viewers of Doordarshan and westernized programme based channels. It also aimed at studying the sex variations in this regard.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

PERSONALITY

Personality is not a simple concept to define, and even the best definitions are quite abstract. Thinking about how people use the concept of personality, however, reveals three reasons for doing so. People use it to convey a sense of consistency and continuity with in a person, to convey the sense that the person is the origin of the behavior, and to convey the sense that essence of a person can be summarized or captured in a few salient qualities.

The field of personality addresses two fundamental issues (Carver & Scheier, 1996) one is the existence of differences among people. The other is how best to conceptualize intrapersonal functioning – the processes that take place with in all persons, giving form and continuity of behavior.

A definition of personality reflects the kind of problems the researchers have decided to study and the kind of empirical procedure they want to use (Pervin, 1970). Some Psychologists define the term
personality in the sense of every thing (biological & acquired traits) about the individual.

Allport (1937) considered personality as a dynamic and characteristic organization which enables the person to adjust in various situations. Cattell (1950) defined the concept personality as that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation. McClelland (1951) considered personality as a theoretical interpretation is derived from all persons' behaviour. According to Stangner (1961), individual is a dynamic pattern seeking goals and need satisfaction in a manner which defines him as a person.

After carefully analyzing the various approaches, Barnouw (1973) defined personality as a more or less enduring organization of forces within the individual associated with a complex of fairly consistent attitude, values and mode of perception which account in part, for the individual's consistency of behaviour. In a similar way Carver and Scheier (1996) defined personality as a dynamic organization, inside the person, of psychophysical systems that create the person's characteristic pattern of behaviour, thoughts and feelings.

On the basis of the above description it may be concluded that under personality come social stimulus, value, traits of character, object of behaviour, emotional behaviour, mode of speech and other actions of a specific person. Evidently, each person has a unique personality of his own.

When we want to deal with personality, we study certain traits. By understanding the traits of one's personality one can know more about person's personality than what he may understand through study of types of personality. From the traits of personality we come to know about a person's development. The analysis of traits does not mean that a person's personality may be linked with certain specific traits. It is not
correct to suppose that a specific trait of a person's personality will always remain with him.

Although by the word trait we mean a person's behaviour, all behaviours do not speak of traits. A specific behaviour may be called the trait of a personality only when this is shown in different situations. Allport believes traits are the basic unit of personality.

Allport drew the distinction between common and individual traits. Common traits are the dispositions on which people can be compared, they are usually normally distributed. Individual traits are those characteristics of a person that do not lend themselves to comparison with other person. Allport and Odbert (1936) have listed and analyzed about 4000 personality traits. Cattell (1973) has used the analysis of Allport and Odbert and found that most of them are common and could be grouped in various factors. He identified about 19 personality factors.

Aggression, as a common trait, got success in drawing attention of many researchers to study its nature, causes and effects. It has been studied in the context of various social problems related to inter- sex/social/ethnic/national conflicts. It produces undesirable social results, and hence, is considered as a controllable dimension.

As has been mentioned, personality is an all inclusive variable. Various needs, motives, traits, objects of behaviour, emotions habits etc are included in this concept. The present study examined three aspects of personality i.e., aggression, values (terminal and instrumental, see Rokeach, 1973) and habits. A brief description of these variables along with description of aggression are presented below:

1. AGGRESSION

Aggression is a common trait. It is a motive to hurt and, sometimes, even kill other(s). We show aggression verbally by means of insults or attempts to damage others’ reputation. Thus, aggression, as the
intentional infliction of some form of harm to others is an important and all too common form of social behaviour (Geen, 1991).

The term aggression is hard to pin-down, and there is some disagreement about what should and should not be called aggressiveness. A distinction is made between hostile aggression and instrumental aggression. Hostile aggression has as its goal harming another person. While in instrumental aggression individual uses aggression as a way of satisfying some other motive (BUSS, 1961, 1966).

According to instinct theory, aggression is part of essential human nature. Lorenz (1966, 1974) proposed that aggression springs mainly from an inherited fighting instinct that human beings share with many other species. According to the drive theories of aggression (e.g., Berkowitz, 1988, 1989; Feshback, 1984), aggressive behaviour stems mainly from an externally elicited drive to harm or injure others. Drive theories propose that external conditions (e.g. frustration, loss of face) arouse a strong motive to engage in harmful behaviors. This aggressive drive, in turn, leads to the performance of overt assaults against others. Frustration (interference with goal directed behavior) can facilitate aggression perhaps because of the negative feelings it generates. Frustration is indeed one potential cause of overt aggression (Gustafson, 1989). Aggression, the intentional infliction of some form of harm others, is an important and all-too-common form of social behaviour (Geen, 1991). Baron and Byrne (1995) say that behavior directed toward the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment. Baron and Richardson (1994) argued that aggression has been an important topic of research in social psychology for several decades.

Third theoretical perspective on aggression is known as the Cognitive Neo-Associationist-View (Berkowitz 1984, 1988). According to this view, exposure to aversive events) generates negative effects (unpleasant
feelings). These feelings, in turn, automatically activate tendencies toward both aggression and fight, (efforts to escape from the unpleasant situation) as well as physiological reactions and thoughts or memories related to such experiences.

The social learning view is more of a general framework than a fully developed theory. This approach (Bandura, 1973; Baron & Richardson, 1994) emphasizes the fact that aggression, like other complex forms of social behavior, is largely learned. Aggression is strongly influenced by social and cultural factors. Many acts of aggression are triggered by the words or deeds of persons with whom the aggressor interacts. Direct provocation from others is an important cause of aggression, especially when such actions appear to stem from male violent intent (Dengerink, Schnedler & Covey, 1978; Ohbuchi & Ogura, 1984). Observations of children's behavior revealed that those who have seen the model behave aggressively were much more likely to attack the bobodoll (a doll) than those who had not witnessed such behavior. These findings suggest that even very young children can acquire new ways of aggressing against others through exposure to filmed or televised violence. Exposure to media violence may reduce emotional sensitivity to violence and its harmful consequences. That is after watching countless murders, fights, and assaults, viewers may become desensitized to such materials and show less emotional reaction to them (Green 1981, Linz, Donnerstein & Penrod 1988).

Excess arousal can increase aggression. However, its impact on aggression depends on the complex interplay between emotions and cognition. Cognition shapes emotions and hence aggression (Zillmann, 1983, 1988; Taylor, 1991).

2. VALUES

Social anthropologists and sociologists used the concept of value to express central features of culture or of society. Culture and personality
school considered value as the result of early socialization practices. Value refers to orientations toward what is considered desirable or preferable by social factors. Values represent a meeting point between the individual and society. Value is internalized, it becomes consciously or unconsciously a standard or criterion for guiding the action of an individual, developing and maintaining his attitudes towards relevant objects and situations, justifying his own and others' actions and attitudes, morally judging himself and others, and comparing himself with others (Dwivedi, 1995).

Culture is a source of values. It contains as well as reinforces them. In Indian culture peace, cooperation, harmony, equity, democracy and allied societal values are considered desirable. People learn to inculcate values for their parents, teachers, friends, media (television, radio, newspapers) and all those when they respect and their attempt to copy them (Dwivedi, 1995). Since empirical research on values has been conducted by those researchers who differ widely in disciplinary origin in substantive theoretical interests and modes of investigation (Inkeles & Levinson, 1969), it is but natural that the term value has been used with many different connotations. In an earlier attempt to define value, Kluckhohn (1951) stated that, within the framework of culture and personality, value is viewed as a result of early socialization. According to Kluckhohn, a value is conception, explicit or implicit distinction of an individual or characteristics of a group, of the desirable. Which influences the selection from variable modes, means and ends of action.

Kuhn (1962) has observed that growing number of researchers underline the importance of exploring the relations between elements of a single system (an individual, for instance). It is opposed to the study of covariation among variables generated by an aggregate of individuals. Values are part of the cognitive structure and of the personality of an individual and, therefore, ideographic researches on values, aim at identification of some intrapsychic processes that generate them in
particular individuals living in different cultures. These researches create a bridge between anthropology and psychology.

Smith (1969) sees values as central in the organization of personality to the extent that they are constitutive of the self. Values are types of concepts. It is clear that values enable a man to be selective in his behaviour. Spranger (1928) has defined personality on the basis of values, and developed a theoretical description in this regard. Allport and Vernon (1931) devised a value test on the basis of Spranger's (1928) theoretical descriptions. This test can measure six values.

A general concept of value is introduced by Rokeach (1968) has to say that a person has a value means that he has an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct, or end state of existence, is personally and socially preferable to alternative modes of conduct or end states of existence. Once a value is internalized, it becomes, consciously or unconsciously, a standard or criterion for guiding action, for developing and maintaining attitudes toward relevant objects and situations for justifying one's own and others actions and attitudes, for morally judging self and others, and for comparing self with others. Finally, a value is a standard employed to influence the values, attitudes and actions of at least some others. Rokeach distinguishes between terminal and instrumental values. Terminal values are concerned with end-states of existence, while instrumental values are concerned with mode of conduct. Terminal values are more basic than instrumental values, but that both types of values probably underlie the many thousands of attitudes a person might have towards specific objects and situations. Values are assumed to be relatively stable and to be important anchors within a person's value attitude system (Rokeach, 1973).

Personal values system makes a difference in terms of how the person evaluates information and how he arrives at decisions (Ahuja, 1990). A value system is viewed as relatively permanent perceptual frame work which influences the nature of an individual's behaviour.
Value system is a framework of personal philosophy which governs and influences the individual reactions and responses is viewed as a relatively permanent perceptual framework which shapes, influences the general nature of an individual's behaviour (Prasad, 1995).

3. HABIT

Habit is of great significance in the life of an individual. The basis of habit is routine tendency. We form habit for an activity when it is frequently repeated. Instincts are innate and habits are acquired. The individual gets instincts according to the laws of his heredity, but habits are the results of practice of one's own individual life.

According to Mc Dougall (1908), every habit is formed as a result of some instinctive activity. Thus habit has no independent incentive of its own. It is always in relation to some instinct. Like instincts, habits too become a part of the individual's mental make-up. Habit can be inculcated in an individual, because instincts are modifiable. Before any habit is formed, it is necessary that a particular activity should leave its impression both on the conscious and unconscious part of the mind. An activity may be repeated for a number of times, but if it is not interesting, there will be no formation of habits. Thus habit is related to interest. If the activity is interesting, it will motivate an individual to repeat frequently, and ultimately become habit unknowingly.

Some characteristics of habit may be mentioned as under:

(i) There is uniformity in the activities of an individual if they are done habitually.

(ii) There is a facilitating effect in the performance of an activity if it is due to some habit.

(iii) An interest in a particular act is seen when there is a habit.
(iv) If we have a habit for some thing we do not need to be attentive to it.

Habits are either good or bad. Bad habits are easily formed and take longer time to disappear, but good habits take longer time in getting established but may disappear easily. Habit is the key concept in the learning theory espoused by Dollard and Miller (1950). Dollard and Miller described that learning takes place as an associative connection between the conditioned stimulus and the response which is represented by the theoretical concept habit. Hull (1951) postulated that to establish a habit not only the stimulus and response should occur close to each other temporarily and spatially but also the response must be accompanied with a reinforcement. Assuming that the latter condition is met with the strength of the stimulus, response habit increase with the number of occasions on which the stimulus and the response have occurred together.

A habit, is a link or association between a stimulus (cue) and a response. Learned associations or habits may be formed not only between external stimuli and overt responses but between internal ones as well. The bulk of theories are concerned with specifying classes of habits or listing the major varieties of habits that people exhibit.

Although, personality consists primarily of habits, their particular structure depends on the unique events to which the individual has been exposed. Further, this is only a temporary structure, the habits of today may alter as a result of tomorrow's experience. Miller and Dollard (1941) have applied the learning theory of Hull to personality phenomenon. Hull’s theory describes that behaviour is learned, and throws a sequence of four events - drive, cues, response and reinforcement. Drive is the motivation for any behaviour. Cues determine when, where and how we respond to a drive condition. Miller and Dollard assumed that social models are the most important cues for our
responses. Responses are produced on the basis of social cues. Responses are reinforced many times, they are modified in the light of reinforcement.

TELEVISION AND ITS PROGRAMMES

From the hypothesis of television to its invention and subsequent development television programmes are accepted for education, rural development and community development. In between, there has been a number of scientists experimenting continuously. In America, Jenskins and in France, Rignoux and Fournier (1900) pioneered many successful experiments for the advancement of television, however, it was John Logie Baird (1924) who succeeded in making television though only of a primitive status. Baird had made the first theoretical demonstration of television in 1926 at the Royal Institution. The first ever television programme was communicated through cable, between New York and Washington. It was the first programme in a series of experiment for the same. Today there are more than 7000 television centres all over the world.

In India, television made its debut in 1956 during the UNESCO conference at New Delhi, and the proposal regarding the use of television programmes in the field of education, rural and community development, was accepted. Government of India commercial television programmes were to be telecasted at experimental level with the help of UNESCO. The aims and objectives of television programmes were as follows:

(1) community development,

(2) adult education and health improvement, and

(3) scientifically studying and assessing the impact of television on urban and rural people.
In all, it can be said that the advent of television in India was aimed at educational improvement.

Television was introduced in India as an experimental service on September 15, 1959 with a limited transmission of three days a week. A regular service, however, started on 15th August 1965. The television, on 1st April 1976, was delinked from ‘All India Radio’ to form an independent organization. Doordarshan is the name given to television in India. Within a span of three decades, it has emerged as one of the largest networks in the world. A daily one hour service with a news bulletin was started in 1965. In 1972 TV services were extended to a second city - Mumbai. By 1975, Calcutta, Chennai, Srinagar, Amritsar and Lucknow also had TV stations. In 1975-76, the satellite Instructional television experiment brought TV to 2,4000 villages in the most inaccessible and the least developed areas.

The introduction of satellite technology, and its use for doordarshan was a unique experience. Doordarshan, in 1982, started transmitting the National Programmes originating from Delhi which were carried out by all the 41 transmitters in the country. On 15th august, 1982, Doordarshan made another major achievement when it switched over from black & white to colour. Progressively, all the kendras have by now developed studio facilities for the production of programmes as well as field based colour programmes. In the same year, doordarshan also introduced the “Indian National Satellite” (INSAT) service with “Area Specific Programme” in the states of Maharashtra, Gujarat, Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. There was an unprecedented growth of doordarshan in the year 1984 with the installation of one transmitter every day. Today doordarshan, through its network of 335 transmitters, reaches an estimated 73.3% of the population of the country, and covers about 51.80% of its area. It has 18 production centres located at Delhi and other places of theses, four centres, i.e., Gorakhpur, Ranchi, Rajkot and Cuttack also transmit the “area specific programmes” (ASP) for the
viewers living in the areas of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat and Orissa. The aim of the area specific programmes is to inform, and make the viewers aware of various developmental issues pertaining to their areas, in addition to the enrichment type educational (BTV) programmes in the respective regional languages.

In 1982, the regular and direct telecast was started through satellite, and in the same year, the "National Programme" was also started from 8.40 pm to 11.15 pm for a duration of 2.35 hours. Today, most of the regional programmes are telecast from 5.30 pm which include agricultural, animal husbandry, health education, family welfare and similar programmes for the rural viewers.

Doordarshan introduced the second channel of its transmission in Delhi on 17th September, 1984 followed by the commissioning of the second channel in Mumbai (1.5.1985), Calcutta (19.1.1987), and Chennai (1.7.1985). Doordarshan started its morning transmission initially for a duration of 45 minutes a day on 23 February 1987. This transmission has been increased to one hour daily to include news bulletins in Hindi and English, health programmes, children's programmes, music, etc. These programmes were relayed by all the transmitters in the country. Doordarshan started on 26th January 1989, an afternoon transmission for a duration of an hour every day. Previously, the afternoon transmission was available only on Saturday, but now it is available every day and it covers programmes for children, females and old persons in both Hindi and English languages.

Doordarshan introduced its first school television service (STS) on 24th, October 1961. At present, educational programmes (enrichment type and syllabus oriented) are put out by several Doordarshan kendras as well as INSAT centres. Programmes for universities have been introduced since August 1984 in collaboration with the University Grants Commission.
Doordarshan turned commercial on 1st January 1976 with the initial introduction of advertisement spots and sponsored programmes. To provide variety in its every day transmission, Doordarshan started telecasting family serials also. Doordarshan telecasts programmes on nineteen channels. These channels supplement and complement each other. The following is a brief description of the channels:

(I) DD-1: This is the primary channel, the flagship of doordarshan. The programmes are addressed to the entire country. There are three components in the programmes - national, regional and local. The national and higher education TV programme are relayed by all terrestrial DD-1 transmitters. The regional component is separate for each state, and is mainly in the language of the state.

1) National programmes technically reach over 87 percent of the population through 868 transmitters. The programmes are for about 15 hours each day.

2) Regional programmes for 16 states and one composite zone (North-East) are telecast for about an hour a day.

3) Local programmes of about one hour (within the time allotted for the regional programmes) are beamed from 25 centres.

(II) DD-2: These transmitters were used to telecast about 3-4 hours of programmes every day. The metro entertainment channel targets the urban viewers, particularly, those in the younger age groups. The programmes are relayed by terrestrial transmitters in 46 cities. There are 17 hours of transmitters daily on this channel.

(III) DD-3: This channel introduced in 1995 was meant to benefit that section of the population interested in serious subjects like theatre, arts, literature, classical music, travel and in depth analyses of news and current affairs. The transmission reach a population of 47.8 million.
(IV) DD - 4 to 13: These are the ten regional language channels. Each channel telecasts two types of programmes. (1) the regional service (2) additional entertainment programmes.

(V) DD -14 to 17: These channels telecast the regional programmes of the four Hindi speaking states.

(Vi) DD-India: In 1995, Doordarshan started an international channel to reach the audiences outside the country. Now DD-India has a daily service of 18 hours.

(VII) DD-CNN 1: This is a channel of news and current affairs.

The Doordarshan network is a vast media empire now a days. It has a total of 19 channels which telecast throughout the length and breadth of the country through 41 programme production centres (TV studios), and 921 transmitters out of which 868 transmit DD - 1 signals. The DD - 2 metro programmes are beamed by 46 transmitters of which four are in Delhi.

It has been estimated that 577 million households in India have TV sets. The number of people who may watch TV programmes in their own homes is 296 million. It is also reported that about 152 million people watch TV programmes at their neighbours' houses or in chaupals of villages.*

While the Doordarshan network began operating, and growing since 1982, the other networks came in the field only in 1987. At that period of time, there were only 2 other transmitters which have, since, grown up to 53 in 1997. The area, covered by them collectively, has gone up from 13.5% in 1982 to 46.8% in 1987. In the decade since then, it has increased to 69.2%. They all cater to 87.1% of the total population.

now (1997) where as in 1982 this percentage was 25.00% and just 10yrs ago (in 1987), it was only 70.30%.

At present, the Doordarshan network telecasts through its 19 channels all over the country everyday. All the channels can be received by any TV set which has a special dish antennae facility. It is rather expensive and every body cannot afford it.

To make all DD channels and other Indian and foreign network channels available to the general public. Cable operators play a very important role. Since, these channels telecast round the clock, and cover a wide range of interests like sports, serials, film and film based programmes, educational programmes, news etc, the average viewer finds it worthwhile to get a cable network connection for his TV set. The work is lucrative and a source of income for many people indeed.

Cable TV concept originated in the 50s. In USA, cable TV establishes a monopoly. In the Fail of 1980, according to Arbitron (1989), only 22 per cent of the television households in the United States were cable connected. Less than half of all cable systems had more than a 12 channels capacity. After 1988, although the cable network depended on advertising revenue for their upkeep, began expanding rapidly. The programmes offered to the cable TV viewers were from distant TV stations. These were brought into the cable network subscribers' homes by cables, using micro wave. Satellite relays directly from the air via high gain antennas.

In USA, by 1988 however, cables competitive challenges to "free" television had increased radically. According to Arbitro (1989), 52.5 per cent of all USA television households, almost 47 million were cable connected. In July 1988 with more than 90 per cent of them were serving 20 or more channels capacity and more than 75 per cent with 30 or more channels capacity. Cable system operators could select programmes from more than 50 satellite channels. More than 45 million
households subscribe to the cable news network (CNN) and to the ESPN sports channel.

Cable TV in India originated with the launching of INSAT-1B. Cable television first came to the middle and lower middle class localities in big cities around 1984. Whereas its Indian debut was in the early 1980s. Till its advent transnational TV was restricted to hotels and high price apartments in the more affluent part of cities like Mumbai, Bangalore and Chennai.

In 1991, the gulf war introduced us to the charms of satellite television courtesy the CNN. People then suspected that cable and satellite TV would spread through out India like a forest fire, and had spread it through the easily influenced urban affluent India. Delhi had 94,000 cabled households in January 1993. The figure has gone up substantially since then to about 40,000 cable networks in India during 1993. These figures reflect the phenomenal growth of satellite TV in India. Since January 1990, Star took its first timid steps along a foot print that offered five, 24-hours channels to 52 Asian countries. The Zee TV became the sixth channels in 1992. Some other TVs like ESPN, Jain, Sony, BBC world, ATN, Discovery, M TV, Asia music, etc are recent additions to the field. It created pressure on doordarshan, and as a result, doordarshan expanded its capacity, and thus, 19 channels have been introduced.

The most recent figures (1994-95) for satellite and cables TV indicate that the viewership is as high as 80 million (all India), and not lower than 50 million. The latest estimates suggest that there are about 10 and 14 million cabled households in the country. However, surveys conducted at the beginning of 1993, revealed that there was a decline in the rate of this increase. For instance, between February and July 1992, there was a 210 per cent increase which dropped to 157 per cent in the next quarter. In all probability, the growth pattern will continue to follow
this trend as small towns in India acquire the cable habit. In 1993, there were an estimated 12.28 million satellite TV households representing an over 30 per cent penetration.

The Star TV network sponsored survey result is indicative of the fast growth of cable network in our country. While in January 92, only 1.28 million homes in urban areas had the cable connection, there has been a rapid and steady growth in the number of connections, which by December 96, just over a span of five years, reached up to millions.

The Doordarshan Audience Research cell has made an estimate indicating that 57.7 million homes own a TV set. The cable & satellite connection is in 11 million urban homes and in 3.2 million rural homes only.

Today children born into television families regard television as a permanent feature in their lives. Satellite TV provides them new programme alternatives and also their first real taste of children programming motivated them to stick to their sets. Along with the bait comes a new agenda for life, which our children are quick to pick up.

The habit of watching TV is different with all children, and neither does age, sex, socio-economic status nor ever parental control affect them in any fixed manner. Aitchison (1966), Wober (1971), Atkin, Murray and Nayman (1971) found that children whose parents are wealthy and well educated view TV on average half an hour less than children from low socio-economic status. They also observed that children of educated parents are selective about the programmes. Working class parents put more restrictions on their children on the time they should spend on watching television and the type of programmes to be watched.

Bivort Zuchold (1983) indicated that (1) subjects living in large cities watched TV less than those in small towns (2) handicapped watched
more TV than non handicapped siblings and (3) males watched more TV than females. It was concluded that TV is a major source of entertainment and educational information for handicapped children.

Baron (1985) analyzed that effects of age, socio-economic status (SES) and sex like factors the understanding of TV concepts showed that lower socio-economic status subjects, developed their understanding of TV concepts at a slower pace than middle socio-economic status subjects. However, a large proportion, in variance of motivation and uses related to TV habits of the two groups, remains unaccounted for. Anderson's (1986) results from time-sample analysis of 4672 hrs. of recordings indicate that the TV was on and about 14.70% of time TV viewing room contained no viewers. There was no age trends in time spent with TV. Visual attention to TV increased greatly across the preschool years, raising up to about 70.00% during the school age years and declined in adulthood. Men watched the TV more than women. There were no significant correlations between time spent with TV and percent of visual attention to TV. The increase in visual attention to TV during the preschool years is consistent with the theory that TV programme comprehensibility is a major determinant of attention in young children. Webstar and Webstar (1986) and Lawrence (1986) found that adolescent subjects viewed on average of 147 minutes per day and 17.50 hrs per day. Employment of mother significantly affected the time subjects spent viewing TV. Sex of adolescent, age of parents and adolescent, education of parents, income of family and day of week were not significant factors. Subjects watched TV along with another family member for about 65.00% of the total viewing time but were unlikely to engage in other activities at the same time. Lawrence and Wojwiak (1989) examined the data from personal interviews and indicated that 65yrs of subjects viewing time was spent with another family members most often; sibling. Fathers were more likely to be coviewers than mothers. Family characteristics did not affect likelihood of subjects and
parents watching TV together. Rural and urban subjects showed similar
coviewing patterns supporting the notion that these subpopulations are
not clearly distinct or separate. Stpters, Huston and Wright (1991)
argued that majority of children’s programmes were viewed without
parents, while majority of adults programmes were watched with parents.
Coviewing patterns of adult programmes were predicted from parents
individual viewing habits but not from the factor of child coviewing
dedineed with age. Parental encouragement and regulation of viewing
were orthogonal dimensions. Children whose parents encouraged viewing
watched more child informative programmes, while children of restrictive
parents watched less entertainment programmes.

In Raipur the cable television made its maiden entry on January
14, 1990. Viewers could then see only CNN, Malaysia TV-3 and Video
channels. However, after 1992 cricket world cup championship, the cable
television programmes became major source of entrainment. Some news
magazine programmes like “Janaula” and “Parakh” were so started in
1994 but could not be continued after some episodes. Presently, some
cable operators are providing satellite channel programmes to the local
viewers.

PROGRAMMES OF DOORDARSHAN

Doordarshan telecasts programmes of national, regional and local
interests on its nineteen channels. A brief description of the composition
of the programmes is given below:

(1) Programmes regarding special information:

(a) News and current affairs, News bulletins

(b) Direct coverage of parliament and state assembly proceedings

(c) Direct coverage of National events
(d) News magazine in Sanskrit and a special magazine for the hearing impaired on the national network

(2) Programmes regarding general information:

(a) Human rights, consumer affairs, legal issues, gender equity
(b) Science and technology, new researches, new information
(c) Economics, business, and tourism
(d) Cooking shows

(3) Sports Programmes:

(a) Live telecast of various matches
(b) Highlights of Matches
(c) Interviews of players
(d) Sports Magazine
(e) International sports events
(f) National level tournaments in all discipline
(g) Awards, discussion etc. are covered in sports programmes.
(h) Indigenous sports: Kho-Kho, Kabaddi, Malkhambh, Sagol Kangli, Thoda ect.

(4) Educational Programmes:

Higher education TV, School TV, Enrichment programmes.

(5) Cultural and Social Education Programmes:

(a) Language and literature
(b) Arts, Theatre
(c) Classical music and dance heritage
(d) Health, fitness and hygiene, exercise
(e) Agriculture and rural development
(f) Social service message
(g) New remedial technology
(h) Latest surgical techniques, new medicines, precautions on edibles, when, how & what should be eaten by people in common.

6. Programmes Regarding Environment:

(a) Reasons for environmental pollution
(b) Eradication programme for pollution
(c) Environmental programme & impact of pollution.
(d) Discussion related to environmental pollution.

7. Programmes regarding Entertainment:

(a) Film based programmes
(b) Serials
(c) Film
(d) Light & popular music: Folk music, western music, remix types songs & dances.
(e) Drama

8. Children's Programmes:

(a) Serials
(b) Films
(c) Cartoons
(d) Songs
(e) Stories
(f) Puppet show
(g) Quiz, etc.

(9) Others

Game shows, Quiz programmes, Talk Show, etc.

THRUST AREAS OF DOORDARSHAN PROGRAMMES

(a) Development of national integration and communal harmony
(b) Enhancement of status of women
(c) Development of civic sense
(d) Campaign against drugs, road safety, energy conservation

OBJECTIVES OF DOORDARSHAN PROGRAMMES

Doordarshan has its various social objectives which are given as below:

(1) To act as a catalyst for social change
(2) To promote National Integration
(3) To stimulate a scientific temper in the minds of the people
(4) To disseminate the message of family planning as a means of population control and family welfare
(5) Provide essential information and knowledge in order to
stimulate greater agricultural production.

6) Promote and help preserve environment and ecological balance.

7) Highlight the need for social welfare measures including welfare of women, children and the less privileged.

8) Promote interest in games and sports.

9) Create values of appraisal of art and cultural heritage.

A study of programmes' composition indicates that Doordarshan includes different programmes having different priorities. For example, Malhan (1988) surveyed the programmes telecasted during 21 to 27 March, 1988, and concluded that 46% of total transmission time was given to development oriented programmes, 40% time to arts and culture, 26% to informative constituents and 21% to commercials and announcements. Composition of the programmes during the same period also depicted a fairly good mix; 17% for spoken word programmes like discussions, talk and interviews, 16% for serials, plays and skits, 14% for news, 13% for feature films and other film based programmes, and 12% for music. The remaining package consisted of 8% each of documentaries and commercials highlights and slides, 7% of TV reports and quiz and recitation programmes, puppet shows and cartoon films, 3% of sports and 2% of dances. Jha (1981) observed that time allotted to entertainment programmes ranged from 36.24 to 38.4 per cent of the total transmission time followed by informational programme that ranged from 15.4 to 27.8 per cent. Whereas time consumption of educational programmes ranged from 7 to 15% only. Chauhan and Hansra (1986) observed that about 91% of items contained some information, whereas only 8% of items contained recreational type of messages. A close perusal of the report published by Doordarshan (1997) shows that
programmes of the Doordarshan contain 24% drama, 8.3% news, 11.8% film based programmes, 7% music and dance, 19.5% children's programmes, 6% chat shows and 12.4% other programmes.

Apart from Doordarshan, about 40-60 channels are open to the TV viewers through cable network. About 90-100 cable channels are available in the metro cities. It was expected that by the middle of 1999 about 150 channels would be made available in India with the help of cable network.

PROGRAMMES OF CABLE CHANNELS

Cable channels may be classified into two categories: general and specific programme-based TVs. A list of the main channels based on their language is given below:

(1) Hindi : Zee, El, Home, Sony, NEPC, ATN.
(2) Tamil : Sun, Raj, Vijay.
(3) Kannada: Udaya.
(4) Telugu: Benadu, Gemini.
(5) Hindi and English : Star Plus,

Analysis indicates that these channels are also telecasting mainly film-based programmes and social serials. There are some specialized channels that telecast specific programmes, and one can select specific programmes on the popular channels given below:

(1) Movies: Zee Cinema, Star movies, Sun movies, CVO.
(3) Sports: Star Sports, ESPN.
(4) Nature: Discovery, National Geographic
There are numerous cable networks using air space in the Indian sky, but the programme composition of all, is almost the same. All these multilingual networks have similar aims. Unlike Doordarshan, they all are basically entertainment channels. Thus, most of the cable networks telecast soaps, film and film-based programmes, talk shows, sports-based programmes and also a little but important part of day to day happenings in the format of news bulletins. There are a few exclusively channels for news (e.g., BBC, CNN), Sports (e.g., ESPN, Star Sports), inventions (e.g., Discovery).

**Differences Between Doordarshan and Westernized Programmes**

The cable networks were started for the benefit of their owners. The basic/primary objective, of all such tele networks, is to earn more and more money. They do so by incorporating advertisements of various consumer goods in their programmes. Their objective is to attract more and more sponsors since they increase their profit, and they are not bothered at all about the programme contents. Usually they dish out violence or sex. The primary aim of these types of programmes are to enhance the number of viewers as these types of programmes attract innocent minds. The second aim of these types of programmes is to bind the viewers for a longer time. Such programmes make viewers addicted to their daily doze of TV.

The selection of programmes of Doordarshan are based on Indian social and cultural norms. The role models are strictly based on social and cultural norms. Doordarshan has some strict rules for censoring that is if in programmes any thing is beyond the limitation of social and cultural norms, it can be witnessed by the action of dropping the serials/
programme on Doordarshan like Tamas, Titallan, Sansar, Chandarakanta, etc. But the selection of cable channel programmes does not follow the norms of Doordarshan. Contrary to this, they follow their own objectives. They are least concerned with social values. This is the main reason for vulgarity in programmes of cable network. They are absolutely away from reality, and they are at liberty in showing the undesirable things.

Now a days, the nature of TV programmes is slowly changing. Doordarshan and its other channel are also projecting programmes containing crimes, sex and terror. But still Doordarshan and westernized programmes are different in nature.

In Malaysia, a survey was conducted by Consumer Association of Peniyog* on the children. It was concluded that children spent 1040 hrs in classroom while 1200 hrs in watching television in which 736 hrs covered the crime programmes like 6 murder, 91 injury, 94 shooting incidents, 147 wordly dual, 106 use of weapons, 140 bomb blasts. On an average, American TV shows 5 crime cases per hour, and all most double of this are shown per week during children's programmes. On a pre-estimate, main artist of 48% foreign serials are involved in crime scene or they are shown as crime sufferers.** Similar results have been reported by other authors e.g., Cislh (1972), Bouthilet and Lazar (1982), Milavaskey, Stipp, Kessler and Rubens (1982), Kaplan (1982), Klapper (1968) Lazarsfeld (1955) ect. On the basis of an analysis of 109 programmes chosen on the basis of audience viewing figure (76% produced in the U.S.A. and 22% in Canada) Williams, Zabrack and Joy (1982) argued that an average of 9 acts of physical aggression and 7-8 acts of verbal aggression programmes per hour were observed, but both

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2 Reported by Estrot Feature, (1996). Ab bachcho ko hinsa dekhane se roka ja sakta hai; Deshbandhu, April 28th.
types and rate of aggression varied by programme category. Less than 2% of the aggression observed was accidental, and while nearly 69% was incidental to the plot. On the other hand, serials of Doordarshan are based on political, historical mythological, and social backgrounds. They, thus, enable the viewers, especially the young viewers, to get an insight into their cultural, religious and historical past. These serials are entertaining as well as informative.

Now a days, satellite TV serials do not project the correct cultural picture of Indian women. In comparison to the Doordarshan, other channels try to project women as a show piece and consumer item more intensely. Their programmes are full of sexy scenes, sexy slang and vulgarity. According to an article of India Today * a survey was done on 100 teenagers for 15 months which shows that children learn about sex mostly from TV and Cinema.

Western programmes talk of women's liberation, on one hand, and do just opposite, on the other hand. They picturise modern fashion where girls wear small and tight clothes and feel proud of it. The dresses of women artists expose more instead of covering it. Vital parts of the body are exposed inordinately. In the name of modernization TV is propagating nudity. Western singers diminish clothes as volume of music increases.

According to study of Signorielli (1989) TV programmes show depiction of women in such a way that sexist view of woman in the society is increasing. Gilly's (1988) results reveal differences in the portrayal of the sexism in US advertisements. Australian advertisements show some what less sex role differences, and Mexican advertisements show slightly more sex role differences than US advertisements. Stereotypes were found in the advertising of all 3 countries, but were

manifested in different ways. Lovdal (1989) indicates that conventional sex role stereotypes appear to be persisting in TV commercials.

Important difference, between the Doordarshan and cable network programmes, is found in the characterization of the role models and story ideas. The Doordarshan serials mostly project stereotyped sex role models, and the few deviant role models depicted in the serials are usually low keyed portrayals, besides being actually needed in the story. Doordharshan programmes do not usually show unconventional characters (Miller, 1982).

The life styles of characters shown in Doordarshan serials is more related to the Indian middle class standards, like fashion, make up, apparel and costume and the general life styles and surroundings shown in Doordarshan serials can be easily identified with the real life situations faced by middle class Indians of this age. Thus, their projection is more appealing. They do not increase escapism to a remote utopian dream land as they are closely related to the realities. But some popular Doordarshan serials imitate the ideas of other cable programmes. However, serials like "Shanti" are not the usual story ideas of Doordarshan.

The Doordarshan programmes play an important role in promoting film based entertainment as quite a lot of them are based on cinema. To ensure good quality of these films Doordarshan bases its selection on the grounds of their award credits, thematic value, cinematic treatment, entertainment contents, suitability for family viewing and the year of production. Films encouraging violence, crime, hooliganism, drinking, extremist activity, defamation of any caste, community or religion, are rejected. Doordarshan relayed adult movies also, but a fundamental difference between the adult movies of Doordarshan and adult movies of cable network is that the movies shown on Doordarshan have some ideal theme with clean and clear dialogues and picturisation, but the movies of cables are based purely on sex. Selection of movies is strictly done.
in Doordarshan. Movies exhibited in Doordarshan are censored by the Board of Sensors. The controversial portions or scene and dialogues, are censored.

Although, Doordarshan programmes have quite a large number of sponsors and advertisements, they do not show alcohol or cigarette advertisements, however, excess of advertisement in between TV programmes is there. Study reveals that there are 31% of advertisements of food items and health messages. Study of Wallack and Dorfman (1992) on American TV shows that health messages appeared in 38% of public service announcements (PSA). No PSA addressed tobacco, alcohol or diet, the 3 leading behavioral risk factors for poor health. Pendleton, Smith and Roberts (1991) examined the portrayal of alcohol on British TV in 50 programmes broadcast in 1988. Nearly three-quarter of the programmes contained visual or verbal references to alcohol on an average ...

(a) There was a reference to alcohol in every 6-5 minutes of programming

(b) Alcohol was most prominently featured in fictional programmes.

(c) One third of the programmes showed specific brands of alcohol. Psychological studies and articles show that cigarette and wine are shown as symbol of modern society.

Most of TV advertisements are done by women, though they are not related with the item advertised. In most of the advertisements women are exposed in minimum dress, or the dress is designed in such a way so as to attract people. Camera is also focused in a way that encourages vulgarity. Such scene are common not only in advertisements but in serials also.

There is a recurrence of violent images in various advertisements, and they use music to create tension and an underlying threat of failure...
Battery, motorcycle and cycle advertisements, commercials for toys and tyres, and many others, use violence as an emotive response pounce. Doordarshan programmes usually do not opt for only loud rock music or psychedelic light effects as the popular cable music channels do.

The musical or music based programmes on Doordarshan are very popular as they help the viewers in gaining better understanding of Indian classical and folk music. Now they also promote a totally new type of music known as Indipop, which is very popular amongst the young generation.

It is observed that cable channels (like MTV) are found telecasting violent and sexy music videos. Sherman and Dominick (1986) indicated that episodes of violence occurred in 56.6% of the music videos. Visual presentation of sexual intimacy appeared in more than 75% to 81% of the videos containing violence. They also include sexual imagery. Seidman (1992) says that in music programme, girls wear very thin and short cloths so that their body figure is clearly exposed, which attracts the youths.

US National Coalition on Television Violence (1992) reported that over 60 per cent programmes of the music channels contained at least one of the elements like explicit violence, suggestions of violence, degrading sexual portrayals, sexually suggestive themes, profanity, smoking and alcohol consumption.

Slow speed, mixing of scenes, close up, background music and sound effect are the various ways of presenting cable programmes. Generally Doordarshan programmes are shown at normal speed or slow speed but foreign technology is such that their scene are fast moving and one cannot understand easily. The background music sound effect is so loud that it creates a sensation. In Indian context, the effect of programmes is not very important but in western programmes sound and light effects and cameras' are more prominent.
The sports programmes of Doordarshan are mainly concerned with sports and sports men. They are least concerned with surroundings. But as far as the sport programmes of cable are concerned they try their best to cover the surroundings and while covering the surrounding they try to include sex and vulgarity as a lure to tempt the people.

Doordarshan presents sports programmes for few hours whereas cable TV channels like ESPN and Star Sports presents sports programmes for 24 hours. In this context Star Plus shows wrestling which is known as WWF. It is full of violence and children eagerly see the programme.

There is another type of programme shown on Doordarshan which is debate or talk shows. These talk shows raise up the current issues related to Indian circumstances and situations and range from our social moral to political life. They provide an insight in the modern Indian psyche in a light hearted easily comprehensible manner. Malik (1987) conducted an analysis of women's programmes originating from Delhi and Jaipur which showed that maximum telecast time was on farm planning, health and hygiene, mother and child care, use of waste materials to prepare decorative items for house, and interviews with eminent women personality, while Bhagat and Mathur (1989) found that coverage of farm women programmes was inadequate.

Language used in cable programmes is of poor standard as no attention is paid to it. The mixed language called Hinglish is used. The main difference between the programmes of cable and Doordarshan is concerned with language. As for the language of Doordarshan is concerned it is pure and the grammar is also very clear and are telecasted in one language. Chaudhary and Devriya (1983) observed that language was appropriate and content was comprehended easily by majority of children.

On one hand we accept that programmes on cable TV are affecting the society and on other hand we agree that some programmes are
educational and knowledgeable all the time for instance discovery channel gives us information about new inventions and different aspects of nature which increases our general knowledge and awareness. Besides this, cable TV channels like CNN BBC world gives us information about foreign news, happenings and political events etc.

IMPACT OF TELEVISION PROGRAMMES

Television is one of the most popular means of communication, that has an important impact on our youth and younger children. The data gathered through All India Research (1997) emphasizes the fact that TV is the most accessible of all the media, followed by press i.e., printed media, the radio and then comes the cinematic medium.

If one analyses the number of hours spent per week in viewing TV, he/she may see that generally people spend 61.3% of their leisure time in watching TV, 21.9% in listening to the radio, 14.6% in reading newspapers or magazine and 2.2% in watching films (Cinema).

Watching television involves both visual and auditory channels of attention. This attribute is considered as the main strength of the television. It provides an opportunity to its viewers for participating in international, national and regional episodes, events and happenings ranging from elections, tournaments, processions, riots and accidents to popular cultural, musical and dance festivals, tele-conferences and modern exhibitions. Sekhon (1968), Sekhon (1970), Sharma and Dey (1970) found television is more effective than other mass media in gaining and retention of knowledge. Sinha (1973) and Sinha (1974) found that respondents viewed telecast programmes, gained more knowledge, retained the same and communicated it to others. We often read articles in newspapers and magazines, advocating both positive and negative impacts of TV viewing on the viewer.
We experience that a lot of changes are taking place in our society and it is argued that it is happening due to the effect of television. Some psychological studies reveal that TV also teaches positive attributes to the viewers. Sprafkin and Hess (1982) discussed that the image of TV is changing from that of an Idiot Box to that of a promising medium for teaching positive behaviours. Shukla and Kumar’s (1977) study on SITE impact on primary school showed minimum gain in language development and interest in acquiring knowledge.

Rahman (1977) observed that programmes aimed at making children sensitive to learning, communication skills, improve basic concepts and skills, instill habits of hygiene and health, promote aesthetic sensitivity and create awareness of social change and modernization of villages. In a study of the SITE educational programme for primary school children, Kumar (1978) reported that highly negative correlation existed between gaining knowledge through TV and age of farmers. It was observed that the young farm women gained more knowledge as compared to the middle aged and older women. Further, she observed highly significant positive correlation between formal education of farm women and gain in knowledge. The study of Agrawal (1978) indicated that the TV programmes, in general, were above the comprehension level of young children, and science programmes in particular. The higher the age, the higher was the level of comprehension of programmes related to creative ability. Teacher student interaction increased but television did not significantly affect school children, although non-school going children were attracted to come to school for watching the programmes.

Chauhan (1978) studied the effect of SITE TV on farmers’ attitudes towards modern farm technology. It was found that TV was capable of making impact on the farmers’ intention to act upon the message but it was more effective in case of farmers with higher need of improved farming. Singh (1981), Subrahmanayam, (1984) and Singh (1988) found that awareness, knowledge and adoption of new agricultural practices
were higher in experimental villages and non-viewers. Agrawal (1981), Bhagat and Mathur (1989) observed that majority of the respondents realized that TV improved mental level, provided knowledge of new developments, especially about women related matters. Therefore, impact of TV as a medium of information and entertainment was realized by modern rather than traditional farm women. Impact of TV on farm women’s life style was generally considered positive. It means that TV was well received by minds of illiterate farm women.

Television provides varied experiences to children, and there by, enriches their knowledge and awareness about the world. It develops their attitude towards life, in general, by inculcating various concepts such as religion, patriotism and values of society etc. But it also produces adverse effects when it hinders other activities of children, and influences their development.

Atkin and Garramone (1984) examined the impact of news, media coverage of foreign affairs on the international political socialization. Results indicate that the amount of subjects TV newscast viewing was moderately associated with level of knowledge of foreign current events, world beliefs, interpersonal discussion about international topics, agenda ratings of the importance of foreign leaders and countries and promilitary attitude. It was also observed that listening to radio news and reading newspapers and news magazines had a less influential contribution to the subjects’ political socialization.

Fotner (1985) indicated that comparable presentations in class room setting or on TV as documentary film, increased knowledge. Attitude changes were apparent in the TV group but not among those in the class room treatment. Fallis, Fitzpatrick and Friested (1985) realised through their study that the emotionally divorced families can realize their own mistakes by watching TV serials and can also correct themselves, there by improving their relationships.
Gantz (1985) assessed perception of TV in married life. Results indicated that TV positively related to subjects' married lives. Kubey (1986) examined the relationship between level of TV viewing and demographic characteristics and subjective experiences of daily life. Contrary to hypothesis, there was little evidence suggesting that viewing correlated positively with more negative effects at work. There was a positive correlation between discomfort with idle, solitary and unstructured time and level of viewing. This correlation was particularly salient for black, less affluent, less educated, lower status, and divorced or separated subjects. Medvene and Bridge (1990) studied the impact of TV documentary on information levels, attitudes toward community based treatment facilities and beliefs about mental illness. Results indicate that positive aspect of the TV was shown in the rise in the level of understanding.

Many studies prove that TV affects both, positively and negatively. Donsbach (1985) and Alnso (1983) investigated that TV created a spiritual and social gap, out of the economic differences that existed between these groups. Those persons with TV were regarded as better sources of information, and they were better informed. Their political knowledge improved insignificantly through TV. Religious and social norms also remained stable during the period of investigation. TV had a considerable influence on the introduction of values, particularly among men. While TV did not increase the material or occupational aspirations of regular viewers, it did make them dissatisfied.

Neuman (1986) analyzed the relationship between the home learning environment and children's TV viewing and leisure reading preferences. Study tells that the parents are more aware of their children's education yet at the same time, the reading behaviour of children was adversely affected by watching too much TV.
Ostman and Parker (1987), Watkins, Gradow and Sadetsky (1988) also confirmed that society is affected in both the ways by TV. Krendle and Lasky (1989) have examined the nature of students' perceptions of TV's influences on their lives by analyzing the essays written by the subjects. Subjects identified both positive and negative effects of TV demonstrating a multifaceted understanding of its role. Positive effects included TV as an entertainment medium that keeps subjects informed through educational and intellectually stimulating programmes and advertisements. Negative influences included the behavioral effects resulting from exposure to specific types of content and the medium's distortion of the world.

Stroman (1991) studied a sample of American Negroes, and found that children who watch TV behave prosocially and their knowledge increases too, yet there is no change in either physical attributes. In other words, it is addressed that TV has no impact on personality development (physically and mentally) apart from increase in prosocial behaviour and knowledge. Bordeaux and Lange's (1991) results offer support for the view that children's mental-effort investment varies as a function of viewers' age and the type of programmes being viewed. Investment of mental effort reported by the children decreased significantly with age.

Leric (1996)* has said that children of today are capable of accepting any technological advances very easily. She considers them to be children of television age. All people have shown a growing interest in TV especially in the middle and lower classes, TV has a universal craze for all sorts of people.

Henke (1985) examined 630 college students' attitudes toward traditional and no traditional news media. Author also investigated the

role of the cable news media and the role of the cable news network (CNN). It was found that CNN viewers had heavier use of daily news papers, weekly news magazine, and late night local viewing than non CNN viewers.

The influence of TV can clearly be seen on all aspects of an individuals' life. This effect has been studied in depth by various students of human behaviour under different heads such as aggression values, habits etc. Through out three decades of research, numerous reviews of the scientific literature were made. The US Surgeon General's Report (Cisin, et al, 1972) and the National Institute of mental Health follow-up report (Pear, Bouthilet & Lazar, 1982) have concluded that sufficient evidence exists to justify the conclusion that televised violence is a contributory cause of children's aggression. The authors of a major study sponsored by the National Broadcasting company (Milavsky, Stipp, Kessler & Rubens, 1982) have contradicted this conclusion providing support for the many social scientists who never have been satisfied with the evidence that television violence makes children more aggressive (e.g. Freedman, 1984; Halloran, 1978; Howitt & Cumberbatch, 1975; Kaplan, 1982; Klapper, 1968; Lazarsfeld, 1955; Sohn, 1981 & 1982; Weiss, 1969). Meanwhile, the study by Milavsky and his colleagues have drawn high powered criticism of its conclusions despite a fairly positive assessment of its methodology and Scope (Cook, Kendzierski & Thomas, 1983; Huesmann, 1984; Kenny, 1984a, 1984b; Turner Hesse & Peterson, Lewis, 1986). Clearly the old argument is not settled and research should continue to address the question.

The effect of television was evidenced by a study conducted by Freidrich and Stein (1978) on impact of viewing violent programmes on aggressive behaviour. Children who watched aggressive cartoon programmes showed more aggressive behaviour than others who viewed neutral programmes.
Television was thought to affect children's aggression by pairing many ordinary situational stimuli with portrayals of violence. By means of classical conditioning, previously these natural stimuli were thought to take over "aggressive meaning" and become capable of eliciting aggression on a subsequent occasion if the person was "set to agrees" because of frustration, anger or some other source of physiological arousal considering most aggressive behaviour to have both an impulsive component and an instrumental component. Berkowitz said that elicitation affected impulsive aggression: actions taken quickly or without deliberation (Berkowitz 1962, 1974; Huesmann 1982).

How televised violence leads to aggression was explained by Huesmann (1982) on the basis of information processing theory. Huesmann has suggested that children create and store in their memories problem-solving algorithms which are based partly on observation of others behavior. Repeated scenes of violence could lead to storage of algorithms of aggressive behaviors in a host of social situations which would be recalled in later situations if a retrieval cue is presented. This could lead to a child imitating an aggressive action learned from television in new circumstances, with only the most superficial similarities to the original televised situation. Huesmann (1986) has reformulated his model so that curb imitation is seen as one of many possible types of aggressive social scripts that might be acquired or retrieved through exposure to television violence.

Vander, Vooizs and Bekker (1982) found that (i) children who watch more "realistic " violent movies have a difficult time distinguishing between TV violence and real violence, (ii) as children become older there is an increase in the amount of time taken by them to become frightened. (iii) boys are preferring to choose men as their favorite TV star or hero , while girls identified with both men and women. Rubenstun's (1982) research has also documented the adverse effect of televised violence.
Belson (1983) found that involvement in violent acts was significantly higher in subjects exposed to the most TV violence than in subjects exposed to the least amount. The study conducted by Sheehan (1983) clearly stated that TV viewing increases aggressiveness in the viewers, specially children are adversely affected by TV.

Bron (1983) considered the ages between 10 to 11 as very sensitive (impressionable). He opined that by viewing violent programmes at this age, children develop a tendency of aggression and Violence. Bandura (1983) argued that children may copy the violent actions, they have watched.

Singer and Benton (1989), Pierce (1984) also concluded that the violent TV programmes are making people more aggressive. Singer, Singer and Rapaczynski (1984) observed that subjects who spent more time watching TV (especially more violent programmes) were less likely to show self-restraint. Heavy TV was significantly associated with subjects' subsequent aggressive behavior, restlessness, and belief in a frightening world.

Gunter, Furnhan's (1984) results reveal that British crime drama portrayals, the featured shootings and stabbings were rated as most violent and disturbing. Also there were strong differences among subjects with different self-reported propensities toward either verbal or physical aggression. More physically aggressive subjects tended to perceive physical unarmed violence as less intense than did more verbally aggressive types.

Dominick (1984) established a relationship between video games, violent TV programmes and anti social behaviours. He found that people who were more fond of watching violent TV programmes, became more aggressive and those who liked to play violent video games were of an aggressive nature too. He also found a difference between the boys and girls because boys liked to play more violent video games than girls.
Huesmann, Logerspetz and Eron (1984) tested that TV violence viewing was considerably related to concurrent aggression and significantly predicted future changes in aggression. The strength of the relation depended on the frequency and extent of the violence. For boys, the effect was exacerbated by the degree to which the boy identified with TV characters. Path analysis suggested a bidirectional causal effect in which violence viewing engendered aggression and aggression engendered violence viewing.

Guntur and Fumhan's (1985) results showed that male violence on a female victim was rated more serious than females violence on a male victim, in the British crime dramas. But the opposite is true in American and science fiction contexts. These relationships held following separate analysis for male and female respondents. The study indicated the importance of self perceived masculinity-femininity and actual sex as mediators of viewer's judgments about TV violence.

Libert (1986) reviewed literature in this regard and concluded that heavy doses of TV violence viewing are associated with the development of aggressive attitudes and behavior. Rawe and Herstand (1986) study stated that relationships are uniformly influenced by aggression and crime. Huesmanns (1986) confirmed that aggression and violence have uniform and equal effect on both, children and adults.

Friedrich and Huston (1986) observed a bidirectional causal relation between viewing TV violence and aggression. Turner, Hesse and Peterson (1986) argued that TV produces a long term increase in the aggressive behavior of boys but not of girls. Sprafkin and Gadow's (1986) results showed that handicapped subjects watched more TV, and more aggression loaded programmes (i.e. crime, dramas, cartoons) than non-handicapped subjects.

Singer and Singer (1986) concluded that TV may contribute to children's restlessness, dysphoria, fears about daily dangers, and their
proneness to aggression. Chavez, Hamilton and Keilm (1986) suggested that subjects' fears were, both reactive to environmental events and developmentally mediated. Heath, Krutlschnitt and Ward (1986) indicated that the combination of TV violence parental abuse leads to violence in adult life.

Gunter and Furnham's (1986) results showed that violent amounts in TV programmes retained in the memory more than the nonviolent events. They found that recall was best from print and worst from the audiovisual modality. Violent content was better recalled than non-violent. Personality factors were related to recall of violent news in the audiovisual modality. Introversion, weaker neuroticism, and strong psychoticism predicted better recall of violent news. Singer (1986) indicated that children who viewed violent TV programmes were more aggressive than are those who did not.

Josephson (1987); Caprara, D'Imperio, Gentilomo, Mammucari, (1987); Vetro, Csapa, Szilard (1988) argue that TV increases aggression in the viewers, but it affects the males more prominently than the females.

Heavy TV viewing often preempts the time needed to practice play or reading. It also fosters dependence on external stimulation as a sustaining resource in periods of delay, empty time or frustrations. Thus, at the very least, it can be expected that heavy viewing create an increased restlessness in those children who had not already acquired play skills. Interpersonal aggression and property damage emerge from this restlessness (Singer & Singer, 1986). One argument put forward is that unlike the print media, television does not provide viewers with enough time to reflect that it leads to an impulsive rather than reflective style of thought and to a lack of persistence in intellectual tasks. Heavy television viewing is associated with a higher degree of impatience and restlessness (Greenfield, 1984).
Griffiths and Shuckford (1989); Wilson (1989); Sparks and Ogles (1990) pointed out that sensitivity and emotions were blunted by watching more violence and aggression. Lukesch's (1989) results showed a 'causal' significance of violent video and cinema use for increasing aggressive behaviour. Hoberman (1990) discussed various interventions designed to limit the effects of media violence on the well-being of adolescents in the light of evidence suggesting that media portrayals of violence have an effect on both, attitudes and behavior of youth. Camstock and Strasburger (1990) suggested that exposure to TV violence increases the likelihood of subsequent aggressive or antisocial behavior in the children and adolescents. Abbott (1992) described that a large body of research addressed link between television violence and real life aggression.

Eron (1992) testified before the US Senate on 31 March 1992 as Chairman of the American Psychological Associations Commission on Violence and Youth that 'television violence, affects youngsters of all ages for both genders, at all socio-economic levels and all levels of intelligence, and the effect is not limited to children who are already disposed to being aggressive, and is not restricted to this country'. Explaining how TV boosts violence in children, Eron (1992) suggests that a heightened state of tension including a strong physiological component results from frequently seeing high-action (violent) sequences. Another aspect deals with the rehearsal of behaviours observed by the child on television. The more often the child rehearses sequences involving his/her favourite character by continued or repeated viewing, the more likely it is that those very acts will be remembered and re-enacted when the child is in a situation which he thinks is similar. Also, by watching consistently aggressive behaviour, the youngster may be lead to believe that it is an expected and appropriate way of behaving, and that most people solve problems in aforesaid manner.
Research shows cartoon violence produces anger, irritability and aggressive behaviour. The Committee for Children’s Television suggests that we can not ignore the possibility that there is a symbolic link between violence on TV and violent behaviour in real life. We usually take cartoon films for granted as harmless. But Singer and Singer (1984) found that children who spent long hours watching Woody, Woodpecker and Tom & Jerry cartoons were more aggressive in their day-care centres. A study conducted at Kansas University found that apart from seeing violence on TV, only action high speed on TV leads to aggressive behaviour. But some studies describe didn’t a proper link between television violence and real life aggression. Ramamoorty (1974-75), and Lagerspetz and Viemero’s (1982) study on children (in Finland) showed that the aggression shown on TV does not adversely affect the children because they are capable of distinguishing (differentiating) between TV aggression and real life aggression. Freedman (1986) argues that there are sound reasons for exercising cautions in generalizing laboratory results, and support for the causal hypothesis. Moreover, it is asserted that the bidirectional model suggested by Friedrich, Cofer and Huston is not supported by the available evidence. Messner (1986) examined the relationship between levels of exposure to TV violence and rates of violent crime. Results fail to support this hypothesis. Contrary to expectations aggregate levels of exposure to TV were inversely related to rates of violent crime.

Morgan (1982) examined the relationship between the TV viewing and sex-role stereotypes of 349, 6th to 9th graders. Among females, the amount of TV viewing was significantly associated with sexism scores. For males, patterns were precisely the reverse: TV had no longitudinal impact on sex-role attitudes, but sexism foreshadowed greater viewing. Among females, the effect of TV increased with social status. Both, lower class females and males as a group, were more sexist regardless of viewing levels. This suggests that TV viewing is most likely to make
a difference among those who are otherwise least likely to hold traditional sex-role views.

Silverman, Theresa and Sprafkin (1983); Durkin (1984) interviewed 17 children (aged 4-9 yrs) individually, and asked them to discuss features of a series of highly stereotyped male and female behaviors shown on TV. Findings indicated that the subjects were able to infer feeling and motives appropriately, and offer possible accounts of off-screen behaviour by using their existing sex-role knowledge.

Geis, Brown, Walstidt and Porter (1984) examined that implicit sex-stereotyping in TV commercials operated as a cultural demand characteristic which might be inhibiting women's achievement aspiration. These subjects wrote an essay imagining their lives in 10 year. Essays were coded for achievement and home making themes. Woman who viewed traditional commercials emphasized achievement in favour of home making compared to men and woman who had seen reversed role commercials.

Atwood, Zohn and Webber (1986) explored the audience perception of the televised image of women. Responding to open-ended telephone interview techniques, 263 17-19yr old randomly sampled subjects described their criteria for judging women shown on TV. Results indicated that contemporary standards for evaluation were linked to a majority of responses whereas traditional standards were reflected by a minority of responses. Chi-square tests showed no significant differences between responses from the females and males samples.

Morgan (1987) measured the amount of TV viewing, sex role attitudes and sex role behavior. The relationship between viewing and attitudes was mediated by behavior, but in different directions for boys and girls. There was a reciprocal relationship between amount of viewing and the degree of congruence between sex-role attitude and behavior.
Subjects watching large amounts of TV tended to express traditional sex-role attitudes.

Signorielli (1989) explored the image of men and women in annual samples of prime time network, dramatic TV programming, and the relationship between TV viewing and espousing sexist views of the roles of men and women in society. It was concluded that TV viewing might be related to more sexist views of women's role in society. Bearinger (1990) discussed the impact of televising sexuality on adolescent sexual attitudes and behavior. The study addressed the long term impact of televised sexual depictions on adolescent health.

Signorielli (1990) examined images relating to gender roles on TV, and the possible impact of these images. Women tend to be under represented on TV, and the images of both, men and women tend to be stereotyped and traditional, despite a number of programmes with characterizations of more liberalised view of gender roles. Children and adults seem to perceive the gender-typed images to which they are exposed, and children are likely to identify with same-sexed TV characters.

Brown and Newcomer (1991) studied TV viewing and adolescents' sexual behavior. Subjects who chose diets of 'sexy' TV shows were more likely, than those who viewed a smaller proportion of sexual content on TV, to have had sexual intercourse. This relationship held regardless of perceived peer encouragement to engage in sex, pubertal development or social class. The relationship suggests that either sexual activity results increased interest in sexual contents in the media or that viewing such contents leads to sexual activity.

Kuber (1980) concluded that (i) TV viewing increases directly with age, and (ii) portrayals of the elderly on TV was under represented and had negative stereotyping. This was related to the alienation of youth from socialization and changes in attitude and moods. Ellison and Cole
(1982) tested the hypotheses that (i) high levels of TV watching would be positively associated with loneliness, (2) there would be a significant relationship between the amount of TV watching and type of religious commitment of the individual, and (3) watching large amounts of sports programmes would be associated with materialism. Soap-operas would correspond with high level of materialism and loneliness, and low levels of spiritual well being and existential well being (E WB). Late night talk show would raise viewers' sense of E WB. Data didn't support hypothesis 1 and 2, and supported only the assertion of hypothesis 3 that watching high level of sports programmes was associated with materialism.

Krampen, Viebig and Walter (1982) analyzed that personality correlates television viewing behavior. There were significant bivariate and multivariate correlations between (1) viewing time, (2) motives, and (3) the viewing and positive valuation of entertainment programmes and personality variables like externality, conservatism, rigidity and social distrust. Internality was correlated with (1) motives for viewing such as information and self-control, and (2) the regular viewing of news and information programmes. According to Free (1983), there was a great deal of difference between life as it actually is and that shown on the TV. This causes a deterioration in the attitudes and values of the viewers.

Caution (1983) argued that the effect of TV advertisement was more on the Black children as compared to Whites. The former had more belief on the advertisement and their contents. They also crave for the advertisements, and also may choose the wrong methods for acquiring them while the latter don't show these tendencies quite as much. It was also concluded that blacks belonging to low economic status were more materialist.

Seel and Born (1984); Passuth and Cook (1985) concluded that the attitudes and values of children watching more TV, were affected
negatively. Corozzo and Julio (1985) studied effect of mass media on child socialization. Subjects' socialization patterns in the 1st year of life were affected significantly by TV promoted values. Low socio-economic status subjects were found to be affected the most.

Postman (1985) argued that the present media environment with TV at its center was leading to the rapid disappearance of childhood in North America. It was expected that childhood would probably not survive at the end of the 20th century, and that such a state of affairs represents a social disaster. He suggested that the behaviour, attitudes, desires, and even physical appearance of adults and children are becoming increasingly indistinguishable. Argenta, Stoneman and Brody (1986) confirm that when children watch more TV they were alienated from the society. It was also found that girls were more influenced by the TV than boys.

Peterson, Peterson and Carroll's (1986) study confirmed that addiction to more TV leads to a decline in the power of imagination among children. Morality was also found to be affected negatively by more TV viewing (Singer & Singer, 1984; Rosenkoetter, Huston & Wright, 1990; Rule & Ferguson, 1986).

Rothschild and Morgan (1987) examined the contribution of TV exposure to adolescents' conceptions of social reality. Results suggest that less parental control tended to increase impact of TV, especially when combined with lower levels of family cohesion. The studies done by Kim, Baran and Massey (1988) and Tangney (1988) indicate that the generation gap is widening due to an increase in TV watching. The children, specially the males, are going away from reality. TV increased the modernization also (Chopra, 1988).

Duck (1990) affirms that earlier the parents, members of the family, neighbours or national leaders served as role models for children but the trend is changing, and as a result, the trend is to search for a role
model in actors, pop-star sports person or even in the character depicted in the TV serials. Signorielli’s (1987) survey indicated that the harmful effects of drinking alcoholic beverages were rarely mentioned in the reports.

Programmes that mention alcohol were also likely to have references to sexual behavior and violence. Respondents who watched 4 or more hours of TV each day were less likely to reply that they occasionally drank alcoholic beverages than those who watched less TV. Data also revealed that smoking was positively related to TV viewing.

Aitken, Eadie, Leathar and McNeil’s (1988) findings indicated that children are more aware and appreciative of alcohol advertising than adults realize. They were particularly appreciative of TV commercials for mass-produced lagers. Under age drunkars were more adept than nondrinkars at recognizing and identifying brand imagery in alcohol. The under-age drunkars tended to pay more attention to alcohol commercials. They also tended to appreciate more, of TV advertisements for alcoholic drinks suggesting that they get more pleasure out of them.

Barber, Bradshow and Walsh’s (1989) results were consistent with the proposition that advertisements reduced intake of alcohol provided that subjects also received the standard letter alerting them to the start of the campaign. Atkin’s (1990) survey research indicates that alcohol commercials contributed to a modest increase in over-all consumption by teenagers, and may have a slight impact on alcohol misuse and drunk driving. Resnick (1990) study report also refers the impact of televised drinking and alcohol advertising on youth. This study indicated the adverse effect of alcohol add and alcohol consumption on adolescents. But Futch, Lisman and Geller (1984) conducted a content and functional analysis of alcohol portrayal on prime time television. Results indicated that alcohol use and verbalizations about alcohol were frequent occurrences on prime time television. Antecedent condition to alcohol
ingestion were identified as hospitality, enjoyment, celebration and tension reduction. No consistent behavioral consequences of use of alcohol were observed by the researchers. Kohn and Smart (1984) studied the impact of television advertising on alcohol consumption. Results indicated that advertising had no significant effect on total beer consumption. Findings did not support concern about TV advertising were likely to produce negative results when drinking was measured over a substantial period. (e.g. 1 hour or more).

Phillip's (1982) study show that suicides, motor vehicle accidents and non-fatal accidents, all rose immediately following soap-opera suicide stories. Female suicides increased proportionally more than male suicides. Single motor vehicle accidents increased more than multiple ones. All increases were statistically significant, and persisted after correction for the presence of non-fictional suicide stories, linear trends, seasonal fluctuations and day of the week fluctuations in the data. The relationship between network TV news stories and subsequent suicides was studied by Kessler, Downey, Stipp and Milavykey (1989) using daily time series data from 1973 to 1984. Although, there was no reliable association between network news stories and suicide among adults at any time during 12 years. A significant association existed among teenagers during 1980. Such association was more pronounced among girls than boys. Hoston and Stack (1984) studied the relationships between length of TV news coverage of suicide stories on indices of suggestion and imitation, and the monthly suicide rate. Results indicate that, for a properly specified model of suicide the imitation factor has no impact on suicide.

Phillips and Paight (1987) studied the impact of televised movies on suicide. They studied suicides in California and Pennsylvania before and after the televising of 3 fictional films about suicide. There was no evidence of increased teenage suicide after the films were shown. It was
concluded that it was premature to be concerned about possible fatal effects of fictional televised films on suicide.

Berman (1988) and Center wall (1990) studied fictional depiction of suicide in television films and imitation effects. No evidence was found about increased number of suicides after TV telecast of the 3 films. Danaher Berkanovic and Gerber (1984) analysis suggested that the televised quit-smoking programme encouraged viewers to initiate more numerous attempts to quit smoking than otherwise would have been expected. Specific music programmes have as much negative influence on the viewers as violence, sex and alcohol consumption. Baxter, deRiemer and Ann (1985) analyzed a sample of 62 music television (MTV) videos in 23 content categories. Frequent occurrences were found in visual abstraction, sex dance, violence and crime. Greenfield, Bruzzone and Kristi (1987) discussed what is rock music doing to the minds of the youth. They conducted three preliminary studies on the cognitive effects of rock music, lyrics and music videos using a total of 104 students from grades 4-12 and from college. Subjects completed questionnaires after listening to songs or viewing videos. Exp. I found that comprehension of rock music lyrics developed with age and that lyrics was often misunderstood, particularly by young children who lacked relevant world knowledge and were at a concrete stage of cognitive development. Exp. II found that music videos provided less stimulation to imagination and were enjoyed less than the songs alone. Exp.III, using different methods, confirmed the negative effect of music videos on the imagination. Kubey and Larson (1990) examined new video media. It was found in the case of boys, to be associated with higher degree of arousal and more positive affective states and some music video have a negative impact on their reading and listening to popular music. Girls reported less effects and arousal, especially during video games and music videos. Wait, Hillbrand and Foster (1992) reported that music videos increase aggressive behaviour in viewers.
A report released by the U.S. National Coalition on Television Violence in 1992, stated that for the major music video networks (MTV, VTV) there were few time periods which were not harmful. Over sixty percent of the music videos contained at least one of the elements related to explicit violence, suggestions of violence degrading sexual portrayals, sexually suggestive themes, profanity, smoking and alcohol consumption.

The report identifies music channels as the most violent music video network, averaging over 29 instances of violent or hostile imagery per hour. In a speech Byrd (1991) pointed out that many of our children who watch MTV (other music channels) on retrogrades and destructive visuals, the impact on them could be dangerous in the long run.

Advent of numerous TV channels provide an opportunity for children to watch them. As a result, children do not get sufficient time to even complete their studies properly. Their eyes are also adversely affected because they watch TV at close range. They feel strong restlessness and get insomnia. The children are unable to concentrate on anything properly. Alonso (1983) discussed the impact of TV programmes on health also.

Greenfield (1984) quotes a study conducted in the United States which concluded that heavy television viewing was associated with a higher degree of impatience and restlessness.

Rothenberg (1985) discussed the role of television in shaping children's attitudes asserting that the improved passivity brought about by long hours of TV viewing and the inappropriate role models presented to children on TV, represent potential health hazards. Author also discussed how the negative effects of TV violence on behaviours and attitudes are being encouraged in children by TV.
Tucker (1986 & 1987) pointed out that well being was related significantly to the extent of viewing TV. Light TV viewers were more TV sensitive, imaginative, outgoing, physically active, self controlled, intelligent than their counter parts, especially the heavy TV viewers. TV viewers were less troubled, frustrated, and shrewd and used drugs less frequently, particularly alcohol, than moderate and heavy TV watchers, especially the latter. Vetro Csapo, Szilard and Vargha (1988) indicated that frequency of TV viewing also had a damaging effect on sleep and consequently on mental and emotional development. Watching TV at the time of taking meals always facilitates the intake of food, which causes various health problems (Deltoro & Greenberg, 1989).

Taras, Sallis, Patterson and Nader (1989) and Larson, (1991) examined the embedded messages about nutrition that were contained in the behaviours of adults and children on 3 prime time television series. Programmes were analyzed with regard to what was eaten by whom and whether it was a full meal or snacks. Data revealed patterns of relatively non nutritious eating choices by adults, and of a very heavy emphasis on eating snacks. Calvert and Cocking (1992) also examined interactions between the person and TV that capitalize on environmental features associated with healthy life styles.

Lekhi (1986) gave questionnaires to 82 matched pairs (Students) of TV viewers and non viewers to assess the effects on general adjustment, study habits and leisure time activities of various levels of TV watchers. In all the 3 viewer groups (heavy, moderate and occasional viewers) and in non viewers statistically, insignificant differences were found in all adjustment areas. Significant differences were observed in the case of total adjustment scores and study habits. Some significant differences were found in the leisure time activities of the viewers and non viewers.

Reddy (1979); Sanga and Singh (1979); Sinha (1980) found that higher education was found to lower the viewing of TV programmes.
The greater the size of family greater was the tendency to view the TV programmes.

Mehra, Sharma and Nagar (1985), Dey (1986) studied the illiterate, low educated, middle aged respondents of nuclear families engaged in service who were found to devote more time on an average per day on TV than otherwise. Mishra (1967) Gupta and Sanga (1980) Jha and Sinha, (1980) stated that television was viewed by majority of audience as a medium of entertainment rather than that of education or information.

Bedi, Bihari, and Choudhary (1979), Aghi, (1980) indicate that children constituted the largest number of viewers, action based programme had maximum appeal for the children. They also like to view scientific, agricultural literacy and religious programmes. (Chaudhary, 1980; Chaudhary & Devriya, 1982) on the other hand, they found that children preferred to watch such programmes which have puppets, animated characters of shorter duration have music and songs (Hansra & Belland, 1983).

Mishra et. al. (1983) found that BTV programmes were viewed with interest, and comprehension was also good as the content was already covered in the class, and teachers were better motivated, while Operation Research Group of Baroda (1985) concluded that children in 58.3 percent of households having television, spent longer hours before their sets than adults.

Jonsson (1985), Bhardwaj and Hansra (1988) opined that television viewing among children is controlled buy socio-personal factors. Parents, siblings and other adults in the family determine the type of programmes viewed, time spent on viewing and the way of using television by children.
Dey (1968) found that age, family type, family size and habit of the women were significantly associated with the extent of knowledge regarding nutrition practices.

Space Application Centre (1977) conducted an experiment of TV for rural children which indicated that the programme successfully drew the attention and interest level of the children. Familiarity with story characters also aided in this regard. Aghi’s (1977) observation of science education programme on SITE children in Rajasthan indicated that the programmes stimulated interest, children designated as low performers become high performers.

Children of 2 to 5 yrs watch very few hours of TV per day. Thus when they are 6 yrs. old and start school in class I, they have viewed a lot of programmes on TV. Such children do not have much curiosity loud reading or listening but they are more capable of understanding any thing by seeing the images and hearing commentary about the image.

Gunter’s (1982) research has shown that TV viewing, not only affects academic efforts, but may also have a profound effect on cognitive development with serious implications on the child’s ability to learn effectively in formal educational settings.

Soloman (1984) observed that subjects felt more efficacious with TV and perceived it as more realistic and easy. Print was reported to demand more effort but it led to better inference making efficacy correlated positively with the amount of invested mental effort in print and negatively in TV.

Fetter (1984) Singer and Singer Desmond and Hirsch (1988) observed that when a child watched TV for more 2 hours per day his reading, mathematics, discussion power and writing work is adversely affected, on the other hand a child who does not watch a lot of TV shows better achievement in all fields.
Bubee, Robinson and Turow (1985) observed that westernized TV programmes decreased children's reading behaviour and small physical activity, increased their propensity to engage in sex stereotype and promoted excessive materialism. They further noticed that it expanded children's view of world knowledge.


Dalal (1986) reported that children who watch television for more than one hour each day, have lesser power of memory retention and concentration. Moreover, it retards creative and inventive thinking, increases emotional instability and retards physical development among children.

However, some other students did not support the above findings. Correlation between TV watching and academic performance has been observed by Gorthaker Satha walk (1990) in their longitudinal study. It was also observed that boys and girls had different preferences in their choices of TV programmes (Hallam, Brown and Channey, 1969).

David, Vinant and Donald (1987) Reinking (1990) found that TV poses as a major threat to children's reading ability. Vander Voort, and Vooigs (1990) said that duration of watching TV increases with the age of children, without considering any influence of the gender of the child. But the children belonging to the lower socio-economic status spent more time in watching TV compared to those from the upper status. They also confirm that the reading ability is affected adversely by TV watching.

Henggeler Cohen, Edwards, Summer Ville et al. (1991) showed that academic achievement was negatively correlated with TV viewing and this association was independent of the child's verbal ability. Postial
correlations showed the maternal ratting of life events. Stress and father's marital satisfaction were associated with TV Viewing, high TV view was associated with relatively stressful family contrast.

Armstrong, Boiarsky and Maris (1991) tested a model of the effects of back ground, TV were found controlling for prior abilities and motivation. Deleterious effects were stronger and more consistent when testing accused immediately after reading rather than after a-5 minute filled daily. Back ground commercials resulted in more consistently negative effects than did TV drama.

Lucat (1985) demonstrates that watching TV has a great impact on children's drawings. TV viewing caused children to draw completely new forms and to alter the details of the persons casually drawn by then and also positive effects on academic levels (Mishra & Khathri, 1985). Scharamm (1961), Ball and Bogatz (1972) found that children who had access to television during the pre-school years, came to school with larger vocabularies than children who were not exposed to television. They also found that children who watched TV programmes, demonstrated improved cognitive skills, had better reasoning and problem-solving capacities.

Eduljee's (1979-80) study of impact of TV on children below the age group of 8-11 years revealed that there is a definite change in the regular habits of children, based on the television telecast time. On the other hand, the findings of SITE experiment showed that children of III and V grades who watched television become high performer from low performer. Moreover, it also increased general awareness among children. Agrawal (1981) Kande (1982) revealed the impact of ETV on behaviour of rural elementary school children that it had a positive impact on creative behaviour, fluency and attitudes towards school.

Mishra (1983), indicated that programme helped children to gain knowledge of Gujarati, Science and Social Studies. Both teachers and
parents valued programmes having audio-visual qualities while Narayan's (1983) study brought out that TV keeps children indoors in evenings when they should actually be engaged in vigorous outdoors play and few told about increase in grades, whereas Shah and Kaushal (1988) revealed that students gained more knowledge about personality development and about their social and legal problems, and even household managements.

Ojha (1988) studied to know the impact of TV viewing on women revealed that the 'Ghar Bahar' viewers have learnt and adopted the different household practices like cutting, designing and preparation of children and ladies garments, embroidery, making decorative pieces out of waste materials, different dishes, bakery products like cake, biscuits preservatives and health education.