



BOSTON UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

THE EFFECT OF TELEVISION ON
PRESCHOOL CHILDREN'S SOCIAL BEHAVIOR

BAHIYA J. ALJISHI

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education
1988

Copyright by
Bahiya Aljishi, 1988

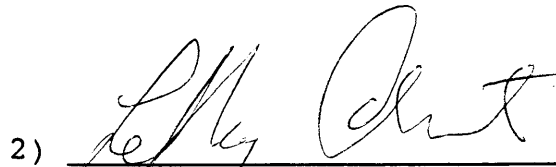
Approved by:

First Reader

1) 

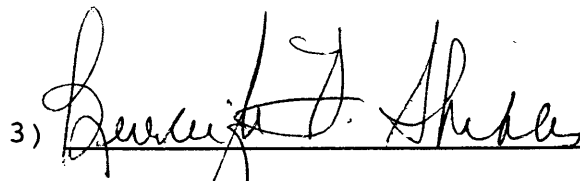
Gaylen B. Kelley, Professor, School of
Education, Boston University

Second Reader

2) 

LeRoy Clinton, Associate Professor,
School of Education, Boston University

Third Reader

3) 

Burleigh, H. Shibbes, Clinical Associate
Professor, School of Education, Boston
University

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am indebted to so many people without whose assistance the completion of this work would not have been possible. First and foremost, I am profoundly grateful to my advisor, Professor Gaylen B. Kelley for his unfailing help, indefatigable supervision and guidance throughout the time spent on the doctoral program. I am indeed very fortunate to have worked with him; I not only won a mentor but a genuine friend as well. I am particularly indebted to Professor LeRoy Clinton for his valuable suggestions and comments. His knowledge and in-depth analysis opened my eyes to so many points in the course of this study.

I am also grateful to Professor Burleigh Shibles for his valuable advice and comments. His support and encouragement cannot be denied.

Without the financial support and encouragement of the government of the State of Bahrain, this work would not have come to light. To Sheikh Isa Bin Mohammed AlKhalifa, the former President of the General Organization for Youth and Sports, I owe a great deal of thanks. His backing made it possible for me to obtain a study leave and enroll at Boston University. I would also like to thank Sheikh Isa Bin Rashid Al-Khalifa, the President of the General Organization

for Youth and Sports for the continual support and assistance afforded to me by GOYS.

Special thanks are due to Bahrain Television and to my friends Khalil Al-Thawadi, Dr. Hala Al-Omran and Mr. Nabil Qambar for their valuable help. Thanks are also due to Mr. Ibrahim Al-Yousif, the former director of Arab Gulf States Joint Program Production Institute for his support and great help.

I am equally grateful to my friend, Father Carney Gavin, Curator of Harvard Semitic Museum, for his lavish kindness, generosity and support and foremost, for introducing me to Boston University.

I would also like to thank Najat Sanad for her help with the observation experiment and Khulood Al-Barjas whose help made things easier for me. Thanks are also due to Diane Benjuya for reading the manuscript and for her valuable comments and suggestions; to Dr. John Houlihan for his assistance with the data analysis and also to Mr. Roger Hecht for his excellent and efficient word processing.

A word of thanks also goes to my friends and colleagues at Boston University School of Education and Harvard Semitic Museum, and especially to my friends Amani and Bassem El-Nahass for their continued support. Thanks also go to the teachers and the children of the daycare centers in Bahrain

who participated in the study. This acknowledgement would be incomplete without mentioning my husband, Dr. Mohammed Al-Khozai who stood behind me and offered all the support I needed. As to my son, Firas, he deserves a special mention in this place. I dedicate this work with love to Firas who has been the real inspiration that sparked the enthusiasm in me for this research.

ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF TELEVISION ON PRESCHOOL
CHILDREN'S SOCIAL BEHAVIOR

(Order No.)

BAHIYA JAWAD ALJISHI, Ed.D.

Boston University School of Education, 1988

Major Professor: Gaylen B. Kelley, Professor of Education

This study investigated the effect of two television programs on the social behavior of preschool children in Bahrain. Two variables were manipulated: cooperation and aggression. Two programs were edited for the purpose of this study. The first one contained segments from Iftah Ya Simsim which portrays prosocial behavior. The second program contained segments from Iftah Ya Simsim as well as other children's cartoons and puppet shows portraying negative social behavior.

Sixty children attending two daycare centers in Bahrain participated in this study. Children were divided into two viewing groups: the first group viewed a program with prosocial behavior, and the second group viewed a program with negative social behavior.

Children's behavior was observed and coded on 3-level scale used before and after children viewed the assigned

program. The results of Wilcoxon Sign Tests for Differences Between Independent Samples revealed a significant increase in mean rank from pretest to posttest on cooperative behavior for group one who viewed a program with prosocial behavior. The analysis also pointed to a significant increase in gain scores on aggressive behavior for group two who viewed the program with antisocial behavior.

Six Mann-Whitney U analysis using the gain scores were employed to measure the significance of the difference between the two groups on both cooperative and aggressive behavior; to measure the difference between males and females on cooperative and aggressive behavior, and to measure the age difference between five year olds and six year olds on both behaviors. Analyses of Chi-square and the Phi coefficient was used to further test the relationships between gender and target behavior, and age and target behavior in the two groups.

The results of the data analysis showed a significant difference on cooperative behavior between children in group one who viewed a program with prosocial behavior, and children in group two who viewed a program with antisocial behavior. The results also showed significant difference between the two groups on aggressive behavior. On the other hand, the analysis of the Mann Whitney U and the Chi-square

and Phi coefficient did not show a significant relationship between gender and target behavior, or age and target behavior.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.	iv
ABSTRACT.	.vii
LIST OF TABLES.	.xiv
LIST OF FIGURES	.xvi
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Background of the Problem	4
Statement of the Problem	7
Significance of the Study	9
Limitations of the Study	15
Definition of Terms	16
Hypotheses	18
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	20
Cognitive and Intellectual Development	21
Role Taking	29
Age and Gender Factors in Social Cognition	33
Social Learning Theory and Research	37
The Role of Modeling in the Learning Process	38
Reinforcement, Punishment and Reward	46
The Impact of Television on Children	50
General Overview	50
Cartoons as Behavioral Models	59

How Much Is Too Much: Television as a Time	
Consumer	62
Television and Aggressive Behavior	64
Television and Prosocial Behavior	71
Television Viewing and Socialization	77
Factors Influencing Viewing Patterns	83
Interacting Variables in the Viewing	
Experience	85
Level of Previous Aggression	86
Justification of the Televised Action	89
Level of Cognitive and Social	
Development of the Child	89
The Television Program's Format	96
Age of the Child	97
Gender of the Child	99
Reinforcement, Punishment and Reward	100
Parental Guidance	101
Media Literacy	103
Sesame Street	104
The Planning Stage	104
The Instructional Goals	106
Sesame Street's Format	109
Evaluation of "Sesame Street"	111
Sesame Street Abroad	118

Foreign Adaptations of Sesame Street	119
Iftah Ya Simsim	121
Summary	130
III. METHODOLOGY	139
Population	140
Budaia and Suburbs	140
Alhala in Muharraḡ	141
Instruments	142
A Television Program with Prosocial Behavior	142
A Television Program with Antisocial	
Behavior	142
Criteria for Selecting Program Material . . .	142
Observation Checklist	143
Behavioral Categories under Investigation	145
Procedure	150
Selection of Subjects	150
Experimental Arrangements	150
Consent Form	155
The Effect Measure	155
Reliability	156
Validity	158
Design and Data Analysis	159
Summary	160

IV. RESULTS	162
Hypothesis 1	164
Hypothesis 2	166
Hypothesis 3	168
Hypothesis 4	169
Hypothesis 5	171
Hypothesis 6	173
Summary	175
V. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	174
Hypothesis 1	175
Hypothesis 2	180
Hypotheses 3 and 4	185
Hypotheses 5 and 6	187
Summary and Conclusions	189
Recommendations	193
APPENDICES.	197
Appendix A Scripts from Prosocial Program	198
Appendix B Scripts from Antisocial Program.	199
Appendix C Observation Checklist.	210
Appendix D Parents' Consent Form (English).	215
Appendix E Parents' Consent Form (Arabic)	216
BIBLIOGRAPHY.	217
VITA.	236

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>	<u>Page</u>
1	Curriculum Objectives of <u>Iftah Ya</u> <u>Simsim</u> 126
2	Distribution of Children in Group One and Group Two 151
3	Mann-Whitney U Test on Cooperative Behavior by Experimental Group. 166
4	Mann Whitney U Test on Aggressive Behavior by Experimental Group. 167
5	Mann Whitney U Test on Cooperative Behavior Gain Scores by Gender. 169
6	Chi-Square Test on Cooperative Behavior Gain Scores by Gender. 170
7	Mann Whitney U Test on Aggressive Behavior Gain Scores by Gender. 171
8	Chi-Square Test on Aggressive Behavior Gain Scores by Gender. 172
9	Mann Whitney U Test on Cooperative Behavior Gain Scores by Age 173
10	Chi-Square on Cooperative Behavior Gain Scores by Age. 173
11	Mann Whitney U Test on Aggressive Behavior Gain Scores by Age 174

12	Chi-Square on Aggressive Behavior	
	Gain Scores by Age.	175
13	Within Group Pretest Posttest	
	Comparison on Cooperative Behavior.	179
14	Within Group Pretest Posttest	
	Comparison on Aggressive Behavior	184

LIST OF FIGURES

<u>Figure</u>		<u>Page</u>
1	Pretest and Posttest Mean Ranks on Cooperative Behavior by Experimental Group.	165
2	Pretest and Posttest Mean Ranks on Aggressive Behavior by Experimental Group .	168

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

All television is educational television. the
only question is, what is it teaching?
(FCC Commissioner, Nicholas
Johnson, in Liebert, Neale,
and Davison, 1973, p. 170)

The concern over the social effects of television on children stems from the belief that the child's learning during the first five or six years sets the foundations for life long patterns of behavior and further learning (Donahue, 1977). In a relatively short period of time, television has progressed from an experimental device to a major force in society (Gregoire, 1979). Television is increasingly becoming an essential part of daily life for many families, due to its power to influence people's opinions, and due to its ability to broaden people's scope of knowledge and to provide them with interesting subjects for discussion. With this power, television has gradually become a determinant factor in how people organize and spend their time (Surgeon General's Report, 1972).

The fact that 90% of the United States households have a television set (Cater, 1975; Singer, Singer and Zuckerman, 1981) lead the researcher to consider that television might be more than an entertainment medium. It is, as Singer and Singer (1981) describe it, "a magic source of input of verbal and visual stimulation for the growing child."

Compared to the United States, television in the Arab World is still a new phenomenon; still almost one set exists for every 38 persons (Al-hamdani, in Abbas, 1983). The Arab World's first encounter with this medium took place in June 1955, when the U.S. airfield in Dhahran, Saudi Arabia had the first television broadcast in the area (Mulligan, 1974). In early 1957, television sets were on exhibit at the Baghdad International Fair. This marvelous "radio with pictures," as it was known by the public, became commonplace in the Gulf area, when the Arabian American Oil Company (ARAMCO), the huge oil company operating in Saudi Arabia, initiated the first television broadcast in the area in September 1957 (Mulligan, 1974). The broadcasts were originally meant to entertain Aramco employees in the Eastern Province of Saudi Arabia, but neighboring Arab states were also able to receive the telecast on their new sets.

By the early 1960s most Arab countries offered television broadcasts. Since then, television stations became requisite for all Arab governments and developed rapidly for political and cultural reasons (Abbas 1983). Educational programming is today a common concern of all television services in the Arab world, although the educational programs themselves differ in their goals and target audience, according to Abbas (1983). Furthermore, most of these programs are television lessons for illiterates, and for primary and secondary school levels based on school curricula (Othman, in Alkhulaifi, 1984).

Bahrain was the first Arab Gulf state to have a color commercial television station in 1973 (Gulfvision, 1979). This private enterprise was taken over by the Ministry of Information in 1974. Presently, all Gulf states have public color television broadcasts with at least two channels, one for local Arabic programs and the other for foreign programs, mainly in English. These stations depend mainly on imported programs produced in Egypt, the United States and Europe. Because of their Western culture content these programs can constitute a threat to the local culture, especially for the youngsters. Truet (1979) argues that emerging nations are extremely unaware that the spread of imported cultural programs will overwhelm and envelop their

own, thus diluting history, traditions, values and language. However, an effort is growing in the Arab Gulf states to make domestically produced programs that depict local culture and values, and focus on indigenous social programs.

Background of Problem

The role that television plays in the development of the child is becoming one of the most examined areas of mass communication (Culley, Lazar and Atkin, 1976). The impact of television provides a variety of theoretical questions that will be addressed in this study. One of the questions that has attracted the attention of many researchers is the problem of how television affects children's social behavior and socialization, that is the amount of time a child engages in other activities that require involvements of all different senses and that will contribute to his cognitive and social development, such as interacting with peers, siblings or parents, playing, reading, exploring the environment, or even sleeping. This question has led television to become a greater focus of attention than any socialization force other than family and school (Collins, 1982).

According to Goldberg and Gorn (1979), the results of studies suggest that the existence of television is associated with other factors and changes in the life of a child. The availability of television interferes with other activities and distracts the child from exploring areas important to his development, such as reading or play. Goldberg and Gorn attempted to explain the effects of television through social learning theory. They said that the behavior children observe in live symbolic models is reflected in their own behavior. Goldberg and Gorn based their conclusion on the assumption that a child will imitate television characters. This conclusion also stems from the belief that a child's learning during his first five or six years provides for the formation of future learning and behaviors that last lifelong.

As more and more Western television programs include violence, the concern over the harmful effects of television has led researchers to concentrate on the possible relationship between television and children's behavior (Donahue, 1977). The interest in television violence and television potential for negative and positive impact has been thoroughly investigated. The results of the studies in this area have presented evidence of televisions's effect on social behaviors other than aggression and violence

(Collins, 1982). Behaviors such as prosocial attitudes, imagination, and learning from television have also been prominent in the research literature.)

In 1969, Sesame Street was produced and telecast across the United States for the first time. It was the first children's program to attempt to educate an entire population through national television with an extremely entertaining package (Bogatz & Ball, 1971). Originally, Sesame Street allocated most of its time to teaching cognitive skills to inner-city disadvantaged children (Lesser, 1974). During the next several seasons, however, the amount of segments devoted to new social and effective material was increased and continued to this day.

Sesame Street has been translated and adapted into many languages either with little or with much alteration of the program's visual images (Palmer, Chen and Lesser, 1976). One of these adaptations was the Arabic program, Iftah Ya Simsim, which means "Open Sesame." This title was based on the famous Arabic tale of Ali Baba and the forty thieves in The Arabian Nights. Ali Baba used this phrase to open the cave door that led him to his fortune. "Open Sesame" was meant to open the children's horizons and lead them to the wealth of knowledge and healthy growth and development. In 1978, an agreement was signed between the Children's

Television Workshop (CTW), producers of Sesame Street, and the Arab Gulf States Joint Program Production Institute (AGSJPPPI), which called for the CTW to provide AGSJPPPI with advice and expertise in order to plan and produce the Arabic series (AGSJPPPI Document, in Alkhulaifi, 1984).

Because AGSJPPPI is a regional organization, the curriculum goals had to anticipate, assimilate, and satisfy the many ambitions of its members (Ridha, 1979). Ridha explained that the production of Iftah Ya Simsim has become a Pan-Arab project responsible for expanding its goals far beyond those of Sesame Street and perhaps beyond the goals of other successful foreign adaptations of the program.

Statement of the Problem

The major elements in the present study are prosocial and antisocial behaviors in preschool television viewers. The research centers on these behaviors because most studies that deal with the effects of television suggest television can shape different prosocial and antisocial behaviors in children (Goldberg and Gorn, 1979), and that children will model demonstrations of positive and negative behaviors (Coates and Pusser, 1975).

The purpose of this study was to identify the influence of television's behavioral models on the behavior of Bahraini preschool children using segments of a domestically produced program (Iftah Ya Simsim) and segments of imported programs, and to better understand the gender and age differences in children's understanding of televised material. The researcher chose Iftah Ya Simsim, not because it represents the kind of programs that are produced for children in Arab Gulf States, but rather because it is the only children's program designed to promote carefully selected skills and that has clearly defined set of goals. Thus, Iftah Ya Simsim presents a unique opportunity for research and evaluation. The antisocial program included negative segments from Iftah Ya Simsim. These segments were presented on behaviors that the producers wished children to avoid. The researcher included them because some of the research (Peel, Schauble and Palmer, 1979) suggested that portraying behaviors that we wish children to avoid may provide them with new ideas and have an opposite effect on them. The program also included segments from children's favorite muppet shows and cartoons, such as "Tom and Jerry" and "Woody Woodpecker," which the researcher felt contained violence that some parents and educators do not consider as such. It also included segments form cartoons such as

"Batman," "Superman" and "Spiderman," as well as violent actions in animation sequences of different cartoons such as Grandizer and Ironman.

This research was designed to answer the following questions.

1. Does television affect preschoolers' social behavior?
2. Which programs are more effective in influencing preschoolers' behavior: antisocial or prosocial programs?
3. Does television have a different effect on boys than on girls?
4. Are older preschoolers (6 years) more effected by television than younger ones (5 years)?

Significance of the Study

This study constitutes a contribution to the research on the effect of television on preschool children's behavior in Bahrain for the following reasons:

- 1) The study focuses on the behavior of children between the age of five and six years. There is little research on the effect of television on Arab children's behavior, especially that of

preschoolers. Most of the research in this area has been directed toward viewers over 14 years of age (Alkhairu and Hamza, cited by Abbas, 1983). This study is perhaps the first of its kind to investigate the effects of television on preschoolers' behavior in Bahrain and at the same time to contribute to and satisfy part of the need for research in the area of television and children.

- 2) Because of its scientific nature, unlike some of the studies that have been conducted by television program producers, there is no vested interest in the results. The researcher hopes that the results of this study will attract the attention of educators, researchers, and program producers to the power of this medium in the life of Arab children, and to bring Iftah Ya Simsim to their attention as a landmark in the history of children's television in the Arab world.
- 3) This study maintains that television could do more for the Arab child than it does at present. A survey conducted in Bahrain by the Children's Department at the High Council for Youth and Sport in 1980 indicated that a great number of Bahraini children spend most of their leisure time viewing

television. Thus, it is vitally important to discuss and study the kind of programs children view during the most hours of the day and the effect these programs leave on them.

- 4) Since Arab children in general share the same characteristics, cultural and social background, and the same educational conditions, and since the same television programs are available to children all over the Arab world, the researcher hopes that this study will be generally applicable to children in other Arab countries.

The research on television and social behavior has furnished evidence that television can provide a variety of models of attitudes, behaviors, experiences and expectations about social life ~~to~~ which children would otherwise not be exposed to. Schramm, Lyle and Parker (1961) have asserted that television is particularly important in the early years of a child's life, because it provides a unique opportunity to contribute to the growth of knowledge. On the other hand, Lesser (1974) stresses the idea that we have very little understanding of television's effects, and that considering the idea that children might benefit from television is an acknowledgement of the fast development and spread of the medium.

In the Arab World, television can be of particular importance because 50% of the total population is under the age of 15 (Adwan, cited by Abbas, 1988). In Bahrain, particularly, television can be an effective medium, as most children have access to it, and because only 16% of the pre-school age Bahraini children are able to attend nurseries and kindergarten (Ministry of Education, 1988). These children attend kindergarten for only a few hours a day, then they go home, at which point they have plenty of leisure time.

Research has shown that United States school children spend more time watching television than they do in the classroom, (Price, 1985), and that United States preschoolers spend two to six hours a day in front of television (Lyle and Hoffman, 1972; Friedrich and Stein, 1973; Comstock, 1975; and Singer and Singer, 1981.)

Given the research results about the possibility of promoting prosocial behavior through the medium of television, the inordinate amount of time children spend viewing television could produce greater benefits than has been the case to date. At present, most of the programs Arab children view are not produced locally and thus do not reflect the special characteristics, or address the cultural needs of these children. So not only do Arab Gulf children,

at a stage proven socially impressionable and lack television behavior models that reflect their own culture, these children also spend long hours viewing imported shows with cultural contents and behaviors designed not for them but for the children of the exporting countries.

Although Arab television producers have used television for educational purposes, they still encounter problems in producing and researching such programs, especially those aimed at preschool children (Al-Buhooth, reported by Abbas, 1983). Iftah Ya Simsim marks the beginning of carefully developed programs based on the local Arab culture and the needs of Arab children. This study maintains that Iftah Ya Simsim ~~it~~ should serve as a paradigm to Arab television industry programming that reflects socially valued behaviors. It should be a building block for the observant implementation of future educational programs.

Although, like Sesame Street, it was aimed at the disadvantaged children, Iftah Ya Simsim, being the only educational and well balanced program available to Arab children, has been very popular with children of different ages and different segments of Arab society. However, despite the fact that Iftah Ya Simsim has attracted preschoolers and other children, no data is yet available about its effect and influence on children's attitudes and

behaviors. Parsol (in Alkhulaifi, 1984), presented evidence that children who viewed Sesame Street imitated characters and children in the show, interacted more positively and cooperated with parents and other children, and used positive and negative reinforcers. Researchers cannot generalize these findings to apply to Iftah Ya Simsim, because of the differences in social context in the United States and that in the Arab World. Formative research that was done by a team from AGSJPPPI, was mainly concerned with the pre-production and the production phases of the experimental show (Abbas, 1983). On the other hand, records of the production institution (not dated) indicate that a research team was assigned to evaluate the effect of the program on the Gulf States' preschool children (Alkhulaifi, 1984). No date was given to the assignment. However, the research was completed, according to Alkhulaifi, but no documented results are available.

Preproduction tests were administered by AGSJPPPI in 1978 to preschoolers to investigate their mental and behavioral development in order to present them with material that would be challenging and feasible (Ridha, 1979). After eight years of broadcasting, Iftah Ya Simsim has only initiated two or three studies to evaluate its effects on the target audience (Al-Yusif, 1986). On the

whole, television's potential for influencing children's behavior is almost unexplored in the Arab Gulf States, despite the fact that social and economical conditions in the Gulf have been changing very rapidly, reflecting on the use of television which in itself has become one of the factors of change in the social arena. Yet the effects of television have not been identified and measured. Research is most needed in this area.

Limitations of the Study

- The study was limited to two selected areas of Bahrain, where daycare centers were available. Thus, the district distribution was affected by the availability of daycare centers.
- The sample for the study was derived from kindergartens, limiting the experiment to children who attend kindergarten and excluding those who do not. Although only 16% of Bahraini children attend kindergarten, they only did so for less than half a day. They spend the rest of the day at home with plenty of leisure time.
- In selecting the segments of the edited program that portray socially valued behaviors, the researcher subjectively chose the kinds of behaviors preschoolers are ex-

pected to display within the cultural context of Bahrain.

--The behaviors investigated in this study were limited to those which occur in the classroom. Behaviors outside the classroom (e.g., on the playground or at home) were excluded.

Definition of Terms

Aggression--Acts of physical or verbal violence aimed at another person. Accidental injuries are not considered aggressive. The aggressive behavior was sometimes referred to in this study as negative social behavior or antisocial behavior.

Arab Gulf States--Arab countries located on the western coast of the Arabian Gulf, comprising Iraq, Kuwait, Bahrain, Qatar, Oman, United Arab Emirates, and Saudi Arabia. In this study, they are sometimes referred to as the Gulf Area.

Arab Gulf States Joint Program Production Institute

(AGSJPPPI)--An organization that was formed by Arab Gulf States. It includes Bahrain, Iraq, Kuwait, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Oman, and the United Arab Emirates. The Institute's center is in Kuwait. The aim of this organization is to promote and produce carefully

selected and studied cultural and educational television and radio programs that could be distributed and broadcast in the whole Arab world.

Children's Television Workshop (CTW)--The originator and producer of Sesame Street among other educational programs.

Imitation--Refers to Kohlberg's definition of the term as "the reproduction of discrete responses." It could occur in the presence of the model or in its absence (Kohlberg; Mowrer, in Bandura, 1971).

Modeling--Refers to what Comstock et al. (1978) calls a psychological mechanism through which children learn behaviors or actions by observing others in life or on images, including on television.

Pre-schoolers--Children between the ages of 4-6 years who are attending daycare centers or kindergarten in preparation for elementary school.

Prosocial Behaviors--"Pro" is a Latin prefix that means "on behalf of" (Barton, 1986). Thus, prosocial behaviors suggest "behaviors that are socially desirable and which benefit another person or society at large" (Rushton, 1982). Prosocial behavior in this study is sometimes referred to as positive social behavior or socially valued behavior.

Television--The term "television" or "TV" was used in the study in a wider sense to include specially edited videotapes used for experimental purposes.

Violence-- Used in this study to refer to overt expression of physical force by an individual or group against another individual or group.

Hypotheses

1. Children who view the program that models prosocial behavior are more likely to display cooperative behavior after viewing than children who view the program which contains negative social behavior.
2. Children who view the program that models negative social behavior are more likely to display negative behavior after viewing than children who view the program with prosocial behavior.
3. Boys and girls display cooperative behavior differently. Girls are more likely to display cooperation after viewing than boys.
4. Boys and girls display aggressive behavior differently. Boys are more likely to display aggression after viewing than girls.

5. Five and six year olds display cooperative behavior differently.
6. Five and six year olds display aggressive behavior differently.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter presents the review of literature in four sections. The first deals with the literature on cognitive development of the child, which stresses cognitive stages that affect the individual's interaction with the surrounding environment. The second section presents discussion of the research on social development and social learning theory, which would appear to be particularly relevant to television research. The third section reviews the literature on the effect of television on children: the television's general impact, its effect on prosocial and antisocial behavior, and socialization. This section also includes a discussion of several variables that might influence the extent to which viewing television affects a child. The last section of this chapter presents literature on the television series, Sesame Street and Iftah Ya Simsim: their goals, their impact on children, successes and failures, similarities and differences.

Cognitive and Intellectual Development

You know also that the beginning is the most important part of any work, especially in the case of a young and tender thing; for that is the time at which the character is being formed and the desired impression is more readily taken.

(Plato, in the Republic, Book II,
in Dorr, 1986, p. 61)

Research on children and television has, typically, reflected cognitive developmental theory and/or social learning theory (Durham, 1984). According to Durham, researchers using the cognitive developmental approach have chosen Piaget's concept of logical operation in an attempt to understand the ability of children to comprehend and interpret televised messages. Piaget's work and research has provided an approach for looking at and understanding the cognitive and intellectual development of children. Accordingly, much of the work which proceeded from Piaget's cognitive developmental theory focused on explaining the stages of cognitive development of children and showing that a young child's thought is qualitatively different from that of an older child or of an adult, and that a child will not understand certain notions, including what s/he sees on television until a certain age level is reached (Singer, 1982). The cognitive developmental theory is also an attempt to explain how children grow and develop in the way

they think about and interact with their physical and social world. A child's intelligence develops, according to Piaget (1954), through the interaction between the child's maturation and his or her environment. This development of children's intelligence is reflected in their ability to understand their surroundings; it also affects the way children at different ages understand and comprehend televised messages (Durham, 1984). Thus Piaget's theory looks at children as active participants in their environment, their learning process and their attempt to understand the world around them. Piaget (1954) identified certain stages children must pass through in their development of logical thinking abilities. These stages do not occur at the same age for all children. The stages relate to how children think about the world in terms of time, space and physical causality (Piaget and Inhelder, 1956). At a certain stage, a child's thinking is characterized by a single approach to the organization of reality. As s/he moves from one stage to another, a child's thinking changes to a way of thinking that is part of the next stage (Schickedanz, Schickedanz and Forsyth, 1982). Each of these stages has an approximate age level, but due to variables such as heredity and environment, the age at one stage can vary from one child to another. However, the

order of the stages remains the same, as each new stage builds on experiences and knowledge obtained in the previous one. The first stage in the development of logical thought is the sensorimotor stage which lasts from birth to about two years of age. At this period, a child's thinking is egocentric; learning occurs through sensory perceptions and motor activities that first center on the child's own body and then on the surrounding objects.

Egocentric thought occurs when children center their thinking on themselves and do not take the other person's perspective into account. This egocentricity is relevant to the social interaction, for children are not likely to be able to understand another's thoughts, emotions or motives if they are unable to realize that the other's perspective might be different from their own (Isler, 1984). Additionally, during this stage, children develop a sense of separateness between themselves and the world around them and learn to react to objects and people immediately present (Durham, 1984). By manipulating the environment, the child gradually learns to coordinate and center on the relationship between his/her body and surrounding objects. In order to understand social interaction, a child must possess the ability to separate him/herself from the other (Isler, 1984). Research on children and television has paid

much attention to the area of cognitive development, for children who are egocentric lack the ability and the necessary skills to interpret and comprehend what they see on television from the character's point of view. Rather a child in the egocentric stage sees what goes on the screen from his/her own perspective. The second stage in Piaget's theory of cognitive development is the preoperational stage, which lasts from two to seven years of age. During this stage, a child begins to develop cognitive reasoning ability, and learns to represent the world symbolically as s/he develops language and mental imagery. At the beginning of this stage, the thinking of a child is still egocentric and is based on immediate perception and direct experience. This trait is illustrated by children's focusing on the visual aspects of television message rather than the content of that message which distinguishes it from other messages (Durham, 1984). At an early phase of this stage, a child can imitate an observed action in the absence of the model, but this imitation, according to Durham is not an exact copy of the event, but rather a reconstitution of it. Gradually, children learn to distinguish between images, words, objects, and persons, and the event they represent. Their ability to direct attention to what is central in a visual image and ignore what is irrelevant increases with age

(Ballard, 1983),. As children move from the stage of preoperational thought to the third stage of concrete operational level of thought, which lasts from the age of seven to the age of 11, they begin to comprehend the invariance of certain characteristics of objects, and are better able to organize their thoughts, which are more stable. They have available all of the necessary abilities: to deal with concepts; to think in terms of classes, relations and numbers; to identify with different options of view; and to understand the concepts of conversation (Durham, 1984). Ward and Wakman in Durham (1984) found that children (9-12 years old) were able to discuss visual message content, and functional distinctions between television advertisement and programs. The children were also able to examine multiple dimensions of television messages. The fourth and last stage of Piaget's theory of cognitive development is the formal operational stage, which appears in early adolescence at age 11 or 12 and lasts until children are able to generate hypotheses and explore systematically a number of alternative solutions for a problem. Children in this stage can think about the form and pattern of reasoning as well as its context, which is why it is referred to as the period of formal thought (Huck, 1979).

The four stages reflect Piaget's definition of intelligence, that is, the ability to adapt to the environment through a process of assimilation , where individuals relate what they perceive to their existing knowledge and understanding, and accommodation, when they modify their reference system to fit new perception to make them congruent with reality (Werner, 1979). At each stage, children organize the information they have into some system, and operate on the basis of that system. A child's experiences with life provide him/her with knowledge and understanding. Cognitive developmentalists see children as being active in their own development. Piaget does not assume that knowledge exists in an external world; instead, knowledge is a result of interaction between the person and the environment (Schickedanz et al, 1982). Children, according to Piaget, are not so much shaped by what others do and say as by how they themselves view the world conceptually, building their knowledge and understanding on their own experiences. Piaget believed that the ability of a child to consider the intentions of others in judging their actions, is one of the most cognitive advances. Piaget (1965) identified two major stages in moral development. He called the first stage a "morality of constraint," and the second stage a "morality of

cooperation." Piaget explained that the young child's morality of constraint was in part a product of relative immaturity. He found that young children, typically those under the age of seven, judge the action of others in terms of the consequences of their behavior rather than of intent. Around the age of seven a child bases his or her moral judgment more on intentions. Comprehension of television content requires the ability to interpret and understand the intent of the message. Television comprehension also requires an understanding of relationships in the social world in conjunction with an understanding of relationships in the physical world. A child below seven years of age, is thus at a great disadvantage regarding comprehension of television content. In addition, Piaget's theory, according to Hunt (in Schickedanz et al, 1983) suggests that children favor moderately new events that they can accommodate. Events that are completely new will require no change in schemas and the child will not benefit from them. However, developmental dimensions, according to Piaget, are not only cognitive or only social and emotional; rather, thoughts and feelings develop together, and a child's social and emotional behavior is a function of his/her social thinking (Israeli, 1981). Werner (1979), posits four distinctive factors that influence cognitive development in Piaget's view: 1)

biological factors; 2) equilibration factors, which allow the child to coordinate multiple activities that result in intelligent behavior and depend on environmental circumstances as well as genetic potential; 3) social factors of interpersonal exchange among children in the socialization process; and 4) factors of educational and cultural transmission, such as language, education, and the value system of a given society. In this respect, Erik Erikson's notion of psychological stages of development comes close to Piaget's view of development, since Erikson feels that both biological and cultural factors must be considered in the development of personality (Irwin and Bushnell, 1980).

Piaget's findings and theory concerning the stages of cognitive development and the concepts of egocentrism and decentration have been used in the study of the development of social cognition. Kohlberg (1969) continued to develop the concept of stages in moral development, and focused on the development of moral judgment. According to Kohlberg, moral behavior is mainly a function of the child's moral judgment stage. Kohlberg described six stages of moral reasoning. These stages develop in an invariant sequence and the rate of moral development increases with age. Development from an egocentric outlook toward social

orientation that includes other people, is related to the ability to distinguish between one's own perspective and the perspective of others. One cannot expect altruistic behavior from a child who does not achieve this ability. As the child moves toward the autonomous level, the chance increases that s/he will be able to understand the situation of another who could be different from him/herself, will be motivated by the needs of the other and will be able to do something for the other.

Role Taking

Selman (1976) studied developmental changes in role-taking, and he identified stages of development in the ability of children to take the perspective of others, that is the ability to perform "social role taking." In stage 0 (4-6 years), children have a sense of self that is separate from others, but do not differentiate between the thoughts and feelings of others and those of themselves. By stage 1 (6-8 years), the child knows that others have their own thoughts based on their own reasoning and that these thoughts may be the same as or different from the child's. Although the child is aware that others may have a different perspective from his/her own, the child still focuses on one perspective only, and does not consider the other. In stage

2 (8-10 years), children are able to reflect their own perspective taking. A child can now think about his/her own thoughts as well as others'. Stages 3 and 4 (12-15) of Selman's model discuss development of social role taking through adolescence and adulthood.

Role taking seems vital to the development of an understanding of social interaction. Hoffman (reported by Isler, 1984), explained that role taking is one of the four broad phases in the development of a cognitive sense of the others. According to Hoffman, the notion of "person permanence" appears approximately at the age of 11 or 12 months. Shortly after that, children develop a sense of others as having inner states that are independent of their own. By middle or late childhood children develop an awareness that others have personal identities and life experiences that extend beyond the immediate situation; a child takes this awareness into account when perceiving another's perspective. While Piaget emphasized logical and physical phenomena, Selman was concerned with cognition in the social realm (Isler, 1984). In applying Selman's model of role taking to television viewing, Durham (1984) explained that understanding people, their motivations, and the consequences of their actions, and the ability to take the role or perspective of another, occurs in a complex

pattern in both social role taking and television viewing. Researchers concerned with children and television have used Selman's model in their attempt to study children's understanding of television messages. Selman's work on role taking is relevant to how children understand televised messages. Research, according to Durham (1984), asserted that role taking is more useful than age-related, non-social cognitive variables in asserting children's understanding of television advertising. As a variable, age and Piagetian cognitive development stages may not add to the research regarding how children comprehend what they see on television as does a variable concerned with social cognition (Durham, 1984). For this reason, this research suggests that role taking or the ability to put oneself in the place of another is a useful construct for examining children's comprehension of television material.

Although many researchers lean on Piaget's theory to discover invariant sequences through which a child's thoughts develop, other researchers have reached conclusions critical of Piaget's methods and findings. One of the assumptions of Piaget's theory is that the stages represent a universal and invariant sequence in development. Ballard (1983) reported that Dasen (1977) pointed out a possible pro-Western cultural bias in Piaget's work. Ballard also

reported Dorr (1980) suggesting that Piagetian notion of cognitive development are good descriptors of some of the ways in which children in Westernized, industrialized, formally educated nations make sense of their world. The cross-cultural Piagetian research should concern itself with two aims, according to Werner (1979). One aim is to verify whether or not the stages and hierarchical ordering hold for children all over the world; the second aim is to identify the situational components that determine whether a particular cognitive operation will be applied. Contrary to other research and in support of Piaget, Salomon (1976) notes that the development of cognitive skills relates closely to the experiences and demands of the culture in which one grows up. However, Saloman explained that while some skills can vary in different cultures, certain skills can be found in a wide variety of cultures. The universal mastery of certain skills, according to Salomon, can be attributed in some cases to the fact that particular skills, like Piagetian concepts, are basic to proper functioning in most human cultures. People may master skills through different experiences which may function on an equivalent basis.

Age and Gender Factors in Social Cognition

One of the important elements that is considered in social cognition is the age factor. According to Piaget, the stages of cognitive development indicate that at a certain age most children function in a certain way. To develop in social cognition, egocentricity has to decline and the child has to develop a role taking skill because social development involves the ability to take the other's perspective into account (Wartella, 1980).

Piaget (1965) suggested that older children have the ability to judge if an act was serious in terms of its physical consequences and in terms of literal rule. Young children have difficulty assuming another person's role because they are still egocentric. Between the ages of three and seven, children learn to identify other people's feelings when they are given a description of a situation and shown a picture. Some researchers believe that at this age, children do not really understand how other people feel; instead, they remember their own feelings in similar situations in the past (Schickedanz et al., 1982). This idea might imply, according to Schickedanz et al. that children's behavior is a matter of self description rather than role taking. Flapan (1968) investigated the relation between what the child sees on the screen and the behavior

s/he displays immediately after viewing. With age children show an increase in the ability to predict their own or their classmates' sociometric ratings.

On the other hand, Dawe (1934) reported that social relations and social adjustment becomes more complex with age, causing difficulties of group adjustment. According to Hartup (in LaGreca and Stark, 1986), children's social behavior becomes more complex over the preschool and through the middle years. Hartup also suggests that the base rate for aggressive behavior may increase during the early years and then decline. Burns and Cavey (in Flapan, 1968) found that younger nursery school children aged 3-5 years judged drawing in terms of what they themselves would feel in the situation, rather than in terms of the cues presented, whereas older nursery school children, aged 5 to 6 years, apparently realized that children depicted in drawings were not experiencing the feelings the subject would feel in such a situation.

Goodenough (in Dawe, 1934) found that difficulties over possessions reaches a maximum frequency between the ages of three and four, while Dawe (1934) found that the youngest children start the most quarrels, but they take a less aggressive role during the actual struggle or offer no resistance to the more violent behavior of older children.

Other studies of empathy, role-taking, and social perception, indicate that these abilities are poorest in preschool children. According to Schickedanz, et al. (1982), one reason younger children do not behave prosocially more often is that they cannot think of alternatives when their desires conflict. As children grow older, they become less self-centered and more experienced in social interactions and are capable of making judgments about how and why people behave as they do (Wartella, 1980).

While La Greca and Stark (1986) suggest that as children grow older, a general increase is observed in their positive peer interaction and a decline in aggressive and negative interaction, other research (Dawe, 1934) states that as children grow older aggressive behavior increases. Beaver, Caille and Murphy (in Walters, Pearce and Dahms, 1957) also found that aggression tends to increase with age from two to four years. After the age of four, the child spends less time in parallel play or solitary play and prefers to play in small groups. With age, children also, according to Flapan (1968) show an increase in empathy and sympathy.

Researchers have also suggested that a variety of prosocial behaviors, cooperativeness, friendliness, helping, kindness generosity, develop and become stronger with the

development of the child's ability to take the role of another (Piaget, 1965; Kohlberg, 1969).

Some researchers also take the gender factor into consideration when studying children's social behavior. In a review of research, Hoffman (in Durham, 1984) suggested that girls are more empathic than are boys. These findings are consistent with those of Walters et al. (1957).

Dawe (1934) investigated and analyzed the quarrels of preschool children as they arise spontaneously in a relatively uncontrolled social environment. She found that boys quarrelled more than girls and they were also more aggressive, and that girls were more affectionate than were boys.

It is clear that sex differences in social behavior are highly complex. Under some conditions, women and girls acted more positively than men and boys; under others, no differences were found (Staub, in Durham, 1984). Some of the differences in behavior, according to Durham, seemed to be the result of differences in what behavior was regarded as sex-appropriate as well as differences in competence.

Social Learning Theory and Research

Bandura's social learning theory, which laid the foundation for research on children and television, is a major shift from Piaget's view of the child's role in cognitive development. While cognitive developmental theory makes the child an active participant in the learning process, the social learning theory views the child as relatively passive individual, who presumably comprehends what is presented on the screen.

Social learning studies are noncognitive, and researchers that use the social learning approach concentrated primarily on the relationships between exposure to a message and behavioral modeling of that message with little attention to the cognitive process involved in comprehending the message (Durham, 1984). Bandura's social learning theory states that adult role modeling plays an important part in child socialization (Bandura, 1973). Most behaviors, according to this theory, are acquired thorough observational learning and maintained through direct reinforcement, and imitation depends mainly on the strength and convention of the model. In addition, social learning theory suggests that behavior and behavioral changes are functions of environmental events rather than a direct

result of developmental stages. Barton (1986) also reports that children's prosocial behavior is affected by a variety of incentive conditions and social learning experiences. Visual imagery, especially during the early years when children's verbal skills are weak, is an important factor in observational learning (Bandura, 1977).

The Role of Modeling in the Learning Process

According to Bandura (1977) human behavior is conveyed through exposure to social models. Children often patterned their behavior after the models presented to them verbally or pictorially. Accordingly, much social learning occurs when the individual observes performances by real life models and sees how new behaviors are structured. Therefore, a child can acquire positive behavior by imitating natural models that take part in the child socialization process (Israeli, 1981). Israeli claims that imitation is also learned. The child learns the imitations response at a very early age and generalizes it to different situations in different developmental stages. Rushton (1982) suggests that children are likely to learn by watching others. Rushton's idea is that what is observed is imitated. By watching others and then imitating what they have seen, children can learn the rules of social behavior.

Social learning theory also assumes that children learn the moral standards, norms, and behavior characteristics of their society by being directly taught, by learning from the examples of their parents and other socializing agents, and by identifying with and adopting characteristics of people around them (Durham, 1984).

To Bandura, modeling is an essential aspect of learning. Modeling helps the individual's observation because of its informative nature. Bandura and Walters (1963) note that imitation is also a necessary part of the learning process. They noted that learning can be made easier by providing appropriate social models. The required behaviors can be demonstrated by models who are skillful and competent, and who can influence the successful reproduction of some complex behaviors (Bandura, 1977).

The common explanation for the effect of a model is that a model reminds observers of the desirable behavior and reinforces an already existing attitude toward the performance of behavior. The role of the model here is to bring the behavioral norms to the attention of the observers and to release any inhibitions which previously prevented the performance of that behavior (Israeli, 1981).

However, learning through observation is also mediated by the complexity of the behavior and the ability of the

observer to process the information. It is important to consider that individuals have had different experiences which make them perceive the modeled behavior differently (Bandura, 1977). However, the purpose of an observational learning theory is not to socially facilitate the established responses, rather such theory explains how observers of a model can obtain a novel response that they never made before (Bandura, 1971). According to Bandura, when an individual observes a behavior displayed by a model, without the observer performing the responses s/he can acquire the modeled responses at the same time that they are occurring. To reproduce this behavior in the absence of the external modeling cues, the individual must retain the original observational inputs in some symbolic way.

Skinner, according to Schickedanz, et al. (1982) tried to explain how new behaviors can be acquired. According to Skinner, the new behavior is taught by taking a behavior that is frequently performed and reinforcing variations of it that are more like the desired behavior.

Several experiments have also shown that exposure to the same model can produce changes in specific behaviors (Bandura, 1971).

Other research has pointed to the fact that modeling can produce three kinds of effect depending on the different

processes through which the behavior occurs. First observers can acquire new patterns of behavior by watching others performing the behavior. Second, observing the modeling can strengthen or weaken the inhibition of previously learned responses. Observers may increase performance of formerly inhibited behavior after observing models that exhibit the inhibited behavior without adverse consequences.

Third, the behavior of others can also serve as cues that facilitate performance of already existing responses of the same kind of behavior. Miller and Dollard (reported by Bandura, 1971), have gone further to suggest that in order for imitative learning to occur, observers must have a motivation to act, and modeling cues for the required behavior must be provided.

The influence of a situation on individual behavior depends on how the individual perceives that situation and attaches meaning to it (Durham, 1984). A large amount of research (Lickona; Mischel and Mischel; Staub, in Durham, 1984) suggests that various aspects of situations affect positive behavior. Since people are different from one another, few situations will have the same effect on the behavior of different people.

Additionally, some forms of modeling may be more powerful than others in commanding attention, for example, according to Bandura (1977), children do not need to be urged to watch television, when, as a matter of fact, they will not pay the same attention to oral or written reports on the same activity. Bandura's studies clearly demonstrate that children can also learn aggressive responses simply by observing an aggressive model and that they are likely to increase their prosocial behavior as a result of watching others perform it. He indicated, however, that some models and modeling situations are more effective than others in getting the child's attention.

Schickedanz et al. (1982) presented the following situations through which children learn to be prosocial: 1) by watching others model prosocial behavior; 2) by being instructed in how to be prosocial; 3) by having behavior reinforced and 4) by being with other people so that they can practice prosocial behavior.

Hartup and Coates (in Quanty and Davis, 1974), reported that children who observed other children perform sharing behavior were more likely to share than children who had not. One significant function of parents, peers, and schools is to provide the child with opportunities for different experiences and social interactions. However,

according to Rushton (1982), while adults have the ability to differentiate between who is appropriate and who is inappropriate to learn from, young children do not. The inability of children to understand situations and to consider the conditions of others, has also an influence on their imitation of the modeled behavior.

A developmental perspective suggests that children will also be different from adults in the way they judge and understand prosocial messages on television and that they will also be different among themselves in their abilities to cognitively interpret these messages (Durham, 1984). Moreover, behaviors considered prosocial, have traditionally been identified by adult researchers and adult program developers. According to Wartella (1980) children may have different thought about what is regarded as prosocial behavior, how to recognize it on television and in real life, and which situations call for prosocial actions. Research on the development of social cognition presents evidence that children gradually develop an understanding of other people, and the motivation and consequences of human actions (Wartella, 1980).

Unlike social learning theory, cognitive developmental theory suggests that children do not imitate a behavior unless they have already enacted the behavior before the

modeling. Herbold (1984) presented Piaget's view that schemas which are schematic outlines of activities, determine what behaviors can or cannot be imitated. Piaget points out that when models present new behavioral acts or even familiar responses that children have acquired but are not performing at that moment, children do not respond in an imitative way. Imitation is thus restricted to reproduction of behaviors that children have already obtained and that they have exhibited immediately before they see the model perform them.

Conversely, Bandura (1977) reports that infants acquire new skills by observation and can transfer these skills to new conditions. However, young children, according to Bandura, can model behavior immediately after observation. Delayed imitation needs higher cognitive functioning, which requires taking ideas and transferring them into actions. People can refine the behavior by trial, feedback, and attention to segments of the behavior that have not been fully learned.

According to Piaget (in Bandura 1971), a child begins systematic trial and error performance of responses until s/he achieves good matches to new modeled patterns. These changes come through coordination of visual and sensory motor schemas and differentiation of the child's own action

from those of others. Piaget suggested that imitation is an active and natural trend in human infancy, and this trend is necessary for the development of cognitive and social behavior. Bandura (in Schickedanz et al., 1982) on the other hand, suggests that imitation of a model depends on several processes:

First, the child must observe the modeled behavior; second, the child must retain a model's behavior in order to be able to imitate it. Retention is easier when the important aspects of the modelled behaviors are verbalized (Meichenbaum, in Schickedanz et al., 1982), and when the observer tries to teach the observed actions to someone else (Rosenham; Rosenham and White, in Schickedanz, et al., 1982); third, the child must be physiologically able to reproduce the behavior.

A great deal of television research suggests that modeling is the process through which children learn from television (Comstock et al., 1978). However, the research also suggests that children's comprehension of what they see can influence the learning process.

The notion of children as passive viewers of television regards children as simply receivers of the televised messages. This assumption is in contradiction with the current psychological view which regards the child as an

active receiver of his/her world (Wartella, 1980). Research on children's understanding of television messages stresses the fact that children bring different cognitive skills and social experiences to the television viewing situation (Durham, 1984). These skills and experiences influence how children perceive and understand the televised material.

Reinforcement, Punishment and Reward

The social learning approach concentrates on specific principles of learning: reinforcement, punishment, and reward, and how they affect what children learn and how they develop (Durham, 1984). According to Durham, children were thought to repeat behaviors they had observed; those which were reinforced continued to be performed, whereas those which were not reinforced dropped out.

On the other hand, social learning theory (Bandura, 1965) differentiates between obtaining and performing a matching behavior. According to this view, imitative learning can occur through discriminative observation of modeled events and accompanying cognitive activities in the absence of external reinforcement. It is evident, however, that exposure to modeling stimuli is not in itself enough to produce imitative learning since not all stimulation is necessarily observed by individuals (Bandura, 1965).

Bandura claimed that reinforcement in a learning mechanism is not efficient enough to account for children's observational learning. According to Bandura (1971), when the modeling stimuli attracts attention through physical means in an effective way, the additional positive reinforcements does not affect the level of observational learning. Schickedanz et al (1982) suggest that incentive conditions must exist to motivate the child's imitation. Children imitate an action either because it is interesting or essentially rewarding, or because the model was rewarded or punished.

Punishment and reward that accompany the action determine to a large degree the effects of modeled behavior in Bandura's view (1971).

Strayhorn and Strain (1986) presents the idea that aggressive and cooperative behavior in children may be compatible, in the sense that reinforcing behavior of either of these two types simultaneously weakens behaviors of the other type.

In considering the effects of the reinforcement or punishment of the model, Schickedanz et al. (1982), suggest that researchers must differentiate between the performance and obtaining of the modeled behavior. Children, according to Schickedanz et al, obtain modeled behavior whether or not

the model receives reinforcement.

Bandura (1965) conducted a study in which preschoolers watched an aggressive adult model "Rocky" beating up a large Bobo doll. After displaying the behavior, the researcher presented the following reinforcement. Rocky was 1) given cookies and a Seven-Up; 2) thrashed and 3) neither punished nor rewarded. Children who saw the model punished, performed less aggressive acts than those who observed the reward or no punishment situation. But even children who saw the punishment had acquired the behavior observed; when they were offered rewards to show what Rocky did, they imitated the aggression at the same high level as those who had seen the model rewarded or with no consequences. Although these children acquired behavior, they did not display it until they were offered a reward to do so.

Schickedanz et al. (1982) suggest that even when a model is not reinforced for aggression, a child may learn the response and be aggressive when he or she thinks it will lead to reinforcement. A study by Elliot and Vasta (1970) involved kindergarten, first, and second grade children. The study presented two questions: 1) does modeling influence sharing, and 2) is modeling plus reinforcement and symbolization more influential than modeling alone? Each child was given a bag of candies and was told that the

experimenter was collecting candies for a child who had no money. Then children were presented with a modeling condition on video tape. The tape showed a little boy who share his candies with a less fortunate child. After the boy donated some of his candies, the experimenter did one of three things: 1) took the children to the classroom (modeling only with no consequences); 2) gave the boy a Teddy bear and said, "That was nice, here is a toy for you to keep" (modeling and reward), or 3) gave the boy a Teddy bear and said, "This is nice, here is a toy for you to keep. If you do something nice for someone else, it means you are a good boy (modeling, reward and reinforcement). The results showed that all of the children exposed to the model shared significantly more than the children in the control group, who did not see the modeling. In addition, children who saw the model being rewarded and were told why he was being rewarded shared more candies than children who saw only the model or saw the model rewarded with no reinforcement. It has also been suggested that reinforcement is more effective if the child understands the reason for receiving a reward (Israeli, 1981) and that imitation seems to be stronger when children perceive the modeled aggression as justified, and children seem less likely to imitate aggression when the model is punished for

it (Bandura, Ross and Ross, 1963b). However, since children, according to Price (1985), may expect an aggressive model to be punished, both the reward and no consequences are viewed as no punishment conditions.

The Impact of Television on Children

General Overview

This instrument can teach, it can illuminate. Yes, and it can even inspire, but it can do so only to the extent that humans are determined to use it to those ends; otherwise, it is merely lights and wires in a box.

(Edward Murrow, in Moody, 1980, p. 176)

Television has become a crucial topic to any discussion of contemporary values and behaviors (Gregoire, 1979). By the mid-1960s, television became for many children an environment in itself with the variety of programs it provides and the availability of these programs (Cater, 1975). As television has developed, so too in recent years has interest in television's effects. This interest reflects a trend in the study of cognitive and perceptual development, as well as social development (Collins, 1982). One significant area that has been investigated is that of how television affects standards of behavior, how it reinforces behavioral models of right and wrong, good and bad; its impact on the acquisition of social norms; and the

potential of television characters for conveying their models of behaviors to the viewers. Although the primary function of television has been to provide entertainment (Mayes and Valentine, 1979), it must be recognized that entertainment can teach a child to imitate particular values and behaviors that appear in a program.

The research on television and children has two major points of view, according to Fowles and Horner (1975). The first focuses on television as it is manipulated towards educational ends. The second point of view regards television as a powerful and dangerous force in the lives of young children and identifies mainly its negative effects on children's social behavior. Despite this second point of view, the research has not indicated which kinds of programs or how much viewing time yielded negative effects (Cater, 1975). When looked at from the perspective of the social development of children, television, according to Collins (1982), can convey a unique variety and volume of models of attitudes, behaviors, and expectations about social life that children would otherwise be unlikely to encounter. Singer and Singer (1981) also agree with Collins that with the benefit of television, children will be able to discover interesting things about the world that they have not seen before, and probably would not see without this medium.

Mukerji (in Abbas, 1983) confirmed the idea that a young child may never see in his own limited family circle the rich diversity among people. Television can help the child to accept that each person is unique. He also agreed that television affects the quality of children's concepts and values.

Ellen Mee (British Broadcasting Corporation Report, 1974) said that although children may, after one viewing of a television program, become aware of the presence of, and be interested in, what they might otherwise not have noticed, it is important to bear in mind the positive benefit of this awareness. Perhaps the greatest benefit which children got from radio and television broadcasting, lies according to the BBC report in the different doors on the world which it opens for them. Radio and television broadcasting offers children the opportunity to discover themselves, and to become aware of the wide range of possibilities, pleasures and experiences which they can get from life. Thus, television can be a wonderful teacher, in that it can show children what life is like around the world and how it has been throughout history (Singer, Singer and Zuckerman, 1981). However, according to Singer et al., many children do not realize that most television programs are meant to be entertaining rather than instructional and

children may not understand that a program can portray real as well as unreal things. Additionally, Comstock (1975) argues that television affects children's attitudes and pool of information, especially on topics where the child's environment does not provide experience or other sources of information. Charren (1979), too, pointed out that television has a great capacity for helping children understand themselves, their feelings, and their world. However, educational programming, according to Fowles and Voyat (1974), does not influence development in a direct way; rather it can enhance and enrich it through learning facilities at its disposal. And as children differ in the way they learn, television has the dual role of reaching a large number of children, while at the same time acknowledging and catering to their differences. In addition, television can teach and entertain in an immediate and intensive way that no other medium can do (Charren, 1979).

Comstock (1975) explained that television programs include a variety of content elements of which violence is only one, and which can certainly stimulate behaviors which otherwise would not be expressed or would be expressed at a lower level. Bilski (in Abbas, 1983) also argued that television is not a mere inducer of passivity because it

encourages children to discover things, think, and listen. He also said that television encourages thought and consideration for others, and thus enriches the child's personality. On the other hand, Schramm, Lyle and Parker (1961) explained that television has an advantage over other media devices due to its ability to communicate through image, motion, color and voice in a way that attracts children. The vast majority of research regarding television's effects suggest that television does have the capacity to shape a variety of both prosocial and antisocial behaviors in children (Goldberg and Gorn, 1979). Social learning theorists attempted to explain this effect and concluded that behaviors in children reflect the behaviors they observe not only in life but also in symbolic models (Goldberg and Gorn, 1979). Leifer (1973) presents the argument of Murray, Rubinstein and Comstock that children learn and imitate both desired and undesired behavior they see on television. Rather than changing viewers' beliefs, Gerbner and Gerbner (in Ridley, 1984) suggest that television is a cultivating force which facilitates and reinforces the existing norms of society. On the other hand Gregoire (1979) pointed out that although television will not suddenly replace traditional values with new ones, it is possible that within a relatively short time, new and

different developments in television contents will have implications for the future of all values. This new fact indicates that television can be a factor in changing the values of society. Accordingly, it is likely that the social behavior of young children within an experimental setting can be influenced by recent, short media exposure to social behaviors of others. Stein, Friedrich and Vondracek (1972) argued that there is growing evidence that, in a naturalistic situation, repeated exposure of young children to the same behavior on television will influence both antisocial and prosocial behavior. According to Heusman (1982), experiments by McCall et al. indicated that children as young as two years find it easy to imitate televised behaviors, and that some imitation was observed in even younger children. Producers of shows for younger children, according to Leifer (1973) have little understanding of the more effective methods for using television to increase positive social behavior in young children and to add to their knowledge and education. It should be noted that television must never be designed to replace or compete with other educational experiences. Lesser (1972) pointed out that educational programming can only aspire to complimenting what is available for the child.

Singer and Singer (1981) present the idea that television may be doing more for the educationally disadvantaged than any educational system. It is also, according to Singer and Singer, providing a new cultural background, around which children can organize their imaginative experience. In addition, Singer and Singer suggest that if we examine one year in the life of a preschooler, and look at the effect of television on the child's life, any changes as a result of television viewing might have a greater effect if we compare them to the effect of television viewing on an older child or adult within a comparable period.

On the other hand, Bandura (1969) demonstrated that both children and adult acquire attitudes, emotional responses and complex patterns of behavior through exposure to pictorially presented models. Considering the influence of pictorial modeling and the large amount of time people spend watching television, this medium can play an important role in shaping behavior and social attitudes. Social learning theory provides the dominant theoretical framework in accounting for television's socialization's effects. Television models reach vast numbers of people and are an important force in social learning theory. The main focus of this theory is on behavior. As Bandura (1965) observed,

much behavior is learned through observation of the actions of others. It is also suggested that the context in which television presents behaviors influences observational learning (Greenberg et al., in Price, 1984). Social learning theorists argue that motivational factors also affect a viewer's observational learning as much as does justification for the behavior observed (Baxter and Kaplan, 1983).

Liebert (in Herbold, 1984) described observational learning as a simple three-part process; 1) exposure, 2) acquisition and 3) acceptance. Acquisition and acceptance of behaviors observed on television has been discussed and presented in different studies on violence and children's aggression after viewing aggressive programs (Leifer and Roberts, 1972; Stein et al., 1972). However, it is more intriguing to note, according to Bandura (1965), that the occurrence of positive consequences also increases the possibility that the behavior associated with them will be performed by the viewer. Bandura argued that any viewer, especially the younger one, will learn from situations most similar to his or her own. Leifer (1973) also suggested that regularly produced television fare can influence children when the effects are sought in situations and behaviors similar to those presented on television. But it

is also evident, according to Leifer, that television provides children with many examples of behavior without any direct attempt to influence the child, but some programs present these examples because the producer intends children to acquire and perform them. Comstock (1975), on the other hand, suggested that the behavior observed on television can be learned by young children in the absence of immediate practice or reinforcement. Such learning occurs with a variety of behaviors, both socially desirable and undesirable.

In presenting the conclusions of the review of the research done by the Surgeon General's Advisory Committee on Television and Social Behavior in 1972, Winter (1980) indicated a causal relationship between television violence and subsequent aggressive behavior, while Lesser (1974) indicates that a considerable evidence shows that children do learn by watching and listening to others even in the absence of reinforcement and overt practice. Thus, television vastly increased opportunities for modeling.

Lyle and Hoffman (1972) reported that first graders were likely to use television's content as a model for social play, to dream about and be frightened by what they had seen on television. Considering that children learn through imitation, it is expected that children will imitate

what they see on television, good and bad. For this reason Peel et al. (1979) suggest the danger of showing children behaviors that we wish them to avoid. Another danger of portraying negative behaviors on television is that the portrayal may give children ideas they had not previously considered. It is best, according to Peel et al., to focus on clear messages about what to do, and to concentrate on portraying positive behaviors by creating strong, attractive images of the desired behaviors. Another reason why care should be taken about portraying fear, anger, and violence on television is that children may process only the visual portion of the antisocial segment. Furthermore, young children have very unclear ideas about what is real and what is fantasy (Surgeon General's Report, 1972) even if producers tried to label the behavior as one to be avoided.

Cartoons as Behavioral Models

The research notes that children borrow most of the fantasy figures from television characters, especially Batman, Superman, Wonder Woman and Bionic Woman (Singer and Singer, 1981). From Sesame Street, children are more likely to adopt Cookie Monster as a make believe character than some of the more benign muppets on the show, according to Singer and Singer. Even realistic television characters

have an unrealistic edge. Isler (1984) pointed out that the behavior of television characters is constrained by the kind of show in which they appear: drama, comedy, soap opera, etc. These constraints are unlikely to happen in real life where people instead can and must modify their behavior according to situational factors other than genre. Some research (Leifer and Roberts, 1977) suggests that more human, rather than cartoon or fantasy models would be more effective in influencing child viewers. Yet studies by Bandura, et al. (1963b), and Stein et al. (1972) demonstrate that cartoons have the ability to teach social behavior. Cartoons and muppet shows in which animals or inanimate objects such as letters and numbers act as human beings capture the preschooler's attention (Alkhulaifi, 1984). Adults often regard cartoons as harmless fantasy, but research findings disagree. Children in preschool who watch violent cartoons have proven the most aggressive (Singer and Singer, in Price 1984). Research also shows that televised cartoon violence hinders the education of prosocial behavior by teaching young children social and antisocial behaviors, and by preventing their learning of altruistic and self-regulating behaviors. In a study by Bandura, Ross and Ross (1963a), the subjects were divided into four groups: group A watched a real life aggression; group B watched the same

model portraying aggression but on film; group C watched an aggressive cartoon; and group D watched nothing (control group).

The results showed that children who had viewed the violent cartoon (group C) exhibited more imitative physical and verbal aggression than children in the control group. The children who had viewed the violent cartoon also exhibited more non-imitative physical and verbal aggression than the control group but it was not considered a significant difference.

Hapkiewiz and Roden according to Price (1985), found that children shared less with their peers after they had viewed a cartoon filled with aggression.

Stein et al. (1972) presented an experiment that showed nursery school children being more aggressive in their play after viewing cartoons.

Ellis and Sekyra (1972) found that after watching violent cartoons, the physical aggression of first graders increased significantly. A study in 1980 by Singer and Singer found that violent cartoons increased aggressive behavior levels of preschoolers.

Freidrich and Stein (1973) did an extensive study on the effects of cartoon violence on aggression, prosocial, and self regulating behavior with preschool children. They

found that the children's tolerance of delay and obedience to rules decreased after they viewed cartoons with aggressive content.

How Much Is Too Much: Television as a Time Consumer

According to the Surgeon General's Report (1972), studies showed that most parents do not seem to restrict the amount of time their children spend in front of a television set, nor do they control what they should not see. The lack of parental guidance and control of the time a child spends in front of television led children to arrange their daily routine around the television schedule (Lyle and Hoffman, 1972), school, sleep and television (Gregoire, 1979). About 96% of the homes in the United States have one or more television sets (Cater, 1975) and Singer et al., 1981) that are on for more than six hours a day, according to Cater.

According to Comstock (1975), most children watch some television every day. The amount of time spent viewing increases during the elementary years then decreases during high school (Comstock, 1975). Stein et al. (1972) estimated that preschoolers watch an average of more than seven hours a week of cartoons, a fact of stunning impact when given that cartoons are considered among the most violent of television programs. The estimated average daily amount of

viewing for preschoolers ranges somewhere from two hours to six hours (Lyle and Hoffman, 1972; Friedrich and Stein, 1973; Comstock, 1975; and Singer and Singer, 1981), and that the average weekly amount is somewhere between 25 to 72 hours per week (Singer and Singer, 1981; Charren, 1979). Another survey of a number of studies from the United States, Britain, Japan, West Germany and Iraq (reported by Abbas, 1983) concluded that the average daily time spent by children viewing television in these countries is as follows: 0 - 3 year olds, 45 minutes; 3 - 6 year olds, 2 hours; 6 - 15 year olds, 2-4 hours. Ramzy (1979) reported that the time spent watching television by an Egyptian child ranges from three to four hours per day during holidays and one to two hours per day on school days. Minton (1972) found that by the age of three, American children spend more time watching television than listening to stories, while Huck (1979) pointed out that children spend more time watching television than they do in school, and by the time the child is five, s/he is likely to spend more time watching television than in the classroom during his or her four years in college (Looney, 1971). By the time children finish high school, they will have spent, on the average, about 12,000 hours in school and about 15,000 hours watching television, which is more than the time a child spends on

any other activity except sleep (Lesser, 1974).

Children clearly spend more time viewing television than engaging in conversation with adults or siblings (Singer, 1982). In addition, in a study by Singer and Singer (1981), a large percentage of the viewing time of the sample in the study over a year of observation was devoted mainly to adult programming. This is one of the issues which the research has been concerned with. The concern is not only that children watch a lot of television, but also that they are not the target audience of most programs they view and which are mainly designed for older audiences (Roberts, 1986).

Television and Aggressive Behavior

Considering the amount of time children spend watching television and the kind of programs they view, the potential relationship between television and children's behavior is becoming more and more a concern of many parents, educators, psychologists and others, as much of the content of programs is becoming more violent. Imitation of televised aggressive behavior by young children has become the subject of many investigations. Although a number of studies have not been able to find a causal link between viewing television and aggression in children or adolescents, other studies claim

to have found such a relationship. Children seem to learn and imitate complex behavior and modes of interaction portrayed on television, whether they are prosocial (Bogatz and Ball, 1971) or aggressive (Bandura et al., 1963b). In fact, Bandura et al. (1963a) found that a television model had the same effect as a live model on nursery school children's aggressive responses. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that learning is retained by children months after viewing a new filmed aggressive behavior (Price, 1985). It appears that observational learning and change in attitudes are the most possible explanations to television's effect on aggressive behavior, according to Pearl (1984).

Gerbner (in Honig, 1983) pointed out that the average prime time hour contained eight violent incidents, and the average hour of cartoons, 17. Ironically, children's programming contains more violence than adult programming. About 98% of all cartoon programs contain violent episodes, and the frequency of violence in children's programs is six times greater than in adult programs.

Singer and Singer (1981) concluded that it is likely that after viewing television, preschoolers will show aggressive behavior at school. It is also possible that they will show signs of anger or other dysphoric moods or uncooperative behavior with adults. Gouranson (in Comstock,

1975), suggested that children learn new aggressive behaviors through exposure to realistic portrayals of aggression on television or in film. The extent to which a child performs aggressive behavior that s/he learned from the media depends largely on how much s/he believes in the effectiveness of aggression in attaining his or her goal. The mass media, however, present aggression as a highly effective form of behavior, according to Comstock (1975). Furthermore, aggressive models not only provide examples for learning, they also reduce children's inhibitions about performing aggressive behavior they know about but heretofore refrained from. The obtained motivations of an aggressive model have also been found to be effective in tracking aggression especially among older children (Price, 1985). The research has shown that preschoolers displayed the same amount of aggression after watching a live human model, or a film of the same model, or a model dressed as a cat (Bandura et al., 1963a). Bandura's studies clearly demonstrated that children can learn aggressive behavior simply by observing an aggressive model. Children may learn the response even when the model is not reinforced for aggression when they think it will lead to reinforcement.

Bandura et al. (1963b) stated that children who have been exposed to aggressive models, behave more aggressively

when placed later in a situation with objects the models have used violently. Bandura depends mainly on the findings of the laboratory research based on social learning theory, which he claims to be relevant to real life because different surveys agree with it. At the same time, Bandura employs a definition of aggression that is broad and not limited to serious, law-breaking behavior that causes personal injury and destruction of property (Comstock, 1975).

Correlational studies, on the other hand, have demonstrated a positive relationship between the amount of violent television viewed by children and the level of aggression they display. These studies suggested that viewing violent programs not only disinhibits aggressive behavior in viewers, but also can lead to a greater tolerance in viewers for real life aggression (Gouranson, in Comstock, 1975). However, experimental studies have presented the most challenging evidence that showed a causal link between television violence and viewer aggression (Schickedanz et al., 1982). Friedrich and Stein (1973) showed three groups of nursery school children 20 minutes of television programs of three types: antisocial cartoons, prosocial programs, and neutral films. Children who watched aggressive programs declined in rule obedience, persistence,

and tolerance for delay when observed in play. They also showed more aggression than those who watched the other programs. But only those who had been rated initially as above average in aggression, displayed aggression in play situations after viewing the aggressive programs.

Andison (in Price, 1985) examined the findings of 67 studies that were conducted between 1956 and 1976, using data collected from more than 30,000 persons. Seventy-seven percent of the studies showed that aggression increased after exposure to televised aggression, 20% produced null results, and less than five percent showed decreased aggression following exposure to television violence.

Kniveton and Stephenson (in Bandura, 1973), found that children who viewed aggressive modeling imitated the aggressive action more than children in the control group, who had not been exposed to filmed aggression. This imitation happened regardless of whether or not these children had previously played in the situation portrayed in the film.

Leifer (1975) studied the effect of television on children's behavior. She argued that preschoolers will view a particular aggressive act in an unfamiliar environment, and then generally react to other forms of aggression in their normal preschool environment; the same preschoolers,

however, will not as easily generalize prosocial actions. The reason for this, according to Leifer, may be attributed to the fact that aggressive displays are presented in a more attractive format on television, or are more interesting, promoting children to be more attentive to them, and therefore learn more from them than from prosocial acts. Or else, said Leifer, children have a well developed cognitive schema for aggression and so more easily identify with and learn from aggressive displays and generalize them (Leifer, 1975). Moreover, Singer and Singer (1981) pointed out that it is not only likely that children will engage in aggressive acts after watching violence on television, but, according to the research of the social learning theorists, it is also likely that exposure to examples of how human beings can hurt each other in various situations can facilitate aggressive behavior. Singer and Singer argued further that television not only showed how to hurt others, but that it reduced the sensitivity to pain, and provided basic moral support for violence because the "good guy" often used violence to beat the "bad guy" (Singer and Singer, 1981), and to reach prosocial goals (Schickedanz et al., 1982). Leifer (1974) also pointed to the fact that through television children see different ways of hurting others; they see various techniques to solve disagreements

and achieve desired goals, and the techniques are displayed in attention getting and emotionally laden situations. They also see that the "bad guys" may not succeed when they use violent techniques, but that heroes and heroines do. Thus, they see that violence is justified and rewarded if the motives are socially acceptable.

On the contrary, the catharsis theory predicted that aggression decreases after viewing violence on television. To the catharsis theory, the need or desire to be aggressive is dissolved by watching television violence (Pearl, 1984). This theory is not confirmed by the findings of early laboratory research, which pointed to an increase in aggressive behavior after exposure to an aggressive model, as well as imitative and nonimitative aggression in play situations (Bandura et al., 1963a). Other research also held that exposure to television violence provides a catharsis for aggressive feelings and could lead to a decreased desire to hurt others (Honig, 1983). According to Lesser (1974) some educators claim that when a child views aggression, s/he will become less aggressive. Others claim the opposite, that a child becomes aggressive after watching aggression. Nevertheless, no matter how much the concern over the amount of violence, the idea of abolishing all violent scenes from television programming does not seem

practical. According to a report by the BBC (1974), a great proportion of violence to be seen on television occurs in news and current affairs programs. To exclude all scenes of violence from the screen would not only falsify the picture of life presented to the viewers, but also involve issues of suppression and censorship. It is, however, possible to produce programs with violent content but within a meaningful context. According to Singer (1984), such programs can convey important matters about the human conditions in a manner that elevates rather than diminishes the viewer.

Television and Prosocial Behavior

Television researchers have long been concerned about the amount of violence on television and its effect on children's behavior. Their studies have paid less attention to other issues concerning the impact of the medium, such as its cognitive implications, its role in shaping social values, its role in the education of the child and in socialization.

However, television researchers have recently paid more attention to examining the desirable prosocial effects of the medium. One can argue that if television has the potential to teach violent behavior, there is no reason to

believe that it cannot carry and convey prosocial messages in an effective way. According to Stein and Friedrich (1975), television possesses the ability to teach children many forms of behavior that would provide them with alternatives to violent solutions to the problem the program presents.

A number of studies have indicated that regular entertainment programs with socially desirable content can furnish positive lessons to the child (Sprafkin and Rubinstein, 1979). However, Sprafkin and Rubinstein, and Barton (1986) argued that there is no evidence that prosocial effects of viewing prosocial content carry over to settings outside the laboratory. Sprafkin and Rubinstein conducted a field study in which they examined the link between a child's television viewing habits, and the degree of prosocial behavior exhibited in school and personal characteristics. The less television a child watched and the more prosocial his/her favorite programs were, the more prosocial the child was likely to behave. Therefore, the research established a correlation between exposure to prosocial models on television and the behavior a child displays after viewing.

Leifer (1974) pointed out that the researchers have tried to demonstrate that children who view television

programs with prosocial behavior will increase in their performance of the same behavior. The researchers also have begun to examine the conditions under which these results can be achieved. Elliot and Vasta (1970) have shown that sharing can be stimulated by exposure to televised models and that sharing may generalize to forms of behaviors other than the observed situation. Children who saw a model give away some of his candy on television were more willing to share their candy than children who observed no model.

Lesser (1974) argued that by watching altruistic models on film and television, children learn to model altruistic behavior and kindness toward others. Watching models who display courage, self sacrifice or affection encourages these behaviors in the viewers. Modeling also, according to Lesser affects self criticism, self control, the moral judgment of children, the tendency to imitate social contacts with peers, and the inhibition of deviant behavior.

Some evidence also exists that television viewing can increase behaviors such as helping others, cooperating, and offering positive reinforcement to others (Stein et al., 1972; Friedrich and Stein, 1975; Coates, Pusser, and Goodman, 1976). The studies also demonstrated that children imitated altruism, delay of gratification, and high standards of performance by looking at programs that display

such behavioral patterns. They also learned to be less aggressive (Surgeon General's Report, 1972).

Stein et al. (1972) studied the potential of television to be a positive medium. They found that of 93 nursery school children who viewed televised prosocial behavior such as helping, sharing and tolerance of delay, most imitated these behaviors with their peers immediately after viewing. This finding confirmed the conclusion that children model observed behaviors especially if they are repeated in the show. In another study Friedrich and Stein (1973) showed their prosocial group a 10 - 15 minute film from Mr. Rogers' Neighborhood daily for four weeks. The results showed that prosocial viewing was followed by increased task persistence, self-control and tolerance for delay. Children who were most familiar in their own homes with Mister Rogers Neighborhood showed an even greater increase in task persistence and rule obedience than the other children. Of special importance in the findings was the observation that cooperative play, nurturance, and verbalization of feeling increased more significantly among low income children than among the non low income who viewed the program. But on the whole, the data, according to Silverman and Sprafkin (1980) suggests that the influence of prosocial television on preschoolers is neither as consistent nor as great as those

found with older children. However, Sprafkin and Rubinstein (1979) pointed out that while the studies suggest that television can transmit prosocial messages, the research is still limited in assessing television's potential as a positive socializing tool. Paulson (1974) argued that it is not enough that researchers concern themselves with reducing negative affects of television; it is also important that they find the means to enhance prosocial effects.

A growing body of research indicates that prosocial television can be used in the best interests of the medium, the viewers, and society (Baran, Chase and Courtright (1979)).

Meyer (1973), in reviewing the Surgeon General's Report on television and social behavior (1972) argued that programs that are entertaining and informative should be developed without using violence as a theme for getting attention. If these programs are developed to replace the violent shows that attract children, there will be no need to emphasize violence in television. Prosocial television might also be used, according to Rushton (1982) as an intentional part of training procedures when trying to teach or enhance prosocial tendencies in children. Other researchers, like Bandura, Menlove, Walters and Park (in Baran, et al., 1979) pointed out that certain undesirable

behaviors and phobias could be disinhibited through the use of television models, and that models could be used to inhibit deviant behaviors in children.

Since researchers realize that television has the potential to provide beneficial effects, it is important that they define those factors in a program or in the environment that would enhance the positive effects. Stein and Friedrich (1975) pointed out a number of principles that can be derived from imitation literature, which may be helpful in defining effective television portrayals of prosocial behavior. Some of the factors that can enhance the positive effects of a television program, according to Stein and Friedrich, are as follows: 1) prosocial behavior should be followed by positive consequences that are related to the behavior and that are likely to occur in the child's environment; 2) displaying the wrong behavior before showing the prosocial alternative may weaken the prosocial message, especially for the young ones who do not possess the ability to connect the consequences. If contrasting negative behavior is shown, it should be followed immediately by negative consequences; 3) the learning and imitation could be enhanced and made easier by clear narration and verbal labeling of action, and 4) producers can provide information to the public which identifies values incorporated in the

program, since eliminating values in television content is not possible.

Television Viewing and Socialization

It is clear that television can play an important role in the socialization process of childhood (Murray and Kippax, 1978). It seems that development in communication technology provided children with opportunities to watch their favorite programs whenever they wish (Parker, in Bandura, 1971). Parents, teachers, and other traditional models in making use of symbolic modeling influences, may have less important roles to play in the social learning process of children (Bandura, 1971).

The results of early major studies of television's effect on children suggest that the availability of television is associated with a variety of changes in the child's daily activities. According to Winn (in Schickedanz et al., 1982), the amount of time children spend in front of television has a great effect on socialization both directly and indirectly. Indirectly, television can affect the child's intellectual and interpersonal behavior. But perhaps the main disadvantage of television is not only what it inspires the children to do, but in what they miss by sitting and watching passively (Lesser, 1974). The result

of the research pointed to a decrease in the time devoted to playing with friends, sleeping, homework and involvement in other media; television viewing also takes time away from outdoor activities (Lesser, 1974). Moreover, the danger, according to Singer and Singer (1981), is that television viewing may seize upon the habit of play, removing a resource that could be of great value to the child. It may also deprive the child of the enjoyment and the practice of reading skills.

Brown et al. (in Murray and Kippax, 1978) studied the impact of introducing television into a small Scottish Community. The findings of the study showed that television had changed the patterns of social interaction among children, and displaced other media as sources of information and entertainment. The findings also showed decreases in involvement in different social activities and in the meeting of individual interests, especially when contrasting the daily routine of children in the no-television town with their peers in the television town (Murray and Kippax, 1978). Ramzy (1979) also pointed to the fact that Egyptian household schedules revealed that televisions had clearly reduced other activities. Marie Winn (reported in Singer and Singer, 1981) examined the qualities of television viewing, and pointed out that many

of "our current ills" are due to the medium, and that the time spent watching television means less time for reading, writing or exploring one's environment. Children in her study spent very little time exploring their physical environment or developing games of mastery. She wondered whether these children were not growing up poorly equipped to differentiate between reality and the fantasy of television, and to master the skills of complex interaction. It is clear from different research studies that children who watch a great deal of television are not engaging in active verbal interchange, which is an important part of how one learns to use the language effectively.

While psychologists, according to Lesser (1974), stress the value of involving all of the child's senses in learning, television has fewer socializing strategies available to it than do other socialization agents, such as the family (Leifer, 1974). On the other hand, a report by the BBC (1974) pointed out that the influence of television has to be seen in the context of the more common influences of home, school, and the community in which children grow up.

Schickedanz et al. (1982) argued that before television existed, parents kept an eye on their children; doing so familiarized parents with their children's interests and

activities, which enabled them to provide new ideas for the child's play. Schickedanz et al. also pointed out that contact with adults other than parents are less frequent than before. Liebert and Poulos (1976) also suggested that television has replaced visits and social gatherings, as well as conversation in general, possibly leading to fewer opportunities for children to observe models of good behavior.

Shapiro (1975) argued that television lacks the ability that parents and other socialization agents have to encourage or reward children for displaying prosocial behavior. It also does not provide immediate feedback and correction when a child fails to understand the message. Nursery and kindergarten teachers, according to Honig (1983), noticed that characters, their actions, fears and horrors from television often appeared in children's artwork and surfaced in the dramatic play in the classroom. It seems that television characters provide a variety of imitative possibilities that children can depend on instead of inventing their own. Thus, with the influence of television children's knowledge will be derived mainly from their television experience. Truet (1979) pointed out that most parents do not recognize the impact of television on their children, and do not take action toward a

discriminative use of the medium. This lack of parental influence, according to Truet, constitutes the main problem: lack of disciplined and constructive use of television in the home.

Singer (reported by Winter, 1980) has carried out research in another area of television and children's behavior, that is, the effect of television on imaginative play and language development. Singer hypothesized that too much television viewing takes time from imaginative play activities. This was proved in the research with 30, three and four year olds in nursery school. The results showed that children who did not watch much television tended to use adult model behaviors more often, such as reading, playing house and school, and building, than children who were heavy television viewers. The heavy viewers tended to use violent acts seen on television rather than showing imaginative play. Singer suggested that imaginative play is necessary for building the background needed for cognitive learning. It was also found that language development was slow among the heavy viewers. Some objections to television go far beyond attacking the negative effect and bad habits it may induce and the limitations of the medium. Some argued that television has made people lose contact with each other and accept solitary activities (Lesser, 1974).

Lesser also reported that television has been accused of selling products both to adults and children making people regard each other as markets instead of people.

Nevertheless, some families do express some concern over this nonhuman member of the household which distracts the members of the family from other more important activities, and determines the schedule of family actions and program, or presents undesirable ideas and information to the family (Lyle and Hoffman, 1972). These families are also concerned that television determines for children the kind of person each of them becomes (Goslin; Mussen, in Leifer, 1974).

Apart from the negative effects on socialization, Leifer pointed out that the research showed that television has the opportunity to provide children with examples which are difficult for most families to offer or repeat. Leifer also argued that, like the family, television can present reinforcers, but while the family tailored the reinforcer to a particular child and his or her action, television does not. Thus, according to Leifer, television can show children that certain behaviors, when performed by people other than children themselves, are likely to be rewarded, while others are likely to be unrewarded or punished.

Schramm et al. (1961) suggested that television more than any other medium can provide information for the early socialization of the child, while Lesser (1974) argued that television does not expect anything in return. Children can watch without being tested, graded or for that matter, observed by others.

Thus, one can conclude that television, provides an accessible entertaining companionship for the child who will view and learn the social behaviors and values exhibited by television models. Television in this case provides the child with a variety of behavioral contexts from which s/he can obtain social skills. It is clear from the findings of the research that the role of parents and other socialization agents in the socialization process is gradually giving place to the increasing influence of television.

Factors Influencing Viewing Patterns

Considering the time children spend in front of television, one may wonder why children would watch so much television. The Surgeon General's Scientific Advisory Committee Report (1972) stated that almost every one in the United States watched some television programs and that many people watched for many hours a day. The report pointed out

that little was known about the reasons people view so much television or choose a particular program.

Schramm et al. (1961) have presented two fundamental reasons why television attracts children. First, television is capable of taking the child through different programs into a world full of fantasy. Second, television provides information to the child without any effort from the child's side. It is also possible, as Singer and Singer (1981) pointed out that the ease of viewing creates in children a preference to rely on global visual representations. Those children and later young adults grow impatient with the effort required to process auditory verbal material such as lectures or to deal with reading material that requires a series of transformations for effective encoding. On the other hand, Himmelweit, Oppenheim, and Vince (1958) suggested that television attracts the child because it is available, and its message is easy to understand.

In general, the possibility exists that the tremendous power of television to hold the child's attention on the screen and the ease of watching alone may create a kind of passive orientation (Singer and Singer, 1981). Thus, a child may simply prefer to watch television rather than explore his/her environment or make the effort to produce imagery and fantasy characters as companions for his/her

solitude. Maccoby, in Singer and Singer (1981), outlined what he called "pattern of escape through television": 1) children forget their problems while they view television; 2) children identify with a character and while viewing can perceive him/herself as sexual, aggressive, disobedient without being punished, and 3) children engage in wish fulfillment, that is, they can identify with the hero and satisfy themselves.

Singer and Singer (1981) also presented the results of a survey by Cecilia Von Feilitzen (1976), in which she studied children 3 to 15 years of age in Sweden. The survey pointed out different major needs in children that the watching of television can satisfy: 1) entertaining or emotional functions; 2) nonsocial or escapist functions, and 3) mode of consumption functions (the sight and sound attractions). Singer and Singer suggested that one can speculate that the rapidity of movement on the screen in cartoons has a power particularly attractive to children.

Interacting Variables in the Viewing Experience

From the findings of various studies on the subject, it seems that no one simple answer exists to the question of what effect television has on children. The literature shows that different variables affect what kind of and how

much television is watched, and the extent to which a relationship exists between television viewing and social behavior. Such variables include gender, age, social adjustment, psychopathology and various parental child rearing practices (Dorr and Kovanik, in Singer, 1984). Other studies, according to Abbas (1983) included as influential variables socioeconomic status, mental ability, type of family and environment with which a child is associated, and encouragement by parents and teachers. Indeed, the effect of television on children's behavior seems to be the result of different, interacting variables which should be carefully studied before attempting to answer the important question of how television affects children. Some of the important variables that have been suggested by the researchers are reviewed below.

Level of Previous Aggression. For some children, their own real life aggressiveness drives them to watch aggressive programs on television (Kaplan and Singer, in Price, 1985). Television alone would not lead to heightened aggression without the contribution of other variables (Singer, 1984).

Schramm et al. (1961) pointed out that increases in aggression following exposure to film violence are seen only in deviant children. Schramm et al. presented the results of several surveys done with a total of 5,991 children in

grades 1 - 12, 1,958 parents, and several hundred teachers and principals. The results showed that no general harmful effects resulted from viewing television, except in those children who possessed aggressive tendencies or low achievement prior to viewing television. Stein et al. (1972) suggested that aggressive children are more likely to be affected by television violence than are low aggressive children.

In examining different theories related to this issue, Pearl (1984) examined the justification theory. This theory assumes that people who are already aggressive tends to like watching violent television, because they can justify to themselves their own behavior. Thus, according to this theory, watching violent programs is a result rather than a cause of aggressive behavior. On the other hand, inhibition theory,, according to Pearl, assumes that training and experience can inhibit children and others from being aggressive. By watching a great amount of violence on television children lose their inhibitions and become disinhibited.

Several other studies, according to Friedrich and Stein (1973), suggested that an increase in aggressive behavior after watching violent programs occurs in children who are initially aggressive and not in low aggressive children.

Ridley (1984) pointed out that conflicts portrayed a television program with aggressive content involve the interaction of two individuals resulting in two models for the child to learn from. Ridley argued that high aggressive children may attend to, empathize with, and imitate the aggressive model, and that low aggressive children may identify with the victims. Ridley explained that such a possibility suggests that television's influence on children's behavior can be guided.

Ridley's study traced children's behavioral responses to different kinds of information portrayed in a television episode that contained a conflict situation. The overall test results showed that aggression levels increased after viewing, but the changes in posttest scores from pretest scores revealed that highly aggressive children became less aggressive after viewing, and low aggressive children showed a stable behavior. Ridley pointed out that both child's aggression level and gender seemed to mediate the influence of the modeled aggression on the child's behavior.

Stein and Friedrich (1971) investigated three forms of behavior, cooperation, nurturance and task persistence. Children who were initially measured high in aggression, showed higher levels of aggression when exposed to aggressive television programs than when exposed to neutral

programs. One can conclude from the results that violent television programs tend to arouse aggressive behavior, particularly in children who have measured high in aggression.

Justification of the Televised Action. Also receiving great attention from researchers is the relationship between the justification of actions in a violent television program and the subsequent effect on the behavior of its viewers. According to Pearl (1984), young children who do not see the relationship between aggression and the motives behind it, may be more liable to imitate the aggressive behavior. Indeed, Isler (1984) pointed out that most of the work in this area shows that young children have extremely poor skills for understanding motives and intents in a television program. Even if children do understand the motivation of the "bad guys," and what happened to them, and imitate the "bad guy" less due to this understanding, Schickedanz et al. (1982) noted that children will imitate the violent behavior that the "good guy" displays. Television heroes, according to Schickedanz et al., tend to use violence to reach their prosocial goals.

Level of Cognitive and Social Development of the Child. In general, the response of a child to a program and what he gets out of it depends upon his or her level of mental and

social development (Corder-Bolz, 1977). By preschool age, however, social and cognitive development is rapid; at this time a child becomes a major viewer of television, according to Corder-Bolz.

Contrary to Corder-Bolz, Price (1985) argued that children must reach the state of moral development before they can weigh the motivation behind the actions of others. Many researchers interested in using cognitive developmental perspective to understand how children comprehend what they see on television have used Piaget's concept of logical operation (Faber, Perloff and Hawkins, in Durham, 1984). The stages of cognitive development Piaget defined are mainly based on how children think about causality (Piaget and Inhelder, 1956), and how they try to understand what they see around them, and for that matter, what they see on the screen. Cognitive developmental theory views children as being active participants in their development and their learning process; the theory, therefore, views children as actively and selectively attending to what they see on television (Durham, 1984). Accordingly, a child's comprehension and perception of what s/he sees on the screen is the vital element in the subsequent behavior. Children in the preoperational stage, from about two to seven years of age, have difficulty differentiating between their

feelings and those of others. They also do not possess the ability to distinguish fantasy from reality (Surgeon General's Report, 1972). According to Singer et al. (1981), preschoolers also believe that inanimate objects such as a Teddy bear can talk. Thus, they may think that what adults do in a television program to hurt each other is what adults routinely do in real life (Honig, 1983). Honig also suggested that children move to a greater understanding of people's motives and feelings as they interact with others. According to Fowles and Voyat (1974), a child at this stage looks at images on television as having separate successive states rather than in terms of continuity and underlying structure. Thus, a child does not look for a concept or motive behind the television images in the same way an adult does. Fowles and Voyat posited that the potential role of television is to provide experiences which a child can use as raw material upon which to advance to higher states of cognitive balance. Reviews of children's understanding of television (Dorr; Wartella, in Ballard, 1983) have suggested the importance of using a developmental perspective when dealing with children's reaction to television. Wartella applied Piaget's cognitive developmental research to television and concluded that children at different ages differ in their attention to, comprehension of, and reaction

to television (Ballard, 1983). Piaget's work indicated changes related to age in the ability of children to comprehend information derived from interaction with the environment (Piaget, 1952).

According to Piaget (in Fowles and Voyat, 1974), experiences that are not part of the child's existing cognitive structure cause the child to imitate aspects of the experiences, which in turn leads to a new set of cognitive structures at a higher level. Leifer (1973) argued that the child's predisposition to egocentricity, reversibility, sense of sequencing and other skills will act as mediators between what the child sees, his/her understanding of it, and performing of it in subsequent situations, and that this performance would show at any age or stage.

Children lack certain skills needed for organizing and interpreting concepts, and when they are very young, they take longer to comprehend some kinds of ideas and thoughts (Surgeon General's Report, 1972). Research on television viewing also points to the fact that children have limitations in vocabulary that hinder learning the material and skills presented on the screen; they also lack the ability to put together the information they get to reach a meaningful image (Surgeon General's Report, 1972). The

report argued that even in programs designed for children, such as Sesame Street, retention by kindergarten and preschool children is rather low. As children grow older, they witness, according to the report, a developmental change from interest in the concrete aspects of a show to its abstract aspects, that is its content. As they grow older, children develop skills for mature viewing and understanding of things they see on television.

Collins et al., reported by Shapiro (1975), found that preschoolers' knowledge of consequences was better than their knowledge of motives. Donahue, Henke and Meyer (1983) also pointed out that the research suggested that children less than seven years of age do not find it easy to understand the definitions and motives of a television commercial. Additionally, the research, according to Shapiro (1975), pointed out that three to five year olds children have poorly developed skills for comprehending and understanding televised material that includes social and effective goals. In general, they lack the ability to comprehend social messages the way they were intended by the producer. According to Lesser (1972), preschool children have difficulty discriminating the essential from the incidental in a specific message, and this difficulty affects their response to a television program. It is

apparent that the different cognitive abilities and social experiences that children bring with them to the viewing situation influence how they understand a television message. To deal with the new and changing settings that appear on the screen, a child must possess the means and the skills to transform the acquired information into a private and representational system, that can be encoded according to what is required in a certain situation. Durham (1984) pointed out that comprehension of the television content needs certain abilities to interpret and understand relationships in the social world as opposed to relationships in the physical world. Research also suggests that learning from television depends on how the child comprehended the message. As children view a television program, they try to interpret the information, and the way the representational codes are used influences how children comprehend the message in several ways according to Rice, Huston and Wright (1982). However, learning is very rapid during the early years that children are likely to participate in the viewing experience. They are, according to Rice et al. (1982), socially active viewers who work at getting information from coded messages and respond to program content.

Rice et al. pointed out that verbal labels and explanations have been used in a number of experiments to clarify how children understand a program's content. In one study where children were shown a program that included verbal labeling of the characters' behavior, children initiated sharing more after watching the program than they did after watching a program that did not include verbal labeling of the behavior (Susman, 1976, in Rice et al., 1982). Rice et al. also suggested that children who have imagination may possess the medium to translate some of the aggressive material they view on television into a play format rather than imitating them directly in aggressive attacks on the children. Earlier research (Singer; Singer and Singer, reported by Rice et al., 1982) has also suggested that children who exhibit imagination in their behavior repertoire can make good use of it in cognitive development for separating fantasy from reality and stimulating verbal skills. It is also true that children who have a good deal of make-believe and fantasy play in their play repertoire have a clear distinction between what is real and what is not in certain important cognitive areas (Simlanski, in Singer and Singer, 1981). Research also suggests the importance of social cognition to the developmental perspective. Researchers studied whether or

not role-taking or the ability to put oneself mentally in the place of the other, helped children to perceive and comprehend television messages. According to Durham (1984), for a child to understand the behavior and demands of a television character, s/he must be able to put him/herself in the character's place to some degree. Isler found differences in comprehension of the two stimulus programs her study used. She also found that young children are able to comprehend a great deal about social interactions in television programs designed for children that deal with familiar social situations. Isler's study supports the argument that children's comprehension of social interaction portrayed on television depends on the content of the program viewed by the child.

The Television Program's Format. Alkhulaifi (1984) stressed the idea that considering the short attention span of children at this stage, it is important to consider designing programs for preschoolers that emphasize social and cultural context, as well as presentation format.

Interestingly, the Surgeon General's Report (1972) pointing to the results of studies on format and codes, stated that some of the results of these studies showed that the effect of violent and prosocial programs could be explained not only by their content but by their format; the

rapid action and noise levels associated with violence, in contrast to the slow, leisurely pace of prosocial programs.

According to Fowles and Voyat (1974), a child's interaction with television and ability to learn from format depends on the design of the program content and how much the design reflects an understanding of the target audience's developmental process rather than problem inherent in the medium itself. The research (Shapiro, 1975) also suggests that the success of a television program in conveying complex social messages is determined by the clarity of the message, clear presentation of the situation surrounding the characters' behavior, and clear presentation of the positive and negative consequences that befall the character and would subsequently befall the child if he were to perform the behavior.

Age of the Child. Research has not yet determined if younger children are at greater risk from television than any other age groups. The evidence suggests that younger children are ready to learn aggressive behavior, because of their cognitive and social limitations. If this is the case, it may be then difficult to try to teach prosocial behavior to younger ones through television. Schramm et al. (1961) suggested that a great amount of learning from television occurs in early years. The ages from three to

eight are the years when television will be dominant in a child's life. These years are when the child's circle is within his family, and when s/he possesses great curiosity; this is the time, according to Schramm et al., that television has the greatest opportunity to contribute to the child's knowledge and prosocial behavior.

Collins et al. (in Price, 1985) found that kindergarten and second grade children who watched an adventure program, find it difficult to remember the motives and consequences related to the aggressive action. Results of research by Leifer and Roberts (1972) showed that the motives and consequences for violent acts are more correctly identified as children grow older. Children, according to Comstock (1975), develop an interest in television programs when they are three years old. By age three, the child is able to choose his/her favorite program (Schramm et al., 1961) and by the time s/he is six, the child has the ability to make use of the medium.

Sturm and Jorg (in Alkhulaifi, 1984) found that five year olds are different from six and seven year olds in their comprehension of the pictorial material, and that six year olds possess greater ability in understanding the televised program. Thus, according to the research, age is a determinant factor in how children react to and are

affected by television.

Gender of the Child. Another factor that was discussed in the research is the sex of the child. Several studies have shown that boys are more affected by aggressive programs than girls (Bandura et al., 1963b; Leifer and Roberts, 1972). It was also found that boys who viewed aggressive cartoons did not share as much as girls (Hapkiewicz and Roden, in Price, 1985). But in general comparison of boys and girls' in television viewing frequency have produced less consistent results. Schramm et al. (1961) reported that there is no significant sex differences while Lyle and Hoffman (1972) found that girls were heavier viewers than boys. Other research has concluded that viewing violent programs has the same effect on boys and girls (Stein and Friedrich, 1975), and even though boys and girls may differ in the kind of aggression they display post viewing, the effect on behavior is the same for both sexes.

One of the problems with using gender as a measure of identification with a television model is that aggression is correlated with sex-role orientation. Girls who are aggressive may identify more with male actors than with female actors (Heusman, 1982).

If the effect of television is to reinforce or activate viewer predispositions, television may be contributing to the traditional active versus passive role orientation of males and females (Ridley, 1984).

Reinforcement, Punishment and Reward. Reinforcement, punishment and reward also seem to have an effect on how children respond to and imitate a modeled behavior. Studies by Bandura (1965) and Leifer and Roberts (1972) investigated how children can be affected by motives and consequences of modeled aggression after viewing the aggressive behavior. Clear punishment of the aggressive model seems to inhibit aggressive responses among children. On the other hand, Bandura et al (1963b) found that children who viewed a model being punished displayed aggressive action other than those shown on the film. In addition, Bandura pointed out that while punishment does not seem to have an effect on immediate imitation, no differences have been shown between the effects of a rewarded model and an unrewarded one. Furthermore, when modeled aggression was justified, its effects on children's aggressiveness seemed to be obvious (Ridley (1984). Leifer and Roberts (1972) reported that in many television shows, the "bad guy" usually gets punishment in order to discourage imitation of the negative behavior by children. Leifer and Roberts suggested that this kind of

punishment does not seem to inhibit aggression in children, especially in the younger ones whose cognitive abilities do not allow them to understand the motives and consequences of the aggressive actions, or even the connection between the punishment and the bad behavior.

According to Leifer (1974), although television can provide reinforcers, it cannot tailor the reinforcer to a particular child's actions or needs. It has the ability to show children how some behaviors can be punished while others can be rewarded. It also can offer encouragement to children to behave in a certain way.

The reinforcement given to a character seems to influence the extent to which a child will imitate the behavior displayed by that character (Bandura, 1965). Bandura stated that if the character was shown as rewarded for aggressive behavior, the child was more likely to imitate that behavior; if the character received punishment, the behavior was less likely to be imitated.

Parental Guidance. Another variable that has been discussed in the research and that can contribute to the question of the effect of television on children's behavior is that of parental guidance. Some evidence was presented that parental comment on the limited use of aggression helped to reduce the connection between the children's

exposure to violent content and their aggressive behavior (McLeod, Fitzpatrick, Glynn and Fallis, 1982). However, studies in which young children who watched television either with an adult who criticized the violent character's behavior or with an adult whose response was neutral, have shown that adult criticism does not affect aggression levels in child viewers. All young children showed equal aggression, despite the fact that children who watched with critical adults were more critical in their verbal viewing (Schickedanz et al., 1982). Leifer (1974) suggested that if parents comment about the social behavior their children are seeing on television, they may influence their children's decisions about trying out similar behaviors themselves. Ball and Bogatz (1970) in their first year evaluation of Sesame Street pointed out that children who watched with mothers who talked to them about the program content, learned the most.

In presenting the goals and aims of Sesame Street, Lesser (1972) stated the belief that a television program by itself cannot have positive effects if it is not reinforced by the other influences in the child's environment. This involvement of parents, older siblings and others, in the viewing experience, will produce better effects. In an ideal viewing situation, according to Palmer et al. (1976)

parents and teachers would view the program with children, help them to interact with parents, answer their questions, and thereby reinforce learning.

The results of a study by Ball and Bogatz (1971) to evaluate the effect of viewing on children's achievement upon entering first grade, showed that children who had outside encouragement and experiences, in addition to the program, had the highest gains.

Media Literacy

Interest has grown in finding methods to mediate the influence of television on children by teaching them about television as a medium. The assumption behind this approach, as Rapaczynski, Singer and Singer (1982) pointed out, is that media literacy will enable children to view more critically and approach the overt and the covert messages of television in a more sophisticated way. Television literacy, according to Palmer et al. (1976), refers to the ability to understand television messages and devices, and to gather information from television's visual language. Rapaczynski et al. suggested the adaptation of a defined curriculum for television literacy to be used with children in kindergarten.

Children in kindergarten, as Rapaczynsky et al. (1982) pointed out, are particularly in need of skills that would improve their understanding because their stage of mental development makes them potentially more vulnerable than older children to television's influence. They could, according to Rapaczynsky et al., significantly benefit from a critical viewing skills curriculum designed to their cognitive capacities. Rapaczynsky et al. designed a critical viewing curriculum which they used with children in third through fifth grades and in kindergarten through second grade. They concluded that the adaptation of the curriculum proved to be successful and that children can learn from instruction about television.

Sesame Street

The Planning Stage

Sesame Street is a children's television series that is meant to entertain and teach preschool children. In 1966 Joan Cooney, a producer who worked on educational television programs, was commissioned by Carnegie Corporation of New York to study the possibility of using television as an educational tool for preschoolers (Bogatz, 1979). In her study, as reported by Bogatz, Cooney found that 12 million

American children were between the ages of five and six years, and the majority of them were not getting any systematic intellectual stimulation. Cooney also found that a television set was in almost 90% of American homes including those of low income families. The study also showed that preschool children were spending seven to eight hours a day watching television. To disadvantaged children, television was the only window on the world. In addition, the report expressed a feeling that a stimulating preschool experience was vital because four-fifths of the three year olds and one-fifth of the five and six year olds did not have any form of schooling.

The Children's Television Workshop experimental research project brought together, according to Lesser (1972), educational advisors, researchers and television producers as equal partners. The educators and psychologists were beginning to believe that the best way to narrow the achievement gap between disadvantaged and middle class children is by providing intellectual stimulation for disadvantaged children in their early years (Cooney, 1970).

The program that Cooney proposed to the Carnegie Corporation would combine education and entertainment. This program would be unique in that it would have education as its primary aim, using entertainment as a means to fulfill

that aim (Cooney, 1970). The report also explained that the program would attempt to reach a lower as well as middle class audience, using "expensive" production techniques to accomplish these goals.

Sesame Street, according to Lesser (1972), sought to supply children with an educational experience that would stimulate their appetite for learning. The proposed program also aimed to teach certain skills to preschool children, especially the disadvantaged, and to prepare them for formal schooling (Ball and Bogatz, 1970).

The target audience for Sesame Street go through an important period in their growth both intellectually and in terms of personality. The preschoolers make the move from the preoperational to the concrete level of cognitive development. The proposal hoped that the Sesame Street format and content would ease viewers' transition to the concrete level of cognitive development.

The Instructional Goals

The first major step in planning and designing the program was to define its instructional goals. Several conferences were held by CTW to decide the specific behavioral objectives of the program (Abbas, 1983). The meetings, according to Abbas, tried to answer the question

of how a television show can teach millions of children in 130 hours of programming.

The main concern was to present children with certain basic skills to motivate them for further learning. And as Lesser (1972) stated, the conference focused on determining universal cognitive skills that the show could emphasize with the assumption that all children could comprehend them. As Paulsen (1974) pointed out, the producers were concentrating on the program's social goals. They established a set of behaviors with anticipated, matching behaviors and used them as a nucleus around which to build the program (Fowles and Horner, 1974). The whole tone emphasizes cooperation and friendly interaction between people. The producers chose to show the warmth and kindness that could exist in every day life so as to offset the stridency, bitterness and harshness that already existed in the child's environment (Lesser, 1972). Such attitudes of kindness and altruism would be presented to children in an attempt to show them how the world would be if we would treat each other nicely (Lesser, 1972).

Role making, or the ability to take another person's point of view, was another of the program's main social goals, according to Lesser. It was meant to make children understand that other people may think and feel differently

than themselves, and to help them imagine themselves in that other person's place. Piaget's stages of cognitive development suggested that children at this age are not capable of acquiring this skill; nevertheless, Sesame Street producers decided to experiment with it for several reasons: first, they thought that the skill was a suitable topic for a visual medium; second, it was important to be exposed to for school preparation; and third, it was thought of as a general skill that could help the child acquire more advanced skills (Lesser, 1972).

During the first year of Sesame Street, although social goals constituted half of each program segments; the producers incorporated them as part of the instruction in symbolic and cognitive areas (Paulson, 1974).

During the second year of production, CTW made several changes in the priorities and emphasis of goals, based on research findings and evaluation. CTW chose to make cooperation a primary objective. This decision was based on the belief that this behavior was both valuable to the children as well as an appropriate instructional goal to portray through the medium of television (Abbas, 1983). Over its four experimental program seasons year to year the curriculum of Sesame Street became broader and more ambitious, according to Palmer (in Fowles and Voyat, 1974),

especially in areas like symbolic representation and social effective development (self-awareness, cooperation, cultural differences, recognizing and controlling emotions). The goals, according to Lesser (1972), fell into four specific areas and were categorized as follows.

- 1) symbolic representation: letters, numbers and geometric forms.
- 2) cognitive process: perceptual discrimination, relationships, classification, ordering.
- 3) problem solving, and reasoning, which includes recognition of body parts, visual discrimination among objects or pictures and understanding of relational concepts such as size, shape, position and distance.
- 4) the child and his world including the natural environment; nature and natural processes and the man-made environment; city and country; objects and people and features indigenous to each of them. It also includes the social environment: sex-roles, social units, and social interaction.

Sesame Street's Format

In addition to emphasis on content the producers also paid special attention to the program's format. Early on in

a joint statement the Carnegie Corporation, the Ford Foundation, and the Commissioner of Education questioned whether a kind of entertainment that is attractive to children could be used for educational purposes (Lesser, 1972), that is whether the use of various popular techniques could teach children basic cognitive skills. Sesame Street has purposefully designed format. The learning units were designed after those of commercial American television (Salomon, 1976). The units, according to Cooney (1970), are presented in stories, skits, games, songs, and into thirty and sixty second animated sequences that are designed after commercial television spots using sophisticated, fast camera movements and lots of action. The program portrays humorous puppets and cartoons, all interacting in a setting, especially designed to teach elementary skills and problem solving skills (Abbas, 1983). According to Abbas, the human characters were carefully chosen to represent different socioethnic groups in the United States.

The children who appeared on the show ask questions as a way of acquiring information, talk together until they solve a problem, or simply are shown enjoying the feel and sound of a given show's featured words (Lesser, 1974).

Evaluation of "Sesame Street"

Before Sesame Street was first broadcast in 1969, five test episodes of the program were evaluated (CTW, 1969). The CTW stated that the evaluation results showed that the program had positive effects on children. However, the extent of these gains, according to the report, depended on the background characteristics of the children and their parents. In 1969-70, after the regular broadcast of the show had begun, the educational impact of the program on its target audience was evaluated. Abbas (1983) summarized the basic results of the evaluation as follows:

- 1) Sex of the child did not show any significant effect on the difference in gains between boys and girls
- 2) Five year olds and four year olds acquired the same gains. On two sub-scales with low ceilings, children of four made greater gains than children of five. Additionally, in the first year evaluation, directed by Ball and Bogatz (1970), the major findings were as follows:
 - Children who watched the program gained more than those who did not, regardless of their knowledge or gender;
 - Children who watched the most gained the most, and

--The skill that the program emphasized more were best learned by the children.

Ball and Bogatz did another study in 1971 to determine if the program helped children to achieve more upon entering first grade. The results showed that children who had a regular viewing habit had gains in most skills tested.

The A. C. Nielsen Company's membership survey of 1978 reported by CTW (1979) estimated that among Sesame Street's target audience (children aged two through five), the program on a weekly basis attracts six million viewers. Among older children (six through eleven) who are not among the target audience Nielsen estimated that the series attracts 2.5 million viewers each week. Over a six week period, Sesame Street, according to Nielsen's report, was viewed by 80% of all United States homes within its broadcast area with children under six. On the other hand, CTW estimates that at least another half million children see the program in preschool, day care or kindergarten settings.

But perhaps one of the most important achievements of the program in the area of children's programming has been (according to Palmer et al., 1976), initiating and encouraging cooperation and collaboration between educators and television professionals to work together to define

goals and effective methods of presentation.

Sesame Street has also served as a research laboratory for studying children's comprehension of television as well as the effect of the medium on children. In the United States, it has been used for experiments on teaching cooperation as well as different special television effects (Palmer et al., 1976). Paulson (1974) conducted a study to evaluate Sesame Street' success in teaching cooperation. The results pointed to the fact that by defining and teaching social goals, Sesame Street has achieved good results. Coats et al. (1976) also studied the effects of Sesame Street and Mr. Rogers' Neighborhood. They analyzed the contents of each program and stated that Sesame Street was a program that had a mixture of prosocial behavior and behavioral elements of punishment. Coats et al. observed children's behavior before, during, and after viewing the program. Determined categories were used to grade children. These categories included the number of reinforcements or punishments the child exhibited. The results showed that children who scored low for an observational category, exhibited more positive reinforcement and punishment, and more social contact with other children and with adults. For children who scored high, the program did not have a significant effect on their behavior.

Shapiro (1975) directed a study to evaluate children's comprehension of the prosocial behavior portrayed on Sesame Street. The study tested material related to four goal areas of the program: entering a social group, coping with failure, coping with basic emotions, and sex role stereotyping. Children's behavior was monitored while they viewed the program during viewing. They were also interviewed afterwards about details of the plots and characters' feelings and motives as well as hypothetical situation similar to those in the test tapes. The results of the study showed that children were able to comprehend the social goals, the results also indicated that there was no significant difference in the responses of males and females. Older children, however, had a better performance than the younger ones on some of the questions. Contrary to the positive findings of other studies, Singer et al. (1981) reported the results of a study with 200 working class families. They found that heavy Sesame Street viewers tended to be among the most aggressive children in the school. According to Singer et al., there was a possibility that the pace and short segments may have caused an arousal effect, and that the aggressive children may not have been able to process all the material, which might have caused their restlessness and may have increased the likelihood of

aggression behavior in their play.

The question whether preschool children learn as a result of watching Sesame Street was also one of the important issues that the research dealt with. Miller and Scvarcius (1970) compared the viewers with nonviewers of Sesame Street, using 200 preschool children as subjects, dividing them into subgroups of 8 - 12 children. The viewers watched Sesame Street each day, while the nonviewers played outdoors or had other activities to do (control group). The results provided evidence that the viewers of the program made consistently greater gains in learning the skills than did those in the control group.

Reviewing various studies evaluating Sesame Street, Kratochvil, reported by Abbas (1983), concluded that Sesame Street has been effective both statistically and educationally.

Panos, reported by Alkhulaifi (1984) presented evidence that children who viewed Sesame Street imitated characters and children in the show, interacted and cooperated with parents and other children, and used positive and negative reinforcers.

As to teaching attitudes, Paulson (1974) pointed out that Sesame Street, by defining and teaching social goals, has achieved a good effect in that direction. Another of

the positive effects pointed out by Anderson and Shane (reported by Lesser, 1974), is that the program managed to alert parents to the importance of encouraging learning during the early years. In addition, Lesser also reported Meichenbaum suggesting that Sesame Street can present models to parents, showing them how to do things with their children. Gunter (reported by Minton, 1972) praised Sesame Street as a program that has enjoyed the "most astonishing" success of any show in the whole history of American television. Gunter suggested that Sesame Street has become more than a show, and moved toward being a case for discussion and evaluation.

Reaction to Sesame Street, however, has not always been positive. While some welcomed the program and confirmed its positive effects on children, others criticized its methods. In short, both successes and failures of the program have been criticized (Lesser, 1974).

CTW pointed to a report in which a member of the Chicago Study Center at the University of California at Los Angeles, commended the positive and cooperative atmosphere of male and female characters, an aspect ignored by many other programs. However, she criticized the aggressive behavior of some characters and suggested that the program should emphasize ideas of responsibility and moral concern.

Some critics, according to Lesser (1974), complained about Sesame Street's success in attracting young children, making them more attached to television and accustomed to its fast pace; they found the show's repetition offensive. Critics also presented the view that there are other aspects of children's lives that are more important than providing children with intellectual skills to prepare them for school. Children's feelings, social reactions, and other cognitive skills were among those critics proposed that the show explores. In fact, these areas were beyond the Sesame Street curriculum (Lesser, 1974). Another main points raised by critics and reported by Lesser was that the program failed to fulfill one of its main goals, to reduce the educational gap between the advantaged and the disadvantaged.

Veatch (1970) accused Sesame Street of being a program that sold knowledge like a television commercial sells toothpaste (Abbas, 1983). Abbas also reported Holt (1970) as charging the program with taking the format of a school; it always provided children with right answers from adults, keeping children as passive viewers.

A main thrust among educators is that in order for learning to be effective children must interact directly with their learning material. Thus, the most severe

criticism of Sesame Street, according to Fowles and Horner (1974), came from psychologists and experts in early childhood education who claimed that television, as a "non-interactive mode," will not succeed in teaching young children, and whatever it teaches, it will be learned by the child accidentally and will not contribute to the child's cognitive development.

Sesame Street Abroad

Sesame Street, has also enjoyed favorable reviews and wide appeal outside the United States. The program has been discussed outside the United States as being successful in proving that entertainment program need not be without ideas, and that educational programs can be entertaining. By providing a blend of the two Sesame Street has attracted a large audience of children (Palmer et al., 1976).

The program has been broadcast or adapted in a number of countries. However, the reaction to Sesame Street abroad has varied between applauding the program and rejecting it. The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) rejected the program, accusing it of having a hard selling technique as it provided right answers, passive learning, and the preparation of young children for school but not for life (Abbas, 1983).

Foreign Adaptations of Sesame Street

The program has been translated and produced in many languages in about fifty countries (Abbas, 1983). Foreign productions were given license by CTW to produce local adaptations of the program, using their own actors, producers, writers and cartoonists. CTW provided these productions with technical support (Cooney, 1970). The foreign adaptations have one of two formats:

- 1) the coproduction format, using material from Sesame Street to fill half the program while the other half is produced locally, and
- 2) the "Open Sesame" format, which depends on a continuous block of segments from Sesame Street, translated into the language of the adapting country (Palmer et al., 1976).

Surveys and research studies have furnished evidence that foreign adaptation of Sesame Street have a great appeal among their audiences. Research has been conducted in adapting countries to evaluate and measure aspects that range from the amount of viewing time and reactions of children and their parents, to an analysis of attention patterns through small group observations (Palmer et al., 1976).

Abbas (1983) reported several results of international research on Sesame Street and its foreign adaptations. According to Annis (1974) the findings of the research in Britain about the impact of Sesame Street showed some positive as well as negative results. Teachers criticized the program more than did parents. In Mexico, Diaz Guerrero and Holtzman (1974) conducted a study to evaluate the educational impact of the Mexican version of the program, Plaza Sesamo on kindergarten children. The results of the study reported by Abbas (1983) indicated superior learning gains by the experimental group of children on all tests, particularly those that dealt with domestically produced segments.

In Australia, Lemerrier and Teasdale reported a study which showed that children who viewed the program displayed good performance. In Brazil, Vilas Sesamo was considered the best educational television program available to children. In Germany Sessamstrasse was viewed by 89% of its target audience. Seventy-nine percent of parents reported saying that Sessamstrasse was the best program for entertaining and educating the child at the preschool level.

Iftah Ya Simsim

Iftah Ya Simsim is a half-hour Arabic program based on the American Series of Sesame Street. When Sesame Street was first brought to the attention of Arab educators, it brought with it great interest in its potential as an educational instrument that could contribute to developing the social, intellectual, and creative skills of the preschool child in the Arab World (Ridha, 1979). The primary goal was to prepare preschool children for school in an informal and entertaining way (Tracy, 1979). It uses Modern Standard Arabic, which is not spoken in homes but is the language used in text books, newspapers and most radio and television programs, and the language of instruction that the child has to deal with upon entering school.

The Arab Center for Audience Research stated in 1979, according to Abbas (1983), that the reason behind adapting Sesame Street in Arabic was the belief that this series had already proved to be effective as an educational program, especially for the socially and economically disadvantaged. The report stated a belief that such a program would make a great contribution to the social development of the young Arab child.

When it was first broadcast in 1979, Iftah Ya Simsim was the first television program produced in the Arab World for young Arab children. Based on Sesame Street the series used the same technique of wrapping teaching elements in an entertaining format, using songs, plays, cartoons, puppets and films, to present the proposed objectives of the series. Both the English and Arabic programs use the same methods and style of production.

Tracy (1979) stated that half the material in the Arabic program was taken from the American series and translated into Arabic. This half included cartoons and puppet segments. The other half was produced locally and intended to provide for the local cultural needs of the Arab child. The program shows films on different parts of the Arab countries. Because of the size of the Arab world and the variations in customs and history, these films provide children with new information. It is like "opening a window on the Arab world," as one of the directors of the program described it (Tracy, 1979). The program, according to Tracy, aims at showing children that no matter how different the color of their skin, or how different they dress from each other, they are all Arabs who have "unity in diversity." The idea is to explain to children that people everywhere are basically the same.

The setting and atmosphere in Iftah Ya Simsim is similar to that in Sesame Street. It reflects cooperation and joy presented in the context of Arab life and culture. According to Al-Malih (in Abbas, 1983), five major techniques were used in Iftah Ya Simsim production: 1) dramatic scenes featuring human characters and two locally invented puppets; 2) cartoons from the American series dubbed into Arabic; 3) films, portraying aspects of life in the Arab world; 4) puppets from the American series which were given Arabic names, and 5) songs and music that were composed locally. Iftah Ya Simsim aims at teaching children a wide variety of skills and attitudes that were carefully chosen by Arab educators to constitute the elements of the program's objectives.

The ten areas of concentration of the series (Table 2, p. 126) were based on the findings of the preproduction research (Abbas, 1983). They cover the following elements:

- 1) Language and general knowledge. This area includes symbols such as numbers, letters, words, and geometric shapes.
- 2) Physical and psychological health. The segments in this area deal with the child's physical and psychological health. This area aims at stimulating the child and directing him to be aware of his

abilities and to be capable of achieving new skills.

- 3) Social and economic area. This area presents the child with selected social units, and draws his attention to the value of some behaviors and attitudes such as cooperation and respect for others' points of view.
- 4) Problem solving and logical thinking. This area aims at helping the child to understand sequences and causality, and to interpret the causes of such phenomena as the cause of rain, light, as well as understanding social introfamily relationships, and how to solve problems related to these phenomena.
- 5) Technology. This area aims at presenting the child with information about the role of machinery and technology in production.
- 6) Manual work. This section aims at helping the child become aware of the importance of manual work and to respect it.
- 7) Appreciation. This section refers to helping the child appreciate nature, beauty and art.
- 8) The nation. This area aims at making the child aware of being a member of the Arab nation and to respect it as a social unit with one common history, language and culture.

- 9) Human life. This section is concerned with helping the child understand and accept the fact that people all over the world are equal and that they can live in peace.
- 10) The spiritual element. This section concentrates on acquainting the child with the idea of how Islam views the universe, moral values, and the phenomena that confirmed the existence of God.

When Iftah Ya Simsim came out in 1977, it was hoped, according to Ridha (1979) that it would bring about the great expectations the program producers had in 1976. The producers of Iftah Ya Simsim needed to know the audience. They needed to know how their child viewers thought and whether their learning abilities would allow them to understand what the program had to offer them (Ridha, 1979). According to Ridha, the results of tests administered to assess the abilities of the target audience, showed that the program communicated with younger children at a level that was below the required standard.

For formative evaluation of the series, the pilot programs were designed for several purposes: to assess children's reaction to the program, and how much the program appealed to them; to point out the abilities and needs of the target audience; and to determine the target audience

Table 1

Curriculum Objectives of "Iftah Ya Simsim"*

Area	Percentage	Time of Production
1. Language, symbols and cognition	40	1560 minutes
2. Physical and mental hygiene	10	390 minutes
3. Economic and social aspects	10	390 minutes
4. Testing and scientific reasoning	10	390 minutes
5. & 6. Man's productivity	10	390 minutes
7. Aesthetics	3	117 minutes
8. The Arab world	10	390 minutes
9. Humanities	3	117 minutes
10. Spiritual elements	4	156 minutes

*Source: Othman, S., "Iftah Ya Simsim": An educational entertaining program for Arab Children, A.G.S.J.P.P.I., Kuwait, 1979 (in Alkhulaif, 1984).

comprehension and understanding of the elements in the program (Abbas, 1983). The formative research carried out by AGSJPPI in 1979 aimed at measuring the skills and attitudes chosen by Arab educators for treatment in the series before the program was broadcast later that year (CTW, 1979). After viewing the program for several months, both viewers and nonviewing control groups of children were

tested again to see what relative improvements have been achieved. The evaluation showed the following results:

- The program had a high positive appeal for the children observed;
- Segments with active movements had greater appeal to the children than other segments;
- Segments with a particular expected ending had a positive response from children, especially those which dealt with counting and words
- Simple and understandable humor was attractive to the observed children, and
- Segments in which a group of children participated also enjoyed a positive reaction.

Despite these results, it seems difficult to assess the impact of Iftah Ya Sinsim on the Arab child, since the research on this matter had not been done in an effective way. The effectiveness of the locally developed segments in particular needs to be studied because they have not been evaluated in any research. However, when the pilot programs were shown in an international conference on adaptations of Sesame Street, held in Amsterdam in 1978, Iftah Ya Sinsim won first place in an informal competition with six or more adaptations (Tracy, 1979). Nevertheless, like Sesame Street, Iftah Ya Sinsim has been commented on both

positively and negatively. Adwan (in Abbas, 1983) attributed the significance of the program to the fact that it used classical Arabic as a medium; the use of Arabic could help Arab children comprehend the contents of the program, and could also contribute toward one educational aim in Arab countries, and that is unity of the spoken language.

The critics indicated that some social units and experiences can be taught through television, and that Iftah Ya Simsim has been successful in this matter (Abbas, 1983). From observing the viewing pattern of the target audience, Abbas (1983) drew the conclusion that Iftah Ya Simsim does have an influence on children. This influence, according to Abbas, could be attributed in part to the various techniques, the rapid pacing and the magazine format in which the program is presented. The analysis of the children's response, according to Abbas (1983), also showed that children used what they learned from the program in their daily life.

Iftah Ya Simsim, was, as was Sesame Street, criticized for providing a passive type of learning. It was also negatively accused of being an imitation of the American Series although the same critics said that the show did provide the Arab child with elements derived from his

religious and social environment (Abbas, 1983). However, Adwan (cited by Abbas, 1983) criticized the program as depicting American lifestyle and not reflecting the child's environment.

According to Abbas (1983), a special commission of primary school supervisors, kindergarten teachers and educational television staff members, were formed in the Ministry of Education in Iraq, to review a number of Iftah Ya Simsim episodes and evaluate its educational significance for its target audience. Al-Safi (reported by Abbas, 1983) presented the following results:

- The episodes that were reviewed were successful in teaching cooperation and positive relations among children;
- The investigators believed that the language of the program was more suitable for primary school children than for the preschoolers for whom the program was designed;
- The fast pace of the program might have caused some frustration among children, which might hinder the learning process, and
- Some segments of the program were derived from the American series without considering the local needs of the Arab child.

The reviewers suggested that these segments should be replaced by local ones, particularly the social units.

In comparing Iftah Ya Simsim with Sesame Street, Alkhulaifi (1984) pointed to the fact that major differences exist between the social context of the United States and that of the Arab world, and that these differences should be reflected in the educational settings of the two programs. Despite this criticism, Iftah Ya Simsim was described by an American educational curriculum specialist as a program which is "much more than an Arabic version of Sesame Street. It is similar in that it is bright and it uses the same television tricks; but if we look at its teaching goals and its cultural context, it is completely an Arabic program" (Tracy, 1979). It should be noted, however, that the intention behind producing both series can be traced to the issue that has been discussed continuously in the research, that is, the use of television as an effective and attractive educational medium.

Summary

Research reviewed in this chapter provided several conclusions that are relevant to the present study. The review included research in the following areas: cognitive

development, role taking, social learning theory and research, television and social behavior and the effect of violent programs. In addition, aspects of prosocial television, Sesame Street and Iftah Ya Simsim television programs were reviewed. The research reviewed in this chapter has tried to determine how children perceive and comprehend the television programs they watch and how they come to acquire this knowledge, how children use the information they get from television and generalize it to other situations and in what way this medium affects children's mental and social development.

Television research has used Piaget's concept of logical operation to understand how children comprehend and interpret televised messages. Cognitive development theory regards children as active viewers who bring with them different experiences to the viewing situation (Durham, 1984).

Piaget defined four stages through which children pass. Each stage builds on the experiences and development gained in the previous one. Thus, children will not understand certain notions until they reach a certain age level. As the child moves from one stage to the next, his/her ability to comprehend and understand what s/he sees on the screen changes and develops. According to Piaget, in order to

understand a child's way of thinking at any given time, it is important to look at his/her behavior and make inferences about cognitive structure. From the cognitive perspective, the child's comprehension of what he sees is the important factor in how television affects children's behavior. If the development of the child is a result of the interaction between his/her maturation and the suitable learning experiences (Alkhulaifi, 1984), it follows that any educational experience intended for the child should be readily accessible and suitable for his/her level of cognitive development.

The cognitive development approach regards age as a determinant factor in the viewing experience and in how children understand televised messages. Role taking or the ability to put oneself in the place of another has been suggested as an important variable in studying children's understanding of television messages as well as children's development of an understanding of social interaction. Various findings of the research suggest that role taking is positively related to prosocial behavior. However, role taking as a factor in children's understanding of television has not been determined. Nevertheless, researchers suggested that different prosocial behaviors develop with age and the child's ability to take the role of another.

Social learning theory presents the idea that behavior is more a function of environmental events than a direct result of developmental stages. This theory assumes that children learn social behaviors and acquire moral standards of their society by observing models and learning from examples. Accordingly, children can learn a great deal from viewing others on television because television can provide a variety of observational learning experiences. Contrary to the cognitive development theory, which regards children as participants in their viewing experience, and which stresses the fact that children's understanding of television messages depends on their cognitive skills and social experience, social learning theory regards children as passively involved in their viewing situation, trying to comprehend and understand what they see on television. The research in this area suggests that the extent to which a child imitates behaviors s/he sees on television is greatly influenced by reinforcement received by the television model. Reinforcement, punishment and reward determine the effects of modeled behavior in Bandura's view. Research on aspects of television programs and their effects on behavior which is relevant to the present study was also discussed in this chapter.

Research showed two main points of view, the first looks at television as a dangerous force that can have negative effects on children. The other point of view regards television as a medium that can be used toward educational ends and to enhance and encourage prosocial behavior and positive attitudes.

Some researchers claim that when a child views aggression, he is more likely to become aggressive himself. Others stated the opposite, that the child will become less aggressive. The clear message that one gets from the research is that children learn from viewing television depending on what they watch (Surgeon General's Report, 1972). If children view violent programs they tend to become more aggressive, and if they look at prosocial programs, they will more likely become more generous, friendly and self controlled. The research presents the evidence that what children see on television is not a passing experience that has nothing to do with their actions (Singer and Singer, 1981).

Although research suggested that the effects of viewing programs with violent content would be different from the effects of viewing the same amount of programs with prosocial content, research has focused mainly on violent television programs and their possible effects on young

viewers. The research suggests that television viewing of aggression alters children's attitudes toward aggressive behavior in real life. The research also presents support for a relationship between viewing aggressive programs and aggressive behavior in children. The literature also suggests that the effect of television may differ for children whose typical level of aggression differ, and that high aggressive children may become more aggressive after viewing televised violence (Ridley, 1984). Bandura's studies pointed that children learn aggressive behavior simply by observing aggressive television models, and that they will behave more aggressively when placed later in a similar situation as the one viewed on television. Furthermore, research pointed out that in addition to serving as an example for learning, aggressive television models also reduce children's inhibitions about acting aggressively themselves. Cartoons and muppet shows in which animals or inanimate objects act as humans attracts the preschool child (Alkhulaifi, 1984) but people tend to regard cartoons as harmless fantasy, despite the fact that they are considered among the most violent television programs. Research has shown that children who watch violent cartoons are among the most aggressive. Research also suggests that time spent in front of television means less time devoted to

other activities important to the child's growth both intellectually and interpersonally and is associated with many changes in the socialization process. Prosocial effects of television is another area that was discussed in the research. Different trends of television research present various interpersonal considerations (McLeod et al., 1986). The research has broadened the focus of attention to effects beyond aggression and antisocial behavior to prosocial behavior. The research has also stressed the need to understand the social processes occurring between television viewing and the subsequent effects. Research suggests that television does have the capacity to influence prosocial behavior, and that children can learn such behavior from television viewing, especially if adults help them understand the material or reinforce the program message (Surgeon General's Report, 1972). However, some research (Durham, 1984), criticized laboratory studies, for not using the kind of programs children watch. Instead, laboratory studies on television and social behavior tend to use programs with simple plots containing situations that could be labelled prosocial.

The results of the studies suggested several factors that influence television viewing patterns; the attractiveness of the medium and the ease with which a child

can get the information are among the factors suggested. Research also showed that there is no one simple answer to the question of how television affects children's behavior and pointed out several interacting variables that determine what kind of effect a child can get from viewing television. Variables discussed in this chapter included the level of previous aggression, level of cognitive and social development of the child, age and gender of the child, parental guidance and control, the television program's format, justification of the televised action, and reinforcement, punishment and reward that the actor receives after performing the behavior. Efforts have been made to provide methods for enabling the child to view television more critically by defining a curriculum for television literacy.

The last body of research reviewed in this chapter dealt with Sesame Street series and its Arabic adaptation Iftah Ya Simsim. The history of the program, its instructional goals, format and evaluation tests were discussed. One learns from the research that Sesame Street served as a research laboratory for studying children's comprehension of television as well as studying the effect of this medium on children. The findings of the studies presented evidence that Sesame Street program is associated

with positive effects and gains despite some negative criticism the program received as a fast paced, passive learning program. Sesame Street has also been studied and adapted outside the United States. One of these adaptations discussed in this chapter is the Arabic program Iftah Ya Simsim. Research on Iftah Ya Simsim is lacking in the literature, although Iftah Ya Simsim is considered the first Arabic program aimed at the Arab child. This program has not received the attention of the researchers. The few studies that are available dealt mainly with preproduction and formative evaluation. The research available on the effect of the program, pointed out its popularity both among children's and educators, and showed that it has fulfilled its aim in educating the preschool child. Despite the criticism the program received as being alien to the Arab culture and environment, Iftah Ya Simsim has been welcomed in the Arab world as an educational program that is produced with the intention of using television for its educational and beneficial ends.

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

In designing this study, the researcher took special care in selecting and assigning children to each of the two edited programs. Abbas (1983) presented the idea that in order for the sample to be appropriate, and to yield as much data as possible, it must be applicable to the rest of the population. Schickedanz, et al. (1982) pointed out that children in two study groups should not be different in any way that might explain variations in behavior. If the groups were initially different it would be difficult to determine whether the programs had any effect on the children who watched them. Because the current study deals with developmental issues, the researcher made sure that selected children did not differ initially in their cognitive development (except what was attributed to their age difference), and their socioeconomic background. This carefully selected sample should allow the researcher to determine whether any difference in the children's behavior

after viewing the assigned television programs can be attributed to the program, and not to any variable other than that, which the children might have brought with them to the experimental setting.

The sample of this study was defined as children of both sexes between the ages of five and six years of age who watch television at home and who attend kindergarten in areas similar in living conditions and socioeconomic background. Sturm and Jorg reported by Alkhulaifi (1984), found that five year olds differ from six and seven year olds in their ability to respond to pictorial material and that six and seven year olds possess a greater ability to understand and comprehend a televised message. The subjects for this study were 60 children, 30 boys and 30 girls, attending two day care centers in the lower middle class areas of Alhala in Muharraq and Budaia on the Islands of Bahrain.

Population

Budaia and Suburbs

This area has a population that is widely scattered, with several urban communities around Budaia itself, some of which are highly populated. Parents in this area are

educated at least to the level of reading and writing or at most up to high school. the area boasts lower to middle individual incomes. Professions are small businesses, small retail, clerical and manual. Very few facilities are available for children. Accommodations are low to moderate in quality.

Alhala in Muharrag

This area has the following characteristics: mid-level income, middle education level of parents, mainly clerical, manual, or small businesses, it has moderate accommodations, and few facilities available for children, such as parks and playgrounds.

As these children come from lower middle class families with mid-level education at most, the effect of television on their behavior is not likely to be monitored or modified by parents. Parents in these families are also less likely than more educated parents to watch television at home with their children and to thus encounter their reaction to what they watch, or explain and discuss what they see together. The majority of children in the sample watched television. Thus, comparison between children who watch television and those who do not was not possible.

Instruments

A Television Program with Prosocial Behavior

One 30-minute television program which contains episodes from Iftah Ya Simsim that deal with prosocial behavior was edited for this study (Appendix A). Although Iftah Ya Simsim devotes a small percentage of its content to social behavior, categories like cooperation are among those presented in the program.

A Television Program with Antisocial Behavior

One 30-minute television program containing episodes from programs that present negative social behavior such as Batman, Superman, and some negative social segments from Iftah Ya Simsim, was edited for this study (Appendix B).

Criteria for Selecting Program Material

Flapan (1968) suggested the following criteria for selecting film material for researchers to take into consideration when selecting the instrument for studies that measure children's behavior. Flapan's criteria were used to select the material for this study's edited programs.

- 1) The sound film should present a situation that has some similarity to the experience of most children

(as judged by the investigator);

- 2) The sound film should consist primarily of dialogue and overt action to be interpreted, rather than narration that interprets the scene for the viewer;
- 3) The sound film should be able to hold the interest of child observers;
- 4) The sound film should present behavior that could elicit responses at different levels of complexity, ranging from reports of obvious happenings to more sophisticated interpretation, and
- 5) The sound film should portray a variety of family relationships and a variety of social situations.

Observation Checklist

The researcher designed a checklist to observe and to facilitate coding. The checklist contained coding columns for the three-level scale (Appendix C). The social categories and their definitions were chosen from categories available in the literature (Stevenson & Stevenson, 1961; Wright, 1967; Hutt and Hutt, 1970; Leifer, 1972; Quanty and Davis, 1974; Stephens, 1978; Vasta, 1979; Irwin & Bushnell, 1980, and Singer & Singer, 1981).

Prior to observing the subjects, the researcher defined the behavioral categories that might manifest cooperation

and aggression. In order to facilitate coding, the researcher also defined and explained the subcategories under each level of cooperation and aggression. Neutral behaviors such as visual attention or conversation were excluded. While some investigators have coded behaviors such as conversation and visual attention as neutral, others have coded them within the positive interaction category (La Greca and Stark, 1986). In this study neutral behaviors that were not clearly positive or negative were excluded. The researcher chose the categories to be related to what is expected of a preschool child in the cultural context of Bahrain.

Three levels of behavior were defined for each of the categories (3.2.1) (Appendix C). Thus, a score of 3 represented the highest exhibition of that behavior. A score of 2 suggested inconsistency in behavior, while a score of 1 reflected the minimum exhibition of that behavior. Each behavior was coded as it appeared under the appropriate level of the behavior.

Behavioral Categories under Investigation

Two behavioral categories were measured on a three-level scale as follows:

I. Cooperation: child cooperates by exhibiting one or more of the following behaviors:

A. A score of three (3) was given to the child when s/he exhibited the behavior in one of the following ways:

1. Cooperative play: playing together with a peer.

Verbally inviting a peer to join in a play situation or accepting invitation of a peer to join in play, using the same toy with a peer, or allowing a peer to play with a toy or equipment s/he is using.

2. Sharing materials or equipment: verbally accepting a peer's offer to share material or offering to share material with a peer or offering to exchange material with a peer. Non-verbally, passing or handling material to a peer when both want to have it. Two or more children using the same material simultaneously.

3. Following rules: waiting for turn when playing a game by sitting or standing patiently, watching the game while waiting without interrupting.

Knowing and following classroom rules: having to clean up, to wait for turn. Complying with requests of an adult in authority: you have to wash your hands; you are not allowed to do this. Responding to actions and questions with a smile or nod.

4. Facilitating: giving help to a peer or offering to help a peer without being asked; showing a peer how to use materials or how to play a game; asking a peer for help.

B. A score of two (2) was given to the child when s/he displayed the behavior in one of the following ways:

1. Associative play. Engaging in social play with another child; interacting, borrowing and lending material; engaging in similar activity but not together; interacting below the level of cooperative play; or parallel play; playing side-by-side with a peer using similar toys but playing independently.
2. Unspontaneous sharing and cooperation. Not taking initiative in sharing, but waiting to be asked to do so. Showing reluctance before accepting an invitation to share. Sharing material with other children but not waiting for turn. Sharing is not

spontaneous, but depends on peer or on a physical stimulus: a peer or a teacher asking or taking the child by hand to a situation where he can cooperate or share. Offering material only when he was done with it.

3. Following the rules upon request. Following the rules when reminded; "you have to wait for your turn," "you have to tidy up"; waiting for turn while playing a game but showing signs of restlessness, not standing, sitting, or watching the game while waiting. Responding to actions and questions without a sign of affect.

C. The child was given a score of one (1) when s/he displayed the behavior in one of the following ways:

1. Solitary play. Playing alone with toys that were different from others; doing something no other person was involved in; pursuing the activity without paying attention to what the others are doing.
2. Refusal to share or cooperate. Refusing to cooperate in play or in interaction with peers; showing no affect when a peer issues a request to cooperate; not showing a clear response to peers' approach; hanging back or drawing back from others

some of the times; keeping distance from others; not showing materials to others, making no effort to get close to or speak with other children; not subordinating his interests for the group's, acting as he wishes, but not showing any sign of aggression.

3. Failing to obey rules. Failing to obey instructions and requests; not following rules; not waiting for turn or participating in tidying up or cleaning, but not showing any sign of aggression.

II. Aggression

A. The child was given a score of three (3) when s/he exhibited the behavior in one of the following ways:

1. Physical attack. Physically attacking others (pushing, hitting, striking or fighting).
2. Physical interference. Interfering with actions of other children (attempted destruction of games).
3. Attempted destruction of property. Grabbing and/or breaking objects belonging to another child; pushing the toys off the table or kicking them away.

4. Physical social control. Pulling or pushing others toward an activity, or threatening and hitting in an attempt to get someone to do something.
- B. The child was given a score of two (2) when s/he exhibited the behavior in one of the following ways:
1. Verbal hostility. Displaying verbal hostility to other children ("I hate you. You are stupid. I don't like playing with you").
 2. Signs of restlessness. Moving around, bumping into other children and toys without showing signs of regret or apology.
 3. Disruption of games: Disrupting others' games or play space, deliberately seeking a space or material for her/himself, or enforcing her/himself on others.
 4. Verbal threat. Gesturally or verbally threatening another person, but there was no direct physical attack.
- C. The child was given a score of one (1) when s/he exhibited the behavior in one of the following ways:
1. Showing signs of apology. When bumping into or knocking over toys, s/he shows signs of regret (running to the teacher, crying).

2. Avoiding fighting. Showing a sign of anger, but walking away from peers when angry to avoid hitting or fighting.
3. Non-aggressive anger. Expressing anger with non-aggressive words rather than physical action or aggressive words.

Procedure

Selection of Subjects

The subjects for this study were located by contacting the directors of local day care centers. The subjects within each age group were randomly selected and assigned to one of the two groups (Table 1). Consent was obtained from the parents of the selected kindergarten children (Appendices D and E).

Experimental Arrangement

The researcher trained a co-observer who coded children on a separate coding sheet in order to obtain the best possible reliability. The co-observer studied the categories and the coding system before observation. However, to obtain better reliability, the coobserver was unaware of the contents of the two edited programs that the

Table 2

Distribution of Children in Group I and Group II

Age/Group/Gender	Daycare Center		
	Budaia	Alhala	Total
<u>5 year olds</u>			
<u>Group I</u>			
Male	3	4	7
Female	4	4	8
<u>Group II</u>			
Male	4	4	8
Female	3	4	7
<u>6 year olds</u>			
<u>Group I</u>			
Male	4	3	7
Female	4	4	8
<u>Group II</u>			
Male	4	4	8
Female	4	3	7
Total	30	30	60

subjects of the study viewed. The experiment took place in two of the day care center rooms free from other activities and interruptions. The study used direct observation, predetermined categories and an event sampling technique to assess group differences. Each child was assigned randomly to one of the two conditions: the prosocial or the antisocial program. The two groups were then divided randomly into subgroups of five for observation and viewing, yielding 12 subgroups.

Each day, for six days two subgroups were observed and rated. Children were chosen for observation according to an established order. When a child was absent, the next child on the list was observed instead, and the absent child later took his/her place. Children in the first group were observed in an experimental play situation for pretesting for 30 minutes, and were then taken to the viewing room while the second group was being observed for pretesting in the experimental situation.

After viewing the assigned program, the first group was put into the same experimental situation as the pretesting one, for posttesting. The posttesting observation lasted for 30 minutes. In the meantime, the second group was viewing the assigned program. By the time the testing of the first group was over, the second group was led, after

viewing, to be observed in the experimental situation for posttesting.

A structured situation was created during which children sat at a table around a long piece of paper and worked with art material to produce a specific picture. Ten minutes of observation in this setting was carried out for each group. In the next 10 minutes, after finishing the picture children were observed in situations similar to those that appeared in the prosocial television program (Appendix A). They were given a cookie, a slice of bread with some cheese, and an apple. The teacher instructed them to eat the food the way they liked; the researcher could then observe whether they were going to share or fight over the food. This exercise was especially significant because the situations identically mirrored ones presented in the prosocial program in which characters shared the same kind of food. In the remaining 10 minutes, children were given a variety of toys that could be used either independently or cooperatively. Stein and Friedrich (1973) stated that presenting characters and objects from prosocial programs as well as socially beneficial occupations and activities might stimulate children to rehearse and elaborate televised prosocial behavior in the play. The factor of stimulation was observed in the current study by

providing the children with muppet dolls representing characters in both programs and with objects similar to those in the program: Ernie and Bert (Anis and Badr) from the prosocial program; Spiderman, Batman, and Superman from the antisocial program. Children's interaction with and attitudes to the muppets were observed and coded as negative or positive.

The observers were sitting in the playroom with the subjects, but attempts were made to keep them out of the direct attention of the children. A video camera was used to record details of the children's behavior for reliability measures.

Consent Form

Before testing, parents of children participating in the study were asked to sign a consent form (see Appendices D and E). The form described the research study and the tests to be used. It also explained that the results of this study will be used in a doctoral dissertation in which individual names and test scores will remain anonymous.

The Effect Measure

The prosocial and antisocial programs hereafter in this chapter are called "program one" and "program two." The

effect of program one and program two upon the behavior of children who viewed them was assessed by observing and by scoring each child on each category in two 30-minute sessions at two points of time. A) immediately prior to the exposure to the program, and B) immediately after viewing the program. The same evaluation was used for group one and group two. Two subgroups of five children were selected randomly for viewing and observation every day. Over a period of six days every child in the two groups was able to view one of the two programs and was observed and tested for social behavior. All cooperative and aggressive behaviors which occurred were recorded in the appropriate category level of the behavior (3, 2, or 1) on the checklist. Each target behavior was coded as it appeared.

The scores of a child for negative or positive social behavior were calculated as follows: for each child the number of scores under each level of each category was multiplied by the level number of the category under which the behavior occurred. For example, if a child scored 6 under level 3, 4 under level 2 and 1 under level 1, in the cooperation category, his/her score was calculated in the following way: $(6 \times 3) + (4 \times 2) + (1 \times 1) = 27$. This measure was repeated for each child twice in each observation, once for cooperative behavior, and once for

aggressive behavior.

Reliability

Arrington (in Hutt and Hutt, 1970) warns that "Reliability of results tends to vary universally with the amount of behavior observed, that is, the fewer the number of behavior items observed by one person at a given time, the more reliable the observation." They also observed that "one of the most frequent causes of disagreement was the lack of clarity in the definition of the behavior to be observed."

Efforts were made in the present study to limit the behaviors to two categories. Efforts were also made to specifically define and clarify the behaviors under observation on three levels of action. Before the experiment five children of each group were observed with the categories in the same situation to measure the accuracy and validity of the procedure. Slight changes were made in the experimental arrangements and some behaviors had to be combined together or changed.

Although the categories were based on behaviors that were measured in previous studies, the two categories that this study was concerned with (cooperation and aggression) had been discussed and agreed upon by two specialists in

child psychology and development.

Two observers participated in observing and coding children in a kindergarten setting for reliability measures. In this study the data over each of the two categories was combined and the amount of agreement between the two observers on the occurrence of any behavior was calculated following Vasta's procedure. Vasta (1979) suggested an approach to compare the total number of agreements of the occurrence of a behavior with the total number of agreements plus disagreements of its occurrence. Thus, reliability =

$$\frac{\text{number of agreements}}{\text{number of agreements} + \text{number of disagreements}} \times 100 = \%$$

For example, if the observers have 20 points to agree upon, and the number of agreements was 12 and the number of disagreements was 8, the calculation would be

$$\begin{array}{r} 12 \\ \hline 12 + 8 \end{array} \times 100 = 60\%$$

Based on Vasta's approach, the amount of agreement between the observers in this study was 75% and it was increased after comparing with the video tapes to 90%.

The videotape recording of the children under observations during the pretest and posttest experimental situation was done to enhance reliability. These tapes allowed the investigator to 1) compare the records of each observer with the tape, and 2) go back to the tape whenever there was doubt or disagreement between the two observers over a child's action.

Validity

The validity measures according to Arrington (in Hutt and Hutt, 1970), is a function of three factors: 1) the naturalness of the behavior observed, 2) the accuracy with which it was recorded, and 3) the adequacy with which it was sampled. If the obtained indices are interpreted solely as measures of the observed frequency of the behavior under the conditions of observation, validity is synonymous with reliability.

The content validity in this study stems from the fact that all items dealt with social behaviors that have been tested and observed in several studies dealing with the same subject. It was assumed that the test items sample the

domain of possible items and represent the intended content area.

Design and Data Analysis

The researcher was conducting an experimental study, aiming at investigating the effect of two television programs (one with prosocial behavior and the other with antisocial behavior) on the behavior displayed by children in an experimental setting. The study employed two different analyses of data.

Mann Whitney U Analysis. Six Mann Whitney U Analyses were employed using the gain scores: one for comparing the two groups on aggressive behavior and one for comparing the two groups on cooperative behavior; one for aggressive behavior, and one for cooperative behavior comparing males with females, and one for aggressive behavior and one for cooperative behavior comparing five year olds with six year olds.

Chi Square and the Phi Coefficient. The relationship between gender and target behaviors as well as age and target behaviors was further investigated by calculating the Phi Coefficient based on a simple Chi Square. The significance of the Phi Coefficient was determined by the

square root value of the Chi Square at .05 level of significance.

Summary

This chapter explained and discussed the methods and procedures that were employed to conduct this study. The subjects and the population from which these subjects were drawn were studied, and the two Bahraini districts and their characteristics were both identified and described. The sample technique, the sample size and allocation in the two districts were given. Instruments used in the research and the criteria for selecting the program material were delineated, as were both television programs and the observation checklist. This chapter also included details of the two behavioral categories and their subcategories which were under investigation

The procedure section presented the method of selecting the subjects, the experimental arrangement and procedures (i.e., viewing and observation arrangements), and the parents' consent form. The chapter also discussed the effect measures of the two programs on the children's behavior, the number of groups, their size and assignment procedure and data collection procedure and measurement.

Reliability and validity were also discussed.

The last section dealt with the design of the study and with data analysis technique and procedures.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the content of specific television programs and the behavior exhibited by children subsequent to viewing, as well as the relationship between the exhibited behavior and the gender and age of the child. This chapter presents the results of the data analysis related to the study.

The study employed two different analysis of data to test the following hypotheses:

1. Children who view the program which models prosocial behavior are more likely to display cooperative behavior after viewing than children who view the program which contains negative social behavior.
2. Children who view the program that depicts negative social behavior are more likely to display negative behavior after viewing than children who view the program that depicts prosocial behavior.

3. Boys and girls display cooperative behavior differently. Girls are more likely to display cooperation after viewing than boys.
4. Boys and girls display aggressive behavior differently. Boys are more likely to display aggression after viewing than girls.
5. Five and six year olds display cooperative behavior differently.
6. Five and six year olds display aggressive behavior differently.

Two different analyses were employed in this study.

They were:

- 1) Six Mann-Whitney U Analyses--based on gain scores to test Hypotheses 1 through 6.
- 2) Analysis of Chi Square and the Phi Coefficient--employed to further investigate Hypotheses 3 through 6.

The results of this investigation are presented here in six sections. Sections one and two examine the results for the first two hypotheses. Sections three and four present the results for hypotheses 3 and 4. Sections 5 and 6 examined the results for hypotheses 5 and 6.

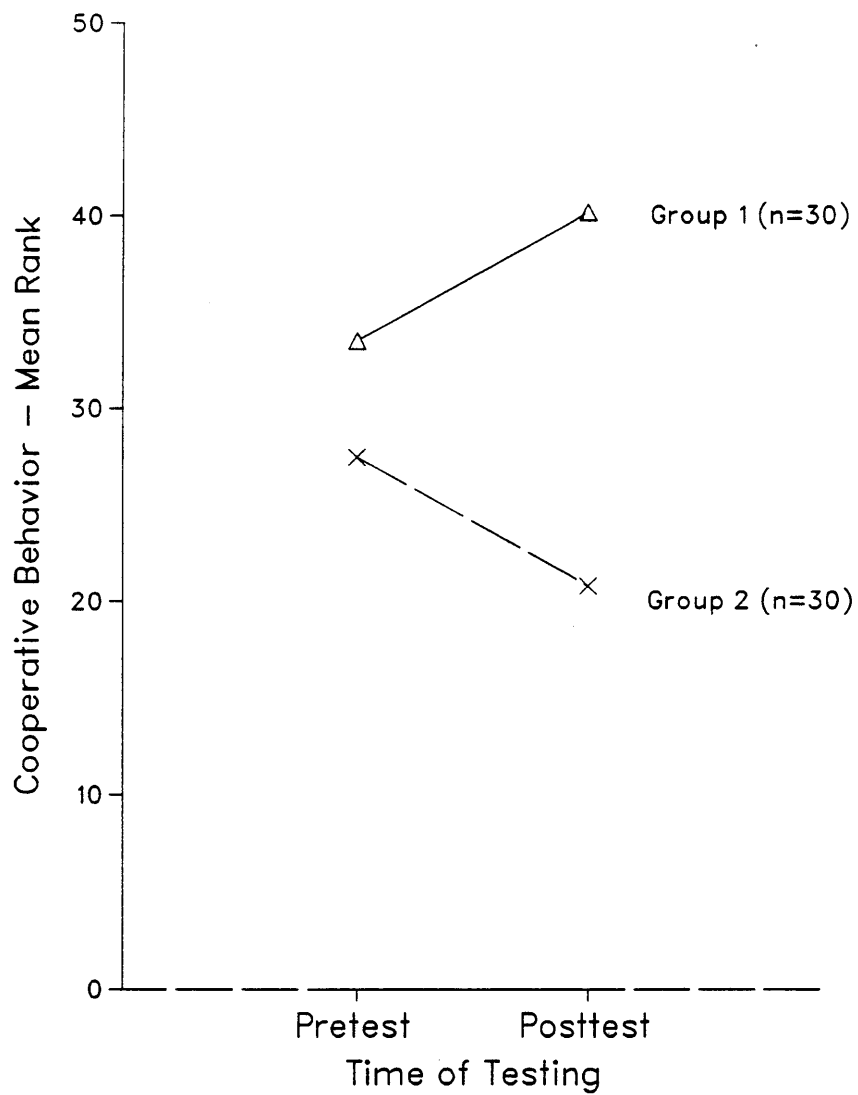
Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 postulated that there would be a difference in displaying cooperative behavior between the children in group one, who viewed a program portraying prosocial behavior, and those in group two, who viewed a program exhibiting negative social behavior. That difference would be manifested by a display of more cooperative behavior on the part of the group one children.

To test this hypothesis, the researcher used gain scores on cooperative behavior.

Table 3 below compares the gain scores of the two groups using the Mann Whitney U Test. The table shows that group one gained significantly more than group two on cooperative behavior ($U=156.0$, $<.001$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was confirmed (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Pretest and Posttest Mean Ranks on Cooperative Behavior by Experimental Group



Note: Group 1 watched program with prosocial behavior.
Group 2 watched program with antisocial behavior.

Table 3

Mann Whitney U Tests on Cooperative Behavior Score by
Experimental Groups

	Group one	Group two		
	Mean Rank	Mean Rank	Mann	
<u>Cooperation Variable</u>	(n=30)	(n=30)	Whitney U	P
Cooperation Pretest	33.52	27.48	359.5	n.s.
Cooperation Posttest	40.20	20.80	159.0	<.001
<u>Cooperation Gain Scores</u>	40.30	20.70	156.0	<.001

Hypothesis 2

It was hypothesized that there would be a difference in displaying aggressive behavior between children in group one who viewed a program with prosocial behavior and those in group two who viewed a program with negative social behavior. It was also postulated that children in group two would display more aggressive behavior after viewing. To test this hypothesis, the researcher used gain scores on aggressive behavior.

Table 4 below compares the gain scores of the two groups using the Mann Whitney U test. The table suggests

that group two gained significantly more than group one on aggressive behavior ($U = 292.5$, $<.02$). Thus Hypothesis 2 was supported and confirmed (see Figure 2).

Table 4

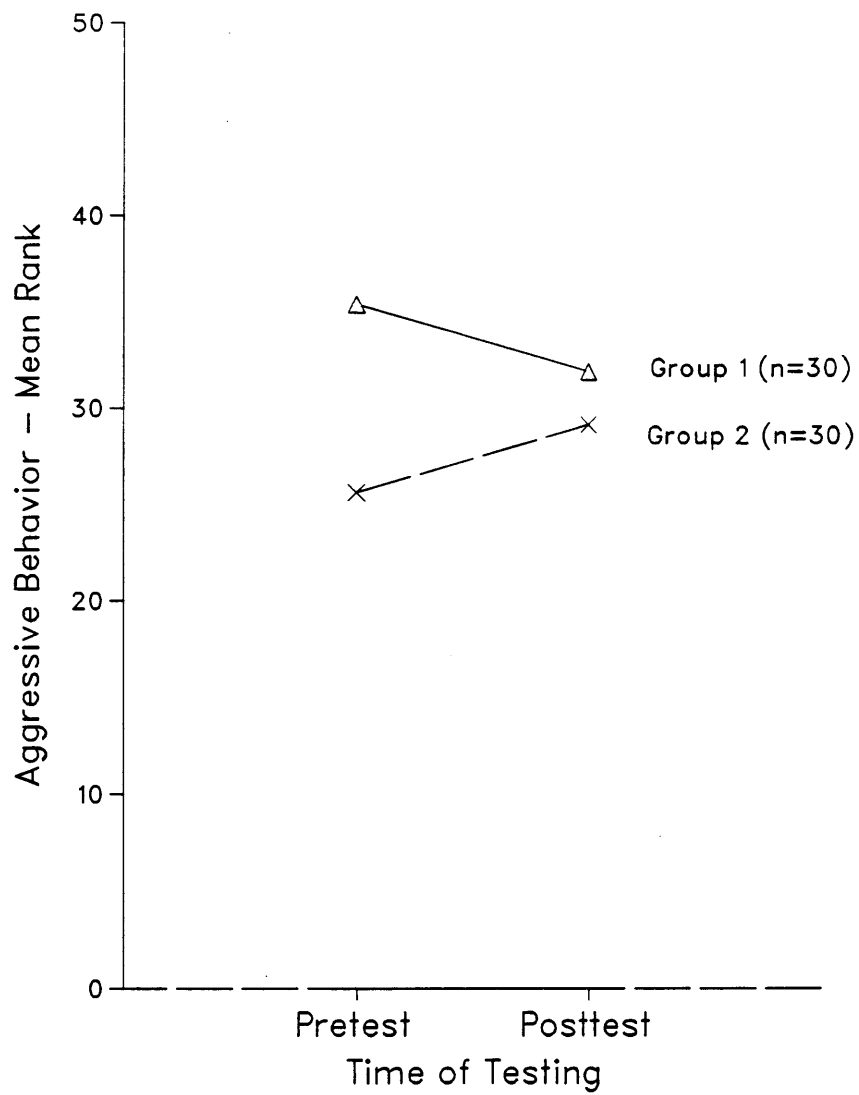
Mann-Whitney U Tests on Aggressive Behavior by Experimental Group

	Group One	Group Two	Mann	
<u>Aggression Variable</u>	<u>Mean Rank (n=30)</u>	<u>Mean Rank (n=30)</u>	<u>Whitney U</u>	<u>P</u>
Aggression Pretest	35.38	25.62	303.5	$<.02$
Aggression Posttest	31.87	29.13	409.0	ns
<u>Aggression-Gain Scores</u>	25.25	35.75	292.5	$<.02$

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 projected a difference between males and females in displaying cooperative behavior. It was also assumed that females are more likely to show cooperation than are males. In Table 5 the Mann Whitney U test on cooperative behavior gain scores by gender is shown. As can be seen from the table, no significant difference occurred between males and females on the cooperative behavior gain scores ($U = 447.5$, ns). The researcher also employed

Figure 2. Pretest and Posttest Mean Ranks on Aggressive Behavior by Experimental Group



Note: Group 1 watched program with prosocial behavior.
Group 2 watched program with antisocial behavior.

analysis of Chi Square and the Phi Coefficient to further test the relationship between gender and cooperation. The Median test on cooperative gain scores by gender is displayed in Table 6. The results suggest a negative relationship between gender and target behavior and show no significant difference between males and females on cooperative behavior (Chi Square=.067, not significant at .05 level of significance). Since no difference was found using either statistical test, it can be concluded that the data did not confirm Hypothesis 3.

Table 5

Mann-Whitney U Test on Cooperative Behavior Gain Scores by Gender

	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Mann Whitney U</u>	<u>P</u>
	<u>Males (n=30)</u>	<u>Females (n=30)</u>		
Mean Rank	30.58	30.42	447.5	ns

Table 6

Chi Square Test on Cooperative Behavior Gain Scores by Gender

		<u>Cooperative Gain Scores</u>	
		Greater than Median	Less than or Equal to Median
Gender	Male	13	17
	Female	15	15

Chi Square = .067, ns

Hypothesis 4

This hypothesis proposed that there would be a difference between males and females in displaying aggressive behavior, and that males would be more likely to show aggressive behavior than females. Table 7 shows the Mann Whitney U test on aggression gain scores by gender. The table suggests no significant difference between males and females on the aggressive behavior gain scores (U=404, ns). Analysis of the Chi Square and the Phi Coefficient to test the relationship between gender and

aggression was employed. The Median test on aggression gain scores by gender is displayed in Table 8. The results in this table confirm the evidence provided in Table 7 that no significant difference exists between males and females on aggressive behavior (Chi Square = .067, ns), Phi = .033). The statistical tests did not indicate any difference between males and females. In other words, the relationship between gender and behavior does not differ significantly as a function of the sex of the child. Hypothesis 4 was not confirmed.

Table 7

Mann-Whitney U Test on Aggressive Behavior Gain Scores by Gender

	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Mann Whitney U</u>	<u>P</u>
	<u>Males (n=30)</u>	<u>Females (n=30)</u>		
Mean Rank	32.03	28.97	404.0	ns

Table 8

Chi-Square on Aggressive Behavior Gain Scores by Gender

		<u>Aggressive Gain Scores</u>	
		<u>Greater than Median</u>	<u>Less than or Equal to Median</u>
Gender	Male	15	15
	Female	15	15

Chi-Square = .067, ns

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 anticipated age differences between five and six year olds in displaying cooperative behavior. Table 9 shows the Mann Whitney U test on cooperative gain scores by age. No significant difference between the scores of older and younger children on the cooperative behavior gain scores was found ($U=404.0$, ns). Analysis of the Chi Square and the Phi Coefficient was employed to test the relationship between age and cooperation. The Chi Square test on cooperative gain scores by age appears in Table 10.

The test showed no significant difference between five and six year olds on cooperative behavior (Chi Square = .603, ns) Phi = .10). Since no difference was found using either statistical test, it can be concluded that the data did not confirm Hypothesis 5.

Table 9

Mann-Whitney U Test on Cooperative Behavior Gain Scores by Age

	<u>Age</u>		<u>Mann Whitney U</u>	<u>P</u>
	<u>5 Year olds (n=30)</u>	<u>6 Year olds (n=30)</u>		
Mean Rank	32.03	28.97	404.0	ns

Table 10

Chi Square on Cooperative Behavior Gain Scores by Age

		<u>Cooperative Gain Scores</u>	
		<u>Greater than Median</u>	<u>Less than or Equal to Median</u>
Age	Male	16	14
	Female	12	18

Chi-Square = .603, ns at .05

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 predicted that there would be a difference between five and six year olds in displaying aggressive behavior. Table 11 shows the Mann Whitney U test on aggressive gain scores by age. No significant difference between the scores of older and younger children was shown ($U = 410.5$, ns). Further analysis of the Chi Square and Phi Coefficient was employed to test the relationship between age and aggression. The Median test on aggressive gain scores by age appears in Table 12. Again, the test reveals no significant difference between 5 year olds and 6 year olds in relation to aggressive behavior (Chi Square=0.600, ns). Since no difference was found using either statistical tests, it can be concluded that the data did not support Hypothesis 6.

Table 11

Mann-Whitney U Test on Aggressive Behavior Gain Scores by Age

	Age Group		Mann Whitney U	P
	<u>5 Year olds (n=30)</u>	<u>6 Year olds (n=30)</u>		
Mean Rank	31.82	29.18	410.5	ns

Table 12

Chi Square on Aggressive Behavior Gain Scores by Age

		Aggressive Gain Scores	
		Greater than Median	Less than or Equal to Median
Age	5	17	13
	6	13	17

Chi-Square = 0.600, ns at .05

Taken together, the results suggest a link between exposure to violent and prosocial television programming and aggressive and cooperative behavior. On the other hand, these results did not confirm any relationship between gender or sex and target behaviors.

Summary

This chapter presented the results of data analysis. It stated the hypotheses to be tested, the data analysis technique and procedures, the tests the researcher used in the analysis, and the results. Six hypotheses were tested,

employing 1) Six Mann Whitney U Analyses to compare the two groups on cooperative and negative behavior, to compare males' and females' cooperative and negative behavior, and to compare five and six year olds on both behaviors, and 2) analysis of the Chi Square and the Phi Coefficient to further test the relationship between gender and target behavior and age and target behavior in the two groups. The results of data analysis showed significant differences between children in group one who viewed a program with prosocial behavior, and children in group II, who viewed a program with antisocial behavior. The results also showed significant differences between the two groups on aggressive behavior. Thus, the data confirmed Hypotheses 1 and 2. On the other hand, the analysis of the Mann Whitney U and the Chi Square and Phi Coefficient showed no significant relationship between gender and target behavior, and age and target behavior. Thus, the data did not confirm hypotheses 3, 4, 5, and 6.

Chapter V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The major purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of television programs on children's social behavior, in two groups, following viewing of one of two programs: 1) a program with prosocial content and 2) a program with antisocial content. In addition, a secondary purpose was to investigate the relationship between gender and target behaviors (cooperation and aggression) and age and target behaviors.

Data for the study was collected by observing 30 children pre- and post-viewing of a program with prosocial behavior, and 30 children pre- and post-viewing of a program with antisocial behavior. The children's behavior was observed and coded on a three-level scale in an experimental setting that included situations and muppet characters similar to those that appeared in the programs.

The following section presents a discussion of major findings of this study in relation to pertinent literature.

Data for this study has provided both anticipated and unanticipated results regarding the influence of television on children's behavior.

Hypothesis 1

The hypothesis that children in group one who viewed a program with prosocial behavior, are more likely to display more cooperative behavior after viewing the program than children in group two who viewed a program with negative social behavior, was supported by the findings of the data. The researcher employed Wilcoxon tests of significance comparing the pretest and posttest scores within each group. Table 13 shows within group pretest-posttest scores comparisons on cooperative behavior within group one. It reveals a significant increase in mean rank from pretest to post-test (11.75 to 13.82). This increase in mean indicates that the cooperative behavior within this group increased after viewing the assigned program ($Z = 3.26$, $P < .001$). Table 13 also shows within group pretest-posttest and a comparison of cooperative behavior within group two, who viewed the program with negative social behavior. The mean rank on cooperative behavior for this group showed a significant decrease, that is, its cooperative score

decreased (13.71 to 7.17), $Z = 2.89$ $p < .004$).

Table 13

Within-Group Pretest-Posttest Comparisons on Cooperative Behaviors

Group One (n=30)		
Pretest-	Posttest-	Wilcoxon Test of
<u>Mean Rank</u>	<u>Mean Rank</u>	<u>Significance</u>
11.75	13.82	$Z = 3.26, p < .001$
Group Two (n=30)		
Pretest-	Posttest-	Wilcoxon Test of
<u>Mean Rank</u>	<u>Mean Rank</u>	<u>Significance</u>
13.71	7.17	$Z = 2.89, p < .004$

The results of the data analysis indicated a significant increase in the cooperative behavior of children in group one. These children also showed more cooperation than children in group two. These findings are consistent with the work of Rushton (1982). According to Rushton, children who watched television films of affectionate behavior were more likely to express similar affection than children who had not seen such behavior on television. The results are also consistent with the findings of a number of studies, which indicated that child viewers can learn

positive lessons from programs that contain socially desirable behaviors (Sprafkin and Rubinstein, 1979; Baran, et al., 1979), and that certain programs can facilitate positive behaviors in children (Schuetz and Sprafkin, 1979). Friedrich and Stein (1975) also demonstrated that children exposed to constructive programs on television would increase their practices of prosocial behavior.

Although previous research has shown that positive effects are not as great as negative effects when preschoolers are involved, the results of the current study have shown significant positive effects among children who viewed the television program with prosocial content.

Silverman and Sprafkin (1980) suggested a technique of prosocial teaching by television, which involves presenting totally prosocial situations that portray only those desirable social behaviors which one wants to encourage. Another technique of inducing prosocial behavior in young children, according to Leifer (in Silverman and Sprafkin, 1980), involves presenting conflict situations which are resolved in a prosocial manner. Such presentation will provide the child with concrete examples or identifying situations in which prosocial solutions are both appropriate and rewarded.

In the current study, children in group one were shown an edited program that contained selected segments from Iftah Ya Simsim, portraying, among other prosocial behaviors, some conflict situations which were discussed and resolved by the characters in a friendly atmosphere and approach. These conflicts were repeated to the subjects in the experimental situation before and after they viewed the program. The children exhibited more understanding of the conflict situations after viewing than before and were able to solve the problems in the same manner as that shown in the program. It is interesting to note, however, that most children who tried to solve conflicts in a friendly manner did so tentatively before watching the program, but became more confident and conscious of the friendly approach after viewing. It is also worth mentioning that some of the children in group two who did not see this program tried to solve the conflicts after viewing in a tentatively friendly way, but with no clear positive results.

Some of the conflict situations that were presented in the program and later in the experimental situation, involved sharing a slice of bread and cheese, a cookie and an apple. The results indicate that children did learn from the program and that carefully presented prosocial behaviors could have an effect on children's manners and behaviors.

These results offer support to the results in some of the research regarding Sesame Street and Mr. Rogers' Neighborhood. This research has shown that children who watch Sesame Street and Mr. Rogers' Neighborhood are somewhat less likely to be aggressive (Singer and Singer, 1981), and that children who viewed Sesame Street behaved more cooperatively in test situations than nonviewers (Paulson, 1974). The results are also consistent with the indications of Stein et al. (1972) that children who saw a brief episode that stressed sharing, demonstrated increased generosity to a friend immediately after viewing. Stein and Friedrich also discovered that nursery school children who saw television prosocial behavior, such as helping, sharing and tolerance of delay, imitated these behaviors with their peers shortly after viewing. Additionally, Liebart and Poulos (1975) demonstrated that the occurrence of a particular prosocial act (helping) in a commercial program increases the occurrence of similar behavior in young children.

In the current study, children demonstrated kindness and helping attitudes toward peers after viewing the prosocial program. They also showed self control and more disciplined behavior than did children in the other group. The most common acts of behavior within group one were

sharing, facilitating and cooperating in play. The group willingly followed rules upon request by the teacher.

After viewing, children became more familiar with the muppet dolls that represented Anis and Badr (Ernie and Bert) who appeared in some of the program's conflict situations. They played with the dolls gently and lovingly. The children in group one also handled dolls of Spiderman and Batman characters in the same gentle way most of the time. Some children treated them with kindness and love. However, some of the boys in group one displayed some aggressive behavior when dealing with the Spiderman and Batman dolls. The only explanation is that this exhibit of aggressive behavior could be attributed to children having previously viewed these characters in their original aggressive roles.

Hypothesis 2

This hypothesis asserted that children in group two who viewed a program with negative social behavior would increase their aggressive behavior after viewing and that they would likely to do so than children in group one. The analysis of the data yielded strong supporting evidence for this prediction. The researcher used the Wilcoxon test of significance to compare the pretest-posttest within each

group. Table 14 displays within group pretest-posttest scores and a comparison on aggressive behavior within group two, who viewed the program with negative social behavior. The table shows a significant increase in mean rank from pretest to posttest (10.25 to 11.63). The increase in mean indicates that the aggressive behavior increased ($Z = 3.44$, $p < .001$). Table 14 also analyzes within group pretest-posttest and comparison on aggressive behavior within group one who viewed the program with prosocial behavior. Although there was a decrease in the mean rank, this

Table 14

Within-Group Pretest-Posttest Comparisons on Aggressive Behaviors

Group One (n=30)		
Pretest	Posttest	Wilcoxon Test
<u>Mean Rank</u>	<u>Mean Rank</u>	<u>Significance</u>
16.05	12.79	$Z = .68$, ns
Group Two (n=30)		
Pretest	Posttest	Wilcoxon Test of
<u>Mean Rank</u>	<u>Mean Rank</u>	<u>Significance</u>
10.25	11.63	$Z = 3.44$, $p < .001$

decrease was not statistically significant (16.05 - 12.79, $Z = .68$, n.s.).

These results reinforce the findings of many other studies in the field. Bandura (1977) has shown that children learn about violence from watching television, that they learn to imitate violent behavioral models and that violent television program content can increase the aggressive behavior of children.

Stein et al. (1972) also pointed out that children at play in a nursery school setting will increase the level of aggressive acts after daily viewing of a program like Batman. Studies by Noble (cited in Singer and Singer, 1981) also pointed out aggressive behavior following exposure to an aggressive-in-content film. The research according to Singer and Singer (1981) suggests that a strong and stable relationship indeed exists between television viewing and patterns of aggressive behavior among preschool children. In the current study, children in group two viewed a program that consisted of segments which portrayed negative social behavior edited for the purpose of this study from different cartoon shows like Superman, Batman, Muppet Show, and other cartoons. Research has shown that televised cartoon violence hinders the education of prosocial behavior by teaching young children antisocial behaviors, and by

obstructing their learning of altruistic and self-regulatory behaviors. In a study by Bandura et al. (1963a), children who viewed violent cartoon exhibited considerably more imitative physical and verbal aggression than children in the control group. Viewing children also exhibited more nonimitative physical and verbal aggression than the control group. These findings led this researcher to assume that including violent cartoons in the edited program for this study would likely arouse the children and have a clear effect on their behavior.

The edited program also included segments from Iftah Ya Simsim that portrayed negative social behavior. The purpose of these segments in their original programs was to show behaviors that the producers wished to instruct children to avoid. Research has suggested that television programs should not portray undesirable behavior that we wish children to avoid (Peel et al., 1979). According to Peel et al., showing children negative behaviors may give them ideas they had not previously considered. It is also important to take into consideration the notion that children have very unclear ideas about what is real and what is fantasy in a television program. Accordingly, this study included these segments to further investigate these findings. However, the results showed no clear direct imitation of the

behaviors in this program, despite the fact that children in group two showed a significant increase in their aggressive behavior.

The most common acts of aggression were aggressive play: using muppets to hit each other, or knock toys off the table, or throwing them in the air like a ball or pulling them apart. The children in group two treated Anis and Badr no better than they did Superman and Spiderman despite the fact that they were portrayed as gentle, loving, albeit Anis is tricky sometimes.

Common, also, was restlessness, especially among boys. Group one children, immediately after viewing, sought themselves space and material without considering others. Solitary play was also prevalent as well as nonresponse to peers' approaches. Following rules and sharing materials, was not spontaneous for these children, but rather required a request by the teacher to which not all the children would respond. Physical assaults were not as common as verbal threats or hostility, nor as prevalent as snatching toys away from peers.

It is interesting to note that the pretest scores for cooperative behavior of children in this group were not significantly different from those of children in group one. This score for cooperative behavior dropped significantly

after viewing, which confirms the effect of the antisocial program on the children's behavior.

Hypotheses 3 and 4

The analysis of data tested Hypothesis 3, which predicted a difference between males and females on displaying cooperative behavior, and Hypothesis 4, which anticipated a difference between males and females in displaying aggressive behavior. Aggression research, according to Dodge and Frame (in Ridley, 1984), has concentrated on studying males rather than females. In the present study, female aggression was measured along with the male behavior, although the researcher assumed that males were more likely to display aggressive behavior than females and that females were more likely to cooperate than males, subsequent to viewing.

The findings of the current research did not reveal any significant relationship between gender and target behavior. In the observational situation, boys showed the same amount of cooperation and helping, and they even shared more and were more responsive than girls to the teacher's requests. On the other hand, some of the girls displayed more antisocial behavior after viewing than they did before, and

were, in some instances, more aggressive than boys. However, it should be noted that previous research has reported that, following exposure to film violence, boys exhibited more aggressive behavior than girls (Bandura, 1965; Bandura et al., 1963a; Leifer and Roberts, 1972).

The findings of this research provide support for findings of other studies which indicated no difference between boys and girls in displaying aggressive behavior. Boys studied by Stein et al. (1972) were less aggressive after viewing Mr. Rogers' Neighborhood than they were after viewing neutral programs, but girls who had seen "Mr. Rogers" tended to be more aggressive after viewing. On the other hand, in measuring the effects of Sesame Street, (Shapiro (1975) found that no significant difference in gains were associated with the sex of the subjects. Boys' and girls' reactions to the program were nearly identical. Shapiro also found that no significant difference was observed in comparing the responses of males against females. The findings of the present study also agree with those of Singer and Singer (1981), who stated that a relationship between television and aggression exists for both sexes, even though the females studied proved to be less aggressive than the males.

Hypotheses 5 and 6

Hypothesis 5 submitted that a difference would emerge between five year olds and six year olds in displaying cooperative behavior, while Hypothesis 6 suggested that a difference would emerge between the two ages in displaying aggressive behavior.

In the current study, no significant difference emerged between five year olds and six year olds in displaying both cooperative and aggressive behavior. Both ages displayed the same amount of cooperation and aggression.

Results of studies by Collins; Collins et al., reported by Isler (1984), indicated that, in general, older children are more likely than younger children to be able to grasp the connection between the motives and consequences shown in a television program. Leifer and Roberts (1972) too revealed that comprehension was extremely poor among younger children, but that it increased dramatically with age. Sturm and Jorg (in Alkhulaifi, 1984) found that five year olds differed from six year olds and seven year olds in their ability to process pictorial material. The findings of the present study differed from those of Sturm and Jorg. This incongruity might be attributed to the fact that taking the mean of the scores could have reduced the possibility of

finding differences between five and six year olds. It is also worth considering that exposing younger children to prosocial or violent television over a short period of time may have different effects than would viewing of the same material over longer periods.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that, generally speaking, verbal interaction within groups one and two was limited. Children did not engage in long conversation and did not listen attentively to their peers. In group one, children exchanged toys, cooperated and helped each other, but only silently or by whispering to each other. Among the second group, even the aggressive acts were displayed without verbal action. This lack of verbal interaction could be traced to the kind of behavior and discipline expected from the child by his/her teacher in the classroom based on the cultural norm of the country.

Summary and Conclusions

Several conclusions may be drawn from the findings of this study.

- I. The analysis of the data to test the behavioral effect on difference between children in group one who viewed a program with prosocial behavior and children in group

two who viewed a program with negative social behavior, on both cooperative and aggressive behavior has highlighted the importance of the following points.

- A. Portraying prosocial messages on television would increase the display of similar behavior by young children following the viewing; observing prosocial models performing the behavior would lead children to imitate that behavior.
- B. Watching prosocial programs on television can induce in children the willingness and the ability to be more cooperative and helpful. From such programs children can learn sharing, and facilitating various matters, such as waiting for one's turn.
- C. Presenting conflict situations which are resolved in a prosocial manner can help children acquire the prosocial behavior pattern and then imitate it when confronted with the same conflict.
- D. Antisocial television programs can lead children to be aggressive in their behavior. Children can learn aggressive behavior from such programs and imitate it; they can also display aggression in their behavior in general. In addition, television can provide children with ideas they had not previously considered. Portraying undesirable behavior may

induce in children the desire to try it. Such a technique should not be used if we wish children to avoid the behavior.

- E. Cartoon violence can arouse children and increase their aggressive behavior. This indication is very important for the Gulf States which broadcast foreign cartoons produced by their countries of origin for export.

II. The analysis of data to examine the relationship between gender and cooperative and aggressive behavior showed the following findings:

- A. Results did not reveal any sex differences in relation to learning from television.
- B. Some of the male subjects exhibited more cooperative behaviors than did female subjects, while some of the females displayed more antisocial behavior, offsetting and discounting the researcher's assumption that males would prove more aggressive and females more cooperative.

III. In examining the relationship between age and cooperative behavior, the analysis of data revealed the following results:

- A. Age was not a significant factor in the current study. Five year olds and six year olds exhibited

the two target behaviors (cooperation and aggression) at the same level.

B. Longer exposure to television might have a different effect on younger viewers.

C. Since younger children are affected by television programming in the same way as older ones, television producers, educators and psychologists should join in the effort to provide young children with programs specially designed to meet their needs and suit their developmental stage. Age of children should be taken into consideration, and different programs for different age groups should be created.

As the analysis and results did not provide any indication of what was influential in the edited program, it seems that segments that were chosen created significant effects. The implication of this is that carefully produced programs with defined goals and messages can influence children's behavior and attitudes.

IV. The researcher noticed that children did not engage in long conversations. Verbal interaction was below the level of the researcher's expectation. Efforts should be made to make preschool teachers aware of the importance of encouraging children to engage in

conversation, exchange ideas, and discuss television programs, among other topics. Language is an important factor in looking at children's cognitive and social development. As a means through which children can express their feelings and show their behavioral attitudes, language is an important variable that could have contributed to the difference between the two age groups in displaying the target behaviors. The researcher would assume that the older children having a greater command of the language would have been more verbally active which might have reflected on their display of both behaviors.

The minimum use of language as a medium of interaction among the subjects may have beyond the taking of mean scores, had an effect on the results of testing age differences.

Recommendations

One contribution of the current study is that it confirms the role of television in influencing and shaping children's behavior. Since this study is perhaps the first in the Arab Gulf States to tackle the subject of television and children's behavior, it does not claim that it has

satisfied the need to further investigate and study the role of this very important medium in the different aspects of the life of Baharaini children. Blaming television for all the evils and misfortunes in our society is not likely to erase the medium and its effect on society as a whole, especially on children. More investigation of this topic is needed to further clarify the role of television as an important teaching device, both positive and negative.

--Future research is needed to examine the influence of television on the behavior of children who are not attending any kindergarten or nursery school.

--Research is also needed to clarify the condition under which children can learn prosocial behavior through television.

--Further studies can be done on the viewing amount and viewing style within the family and the family's attitude toward violence on television.

--More information about what children do not understand on television and their comprehension and interpretation of the televised programs can help provide parents, teachers and producers of children's programs with greater understanding of children and their needs.

--The relationship between children's understanding and comprehension of the motives in television programs and

the aggressive behavior they display after viewing needs to be studied.

--Also, the amount of time children spend in front of the television and the quality of programs they watch needs to be investigated.

--As cartoons have proved to be very effective in teaching via television, further research is needed to clarify their special attractiveness and their effect on children's behavior.

--An urgent need exists to study the intents of the televised commercials' and the children's ability to comprehend these intents, as well as to study the relationship between this comprehension and post-commercial behavior.

--Finally, it is worth investigating what aspects of television viewing contribute most to the effect of viewing on children, amount of time spent watching television, lack of parental guidance, or simply attraction of the medium itself.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Scripts from the Prosocial Program

(Translated from Arabic)

I. Sharing

ANIS (Ernie): I like to eat cookies. Do you know what I have got? A cookie. When I have a Cookie, I feel happy.

KA'KI: (Cookie Monster): [enters crying]

ANIS: What's wrong with you?

KA'KI: I am sad!

ANIS: Sad!

KA'KI: Yes, yes, I haven't got any cookies?

ANIS: You are sad because you haven't got any cookies!

KA'KI: Yes, yes.

ANIS: Well, I have a cookie, I am happy; but you are sad; here take the cookie.

KA'KI: I take the cookie? Oh, Anis, thank you. Oh! Lovely! I am happy.

ANIS: Oh! Oh! Oh! [in a very sad tone]

KA'KI: Oh Anis! What's wrong with you?

ANIS: Oh! I would love to have a cookie.

KA'KI: Yes!

ANIS: I had a cookie and I gave it to you, and now I am sad. Do you understand?

KA'KI: You are sad!

ANIS: Yes, I am sad!

KA'KI: I have a cookie. I am happy, but, but Anis, you are sad. You take the cookie. Take it.

ANIS: The cookie! You want to give me the cookie! Oh lovely! Thank you! [laughing happily] I became happy, very very happy.

KA'KI: Oh oh, oh, [sobbing]

ANIS: Oh, wait a minute, take it. [gives back the cookie]

KA'KI: Oh, how nice. Thank you.

ANIS: Yes, yes.

KA'KI: I am happy [starts putting the cookie in his mouth]

ANIS: Oh, oh! [crying]

KA'KI: Oh, la la, take it, take it.

ANIS: Thank you [laughing]

KA'KI: [crying]

ANIS: You take it. [giving it back to him]

KA'KI: Thank you. Thank you.

ANIS: [crying]

KA'KI: Oh no, no, Anis. Take it, take it.

ANIS: But wait a minute. Impossible. This is one cookie. If I eat it, I become happy, and you become sad, and when you take it, I become sad.

KA'KI: No, no.

ANIS: Listen! I've got an idea! Why don't we share it?

KA'KI: We share it?

ANIS: Yes, we share it.

KA'KI: I take one half, and you take one half.

ANIS: And we both become happy.

KA'KI: I quite agree!

ANIS: Come, let us break the cookie into two halves. Hold it.

KA'KI: Very well.

ANIS: Hold it tight.

KA'KI: I'm ready.

ANIS: One, two, three [they start breaking it; the fragile cookie crushes in their hands]

ANIS: What is this? Oh, now we shall be sad, you and I are sad. [both cry and hug each other in an attempt to comfort themselves]

Comment

This is a situation where these characters express an emotion of happiness and sadness. Happiness: when any of them possesses a cookie and sadness when he does not. They both take possession of the cookie and share the situation of happiness and sadness. When one is happy, the other is naturally sad. Possession makes them happy and loss makes them sad. Realizing this dilemma, they decide to share the cookie, so both would be happy. But as Anis is clumsy and the cookie is fragile, he fails to break the cookie into two halves as it crumbles in his hands, an act that was

unnecessary, as it may hinder receiving the message by the child viewers. They both lose the cookie and are both sad at its loss. But as they both share the same feeling of sadness, they console each other and both turn out to be happy!!!

II. Sharing and Cooperation

BADR (Bert): I wonder when Anis will be back. [the door opens and Anis comes in with a shopping bag in his hands] Hey, Anis, great, you're back from the market.

ANIS: Yes, I am back. Thank you.

BADR: Oh, great Anis! You brought things with you. We are going to have something to eat.

ANIS: Oh, yes, of course! I bought some food for you and for me.

BADR: Well, what have you brought?

ANIS: I have brought some bread for me.

BADR: Oh great, great. And for me?

ANIS: For you, Badr, a jar of peanut butter.

BADR: I love peanut butter, thank you, Anis.

ANIS: Not at all.

BADR: But how am I going to eat it?

ANIS: Eat it with a spoon.

BADR: With a spoon? Hey, Anis.

ANIS: Yes?

BADR: How does this bread taste?

ANIS: It's not delicious.

BADR: What?

ANIS: It's bread, but its taste is not that delicious.

BADR: Well, you have bread, and I have peanut butter, Anis,
why don't we cooperate? What do you think?

ANIS: Badr, I'm busy.

BADR: Listen!

ANIS: I'm busy. I can't hear.

BADR: Listen, listen, Anis, what do you think if you give
me a slice of bread, ha?

ANIS: You wouldn't like it Badr. It hasn't got a
delicious taste.

BADR: Yes, this is true; but I can spread peanut butter on
it.

ANIS: Right! And do you know what will happen, Badr?

BADR: Yes?

ANIS: You'll have a peanut butter sandwich.

BADR: That's right, that's right.

ANIS: Badr?

BADR: What?

ANIS: I have a great idea!

BADR: Out with it. What is it?

ANIS: Pay attention, attention, for example, for example
only, example, I gave you a slice of bread.

BADR: Yes.

ANIS: And you spread it with peanut butter.

BADR: Yes.

ANIS: You shall eat peanut butter with bread.

BADR: That's right.

ANIS: And for example, also, for example, you give me
peanut butter to spread on the bread.

BADR: Yes.

ANIS: And I shall eat bread with peanut butter.

BADR: Great!

ANIS: Excellent idea!

BADR: This is what I call cooperation!

ANIS: Great idea. [starts spreading peanut butter and
makes a sandwich] I put one slice of bread on the
other, and now cut it in two.

BADR: Yes, how wonderful, how delicious, and now give me
one half and keep the other half.

ANIS: Perfect, one half for you, Badr.

BADR: Thank you.

ANIS: OK?

BADR: Oh mmm, oh how delicious, Anis.

ANIS: Oh! How delicious, isn't it?

BADR: Oh, one piece has fallen on the floor, oh, oh,
excellent peanut butter.

ANIS: But we have spread a lot of butter.

BADR: It tastes good, it doesn't matter.

ANIS: You know something. Do you know what's left?

BADR: What is it, Anis?

ANIS: To find a boy, a hungry boy with milk.

BADR: That's right.

ANIS: He gives us milk, and we give him peanut butter and bread.

III. Animation Sequence: Cooperation

[a girl is hammering a nail]

GIRL: I like to drive nails.

CARPENTER: I am a carpenter. I like sawing wood.

PAINTER: I like to paint everything in a bright color.

DECOR ARTIST: And I like to decorate things.

PAINTER: You are marvelous in decorating things.

D. A.: Oh, thank you.

CARPENTER: I like your way in painting things.

GIRL: And I like the bright colors.

D. A.: I've got an idea and hope you'll like it. Why don't we cooperate and make beautiful things?

CARPENTER: Oh, a great idea.

GIRL: Marvelous idea.

CARPENTER: Bring a sheet of wood.

PAINTER: I'll do that.

D. A.: Cooperation is a great thing.

CARPENTER: Here you are! It's going to be a beautiful table.

GIRL: It needs painting now.

D. A.: Here we are. I am through!

PAINTER: What a beautiful table!

D. A.: Thank you for this cooperation.

GIRL: You're welcome.

PAINTER: Cooperation is a beautiful thing! I am very pleased to cooperate with you.

IV. In the Street: Sharing and Helping

LAYLA: What's the matter, Hassan?

HASAN: I'm thinking.

LAYLA: Why are you thinking?

HASAN: I'm sad, Layla, sad.

LAYLA: Sad! Why are you sad? Tell me.

HASAN: What shall I tell you? Come and see for yourself.

LAYLA: Where are you taking me?

HASAN: Do you see this girl?

LAYLA: She is sad. [to the girl] Why are you sad?

GIRL: I want to play.

LAYLA: Why don't you play? You've got so many toys.

GIRL: I've played with them all.

LAYLA: All of them?

GIRL: I want a new toy.

LAYLA: How! And you are sad because she is sad.

HASAN: Come on, come on, can you see this girl?

LAYLA: She is crying.

HASAN: She wants to play.

LAYLA: And why doesn't she play?

HASAN: She hasn't got any toys.

LAYLA: And that's why you are sad because she is crying.

HASAN: This girl has got lots of toys and she is sad! And this girl hasn't got any toys and she is also sad. I've got an idea that would make them both happy!

LAYLA: What is it?

HASAN: You'll see! Noman, Malsoon, Abla, call me all the children on this street.

MALSOON: Come on all you children of street 20 to the playground.

HASAN: All you children and residents of Street 20, friends and neighbors, brothers and sisters, children of Street 20. I have an idea that's good for all of us. Today, I saw this child sad, she wanted to play, she had lots of toys. She played with them all. I also saw this child, and she was sad. She wanted to play, she had no toys. She who has lots of toys is sad, and she who has no toys at all is

also sad. I thought: what do you think? Everyone of us brings a toy. We put all the toys here for all the children. We shall have plenty of toys. We shall play and shall never be fed up with playing. What do you think?

ALL: Hey! Hey! [applauding]

NOMAN: Come on, bring all the toys. . . . [children bring toys and place them on Noman's lap who cannot move]
Oh, take me out of here!!

V. At the Fruit Stall: Sharing

SHOPKEEPER: [taking the money] Thank you.

LAYLA: Thank you.

NOMAN: Hi, Layla.

LAYLA: Hi!

GIRL: What's in the bag, Layla? What's in the bag?

SHOPKEEPER: If you're smart, you would know what's in the bag.

GIRL: There is, there is some fruit in the bag.

LAYLA: It's true there is some fruit in this bag. But if you guess what it is I'll give you one.

NOMAN: Layla, Layla, help us, help us to know, give us a clue. Give us the first letter of its name.

LAYLA: Very well, Noman, I'll help you, listen, if you know what's in the bag, I'll give you the biggest apple.

NOMAN AND GIRL: There are some apples in this bag!

LAYLA: That's correct! And here is an apple for you and for her, Noman. Can you wash it, Mahmood?

NOMAN: One apple for me and her?

LAYLA: It's a big apple, Noman! Half for you and half for her, but how shall we divide it?

NOMAN: Hah, hah! Divide it, divide it. We divide it with a knife.

LAYLA: With a knife, thank you, Mahmood, if you bring a balance we shall divide it equally between them, thank you.

Appendix B

Scripts from the Antisocial Program

I. (translated from the Arabic program, Iftah Ya Simsim)

KAMIL (Kermit the frog): Oh, this is a big hand. Come on, let us examine it. Notice that the hand has tall and thin things at its end. Very well, these things are called fingers! But how many fingers has it got? Very well. We shall count the fingers. One . . . yes, one . . . this is the thumb, two, three, four, five. These are beautiful fingers. The hand has got five fingers. The hand can do many things. For instance the hand can move . . . Look! How it can move . . . how beautiful its movements are . . . The hand can also point. Don't point at me, you hand! What do you want? What? Very well, what can the hand also do? It can hold things. [the hand tries to strangle Kermit] Thank you. Let us see what it can do. Think of something new. What! The hand can pat, yes, it can pat, it can prick, pricking is not nice, no, don't! that is nice . . . don't tickle me. The hand can also hit. If you hit me, I'll bite you. [the hand starts strangling Kamil who implores until the hand stops] The hand can also

smile, it smiles. Let us have truce. Very well,
shake hands, the hand can shake hands as well.
[the hand shakes hands with Kermit and then
suddenly forcefully pulls him down]

COMMENT:

This muppet sequence is part of an Iftah Ya Simsim program. The sequence is originally designed for Sesame Street. It provided useful information about the hand and what useful things it can do. The element of violence here, though it might be of short duration, cannot go unnoticed. Putting the idea of strangling into the minds of very young viewers should not have been included in this sequence. The same thing also applies to the violent pull by the hand applied to Kamil the Frog. Ending the sequence with a violent touch could leave a negative impact on some children and may diminish the useful information about the hand that they had just received.

II. Door Sequence (from Iftah Ya Simsim)

This is a short sequence intended to teach the concept of exit and "door." The child reads the sign above the door and tells us what it means and how the exit is used by people when leaving a place. While the child is still in

the midst of his/her exploration we hear a loud hustle of people running in a disorderly manner. The child is also about to leave as the hustle secedes when all of a sudden another wave of running people knocks him down and treads over his body. There is a negative element of unrestraint behavior manifested in disorder and chaotic movement of people.

III. (translated from Iftah Ya Simsim)

KA'KI: What kind of book is this?

Kamil: This is a book on cookery.

KA'KI: Cookery book?

KAMIL: It is a book that teaches you how to cook all kind of food, Ka'ki.

KA'KI: Tell me, what kind of food is there at the beginning?

KAMIL: At the beginning, it teaches you how to cook soups and the like..

KA'KI: All right, soup is fine, but what is there in the middle; what does the book teach us in the middle?

KAMIL: In the middle it teaches you how to cook meat, fish and the various kinds of vegetables and the rest of the food.

KA'KI: That's great. What does the part at the end of the book teach? What kind of food at the end?

KAMIL: Sweets, deserts.

KA'KI: Deserts? Like cookies?

KAMIL: Yes.

KA'KI: Like cookies?

KAMIL: Yes, yes, all sorts of cookies.

KA'KI: This is a delicious book. [starts eating the book]

KAMIL: But Ka'ki don't eat the book . . . I think, I think
this is the end of the book.

Comment

The negative element in this sequence, though it meant as a funny thing dealing with muppets, is that, educationally speaking it is not proper to show such a scene to very young viewers. The idea of maintaining property and respecting it, especially when it comes to books as a source of knowledge should be presented with greater care. Children should be taught to love and care for books as valuable and useful things in our lives.

IV. Violence in Children's Cartoons

A close look at some of the animation sequences would reveal an amazing amount of violence depending, of course, on the nature of these sequences. Some of this might seem harmless as in the case of classic cartoons like Woody Woodpecker or Tom and Jerry where the two eternal foes

display a great amount of enmity. What makes this violence acceptable to parents is the fact that the underdog which is normally Jerry, ends up triumphantly where his tricks and practical jokes on Tom show that no matter how big and strong Tom is, Jerry with his resourceful mind can always have many counterattacks in store to meet the threat of this silly cat. What makes this violence acceptable is that despite all the beatings and thrashings and tortures, each one of these characters recovers from his ordeal to start fresh contemplating another round of revenge on his archenemy. Violence is also manifested in some animation sequences where human characters are personified in shows like Grandizer or Japanese Space Odyssey, using the ultramodern electronic laser weapons. The element of amusement is nearly absent. Instead, we find lethal weapons and sophisticated aircraft or missiles.

Appendix C

Observation Checklist

Name	Cooperation			Aggression		
	3	2	1	3	2	1
1-						
2-						
3-						
4-						
5-						

Appendix D

The Effects of Television on Children's Social Behavior ResearchParents' Consent Form

Date:

Dear Parents:

Your daughter/son _____ has been selected to participate as a Subject in a research study which will investigate the effect of television on children's social behavior.

Your child will be assigned to group one which will be watching a 30 minute television program with prosocial behavior/group two which will be watching a 30 minute television program with negative social behavior.

Children will be observed in an experimental and free-play situation before and after viewing the program, and their behavior will be rated according to the scale prepared by the researcher.

Since the research and testing will be part of a doctoral dissertation at Boston University, the names of the students will remain confidential and only group scores will be used. There will be no physical or psychological risk to the children. If you have any questions about this study, please feel free to contact the researcher. It is also important to fill out the parent consent form and return it to your child's teacher.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Bahiya Aljishi

Tel: 742-779

Effects of Television on Children's Social Behavior ResearchParents' Consent Form

Yes, my daughter/son _____ may participate in the "Effects of Television on Children's Social Behavior Research."

Parent's name _____

Signature _____

Date _____

P.S. This Consent Form were translated into Arabic in order to send it to the parents (Appendix E).

دراسة تأثير التلفزيون على سلوك الأطفال الاجتماعي

استمارة موافقة ولي الأمر

=====

حضرة الفاضل ولي أمر الطفل / الطفلة _____ المحترم

تحية طيبة وبعد :

فلقد تم اختيار ابنكم/ابنتكم للمشاركة ضمن أفراد العينة المنتقاة للدراسة التي تبحث في تأثير التلفزيون على سلوك الأطفال الاجتماعي .

سيتم إلحاق ابنكم/ابنتكم بالمجموعة الأولى التي ستشاهد برنامجا تلفزيونيا يحتوى على مشاهد اجتماعية ايجابية / بالمجموعة الثانية التي ستشاهد برنامجا تلفزيونيا يحتوى على مشاهد اجتماعية سلبية .

سيُراقب الأطفال خلال فترة من اللعب الحر وفترة أخرى من اللعب المبرمج وذلك قبل وبعد مشاهدة البرنامج ويحدد سلوكهم وفق الجدول الذى وضعته الباحثة لهذا الغرض .
وبما أن هذا البحث والاختبار سيكونان جزءاً من رسالة الدكتوراه التي أعدها حالياً في كلية التربية بجامعة بوسطن فإن أسماء الأطفال ستبقى سرية . . . وسيستعمل في البحث النقاط الكلية للمجموعة ككل .

لن يكون هناك أى تأثيرات سلبية سواء من الناحية الجسدية أو النفسية على الأطفال فإذا كان لديكم أى تساؤل حول هذه الدراسة . . أرجو أن تتصلوا بالباحثة .
كما أرجو تعبئة الجزء الأسفل من هذه الرسالة وإعادته الى معلمة الطفل / الطفلة بأسرع فرصة ممكنة وذلك لأهمية موافقتكم في تنفيذ البحث .
شاكرة لكم تعاونكم المثمر .

وتفضلوا بقبول فائق التحية ،،،

بهيبة الجشي

تلفون : ٧٤٢٧٧٩

دراسة تأثير التلفزيون على سلوك الأطفال الاجتماعي

استمارة موافقة ولي الأمر

=====

نعم أو افق / لا أو افق على اشتراك ابني / ابنتي _____ في بحث "تأثير التلفزيون على سلوك الأطفال الاجتماعي" .

التاريخ :

اسم ولي الأمر :

التوقيع :

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abbas, H. A. (1983). Evaluation of the television program "Iftah Ya Simsim" from the children's point of view. Doctoral dissertation, University College, Cardiff, Wales, U. K.
- Alkhulaifi, I. M. (1984). An investigation of the viewing behavior toward "Iftah Ya Simsim" by Kuwaiti kindergartners. Doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, Columbus Ohio.
- AlYusif, E. (1986). The role of television in the development of Arab children and the experiment of the Arab Gulf States Joint Program Production Institute. Report presented to the Regional Conference on Childhood and Development in the Arab World. Tunisia.
- Ball, S. and Bogatz, G. A. (1970). The first year of "Sesame Street": An evaluation. New York: Children's Television Workshop.
- Ball, S. and Bogatz, G. A. (1971). Summative research of "Sesame Street": Implications for the study of preschool aged children. New York: Children's

Television Workshop.

- Ballard-Campbell, M. (1983). Children's understanding of television advertising: Behavioral assessment of three developmental skills. Doctoral dissertation, University of California at Los Angeles.
- Bandura, A. (1965). Influence of models' reinforcement contingencies on the acquisition of imitative responses. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, I(6), 589-595.
- Bandura, A. (1969). Social learning theory of identificatory processes. In D. A. Goslin (Ed.), Handbook of socialization theory and research. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Bandura, A. (Ed.). (1971). Psychological modeling: Conflicting theories. New York: Lieber-Atherton.
- Bandura, A. (1973). Aggression, a social learning analysis. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Social learning theory. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. and Walters, J. (1963). Social learning and personality development. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Bandura, A., Ross, D., and Ross S. (1963a). Imitation of film mediated aggressive models. Journal of Abnormal

- and Social Psychology, 66(1), 3-11.
- Bandura, A., Ross, D., and Ross S. (1963b). Vicarious reinforcement and imitative learning. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 67(6), 601-607.
- Baran, S. J., Chase, L. J. and Courtright, J. A. (1979). Television drama as a facilitator of prosocial behavior: "The Waltons." Journal of Broadcasting, 23(3), 277-284.
- Barton, E. J. (1986). Modification of children's social behavior, in Strain, P. S., Guralnick, M. J. and Walker, H. M. (Eds.). Children's social behavior, development, assessment, and modification. London: Academic Press.
- Bogatz, G. A. (1979). Evaluation of "Sesame Street" Program. Children's Television Workshop. New York.
- Bogatz, G. A. and Ball, S. (1971). The second year of "Sesame Street": A continuing evaluation. Vol. I. New York: Children's Television Workshop.
- British Broadcasting Corporation. (1974). Children as viewers and listeners, a study for the General Advisory Council of the BBC.
- Cater, D. and Strickland, S. (1975). TV, violence and the child: The evolution and fate of the Surgeon General's Report. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

- Charren, P. (1979). Children and television in the United States. In Children and television: Discussion Papers on themes related to International Year of the Child. New York: United Nations, IYC Secretariat.
- Children's Television Workshop (1969). Report of research of five test shows. New York.
- Children's Television Workshop. (1979). International research notes. Premier Issue, New York.
- Coates, B. and Pusser, H. E. (1975). Positive reinforcement and punishment in "Sesame Street" and "Mr. Rogers Neighborhood." Journal of Broadcasting, 19(21), 143-152.
- Coates, B., Pusser, H. E. and Goodman, I. (1976). The influence of "Sesame Street" and "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" on children's social behavior in the preschool. Child Development, 47(1), 138-144.
- Collins, W. A. (1982). Cognitive processing in television viewing. In D. Pearl, L. Bouthilet and J. Lazar, Television and behavior, Ten years of scientific progress and implications for the eighties, Vol. II. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.
- Comstock, G. (1975). The effects of television on children and adolescents: The evidence so far. Journal of Communication, 24(4), 25-34.

- Comstock, G., Chaffee, S. Katzman, M., McCombs, M. and Roberts, D. (1978). Television and human behavior. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Cooney, J. A. (1970). The first year of "Sesame Street": A history and overview. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.
- Corder-Bolz, C. R. (1977). Children's development and children's television. Presented at the Seminar for Program Managers. Washington, D. C.: Corporation for Public Broadcasting.
- Culley, J. D., Lazer, W. and Atkin, C. K. (1976). The experts look at children's television. Journal of Broadcasting, 20(1), 3-22.
- Dawe, H. C. (1934). An analysis of two hundred quarrels of preschool children. Child Development, 5(1), 139-157.
- Donahue, T. R. (1977). Favorite TV characters as behavioral models for the emotionally disturbed. Journal of Broadcasting, 21(3), 333-345.
- Donahue, T. R., Henke, L. L. and Meyer, T. P. (1983). Learning about television commercials: The impact of instructional units on children's perceptions of motive and intent. Journal of Broadcasting, 27(3), 251-261.
- Dorr, A. (1986). Television and children: A special medium for a special audience. Vol. 14. Beverly Hills,

California: The Sage Comm Text Series, Sage Publications.

- Durham, D. A. (1984). Emotionally disturbed and non-emotionally disturbed children's perceptions of prosocial televised messages. Doctoral dissertation, University of Texas, Austin.
- Elliot, R. and Vasta, R. (1970). The modeling of sharing: Effects associated with vicarious reinforcement, symbolization, age and generalization. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 10(1), 8-15.
- Ellis, G. T. and Sekyra, F. (1972). The effect of aggressive cartoons on the behavior of first grade children. Journal of Psychology, 81(1), 37-43.
- Erikson, E. H. (1963). Childhood and society. New York: Norton.
- Flapan, D. (1968). Children's understanding of social interaction. New York: Columbia University, Teachers College Press.
- Fowles, B. R. and Horner, V. A. (1974). Visual literacy: Some lessons from Children's Television Workshop. New York: Children's Television Workshop.
- Fowles, R. R. and Horner V. A. (1975). The effects of television on children and adolescents: A suggested research strategy. Journal of Communication, 25(4),

98-101.

Fowles, B. R. and Voyat, A. (1974). Piaget meets Big Bird: Is TV a passive teacher? The Urban Review, 7(1), 69-80.

Friedrich, L. K. and Stein, A. H. (1973). Aggressive and prosocial television programs and the naturalistic behavior of preschool children. Monograph of the Society for Research in Child Development, 38(4) (Serial No. 151).

Friedrich, L. K. and Stein, A. H. (1975). Prosocial television and young children: the effects of verbal labeling and role playing on learning behavior. Child Development, 46(1), 27-38.

Goldberg, M. E. and Gorn, A. J. (1979). Television's impact on preferences for non-white playmates: Canadian "Sesame Street" inserts. Journal of Broadcasting, 23(1), 27-32.

Gregoire, R. (1979) Television and values in the educational project. (Trans.). Québec: Government of Québec, Conseil Supérieur de l'éducation.

Gulfvision (1979). Television in the Gulf States. Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

Herbold, N. H. (1984). Content analysis of Saturday morning children's television for food and nutrition

- information. Doctoral dissertation, Boston University School of Education, Boston.
- Heusman, L. R. (1982). Television violence and aggressive behavior. In D. Pearl, L. Bouthilet, and J. Lazar, Television and behavior. Ten years of scientific progress and implications for the eighties. Vol. II. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.
- Himmelweit, H. T., Oppenheim, A. N. and Vince, P. (1958). Television and the child. London: Oxford University Press.
- Honig, A. S. (1983). Television and young children. Young Children, 38(4), 63-76.
- Huck, C. S. (1979). Children's literature in the elementary school (3rd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Hutt, S. J. and Hutt, C. (1970). Direct observation and measurement of behavior. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas.
- Irwin, D. M. and Bushnell, M. (1980). Observational strategies for child study. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Isler, L. (1984). Children's comprehension of televised social interaction. Doctoral dissertation, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

- Israeli, Y. (1981). Children's sharing behavior as a function of exposure to a puppet show and story model. Doctoral dissertation, Boston University, School of Education, Boston.
- Kohlberg, L. (1969). State and sequence: The cognitive-developmental approach to socialization. In D. Goslin (Ed.), Handbook of socialization theory and research. Chicago: Rand-McNally.
- LaGreca, A. M. and Stark, P. (1986). Naturalistic observations of children's social behavior. In P. S. Strain, M. J. Guralnick, and H. M. Walker, Children's social behavior. London: Academic Press.
- Leifer, A. D. (1973). Encouraging social competence with television. Research proposal, Children's Television Workshop, New York.
- Leifer, A. D. (1974). Research on the socialization influence of television in the United States. New York: Children's Television Workshop.
- Leifer, A. D. (1975). How to encourage socially-valued behavior. Paper presented at the Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Denver, Colorado.
- Leifer, A. D. and Roberts, D. F. (1972). Children's responses to television violence. In J. P. Murray,

- E. A. Rubenstein and G. A. Comstock (Eds.), Television and social behavior II: Television and social learning. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Lesser, G. S. (1972). Learning, teaching and television production for children: The experience of "Sesame Street." Harvard Educational Review, 42(2), 232-272.
- Lesser, G. S. (1974). Children and television: Lessons from Sesame Street. New York: Vintage Books.
- Liebert, R. M. and Poulos, R. W. (1975). Television and personality development: The socializing effects of an entertainment medium. In A. Davis (Ed.), Child personality and psychopathology: Current topics, Vol. II. New York: Wiley.
- Liebert, R. M. and Poulos, R. W. (1976). Television as a moral teacher. In Lickona, T. (Ed.), Moral development and behavior, theory, research, and social issues. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Liebert, R. M., Neale, J. N. and Davidson, E. S. (1973). The early window: Effects of television on children and youth. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Looney, G. (1971). Television as a major factor in the ecology of childhood. Clinical Pediatrics, 10(8), 445-446.

- Lyle, D. and Hoffman, H. R. (1972). Children's use of television and other media. In E. A. Rubenstein, G. A. Comstock, and J. P. Murray (Eds.). Television and social behavior IV. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.
- Mayes, S. L. and Valentine, K. V. (1979). Sex role stereotyping in Saturday morning cartoon shows. Journal of Broadcasting, 23(1), 41-50.
- McLeod, J. M., Fitzpatrick, M. A., Glynn, C. J. and Fallis, S. F. (1982). Television and social relations: Family influences and consequences for interpersonal behavior. In D. Pearl, L. Bouthilet, and J. Lazar., Television and social behavior. Ten years of scientific progress and implications for the eighties. Vol. II. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.
- Meyer, T. P. (1973). Research reviews television and social behavior. Reports and papers, vol. II. Media content and control. Educational Broadcasting Review, 7, 191-201.
- Miller, J. and Skvarcius, R. (1970). Does Sesame Street teach? Performance gains of preschool viewers and non viewers. Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College.

- Ministry of Education. (1988). Educational Statistics. Bahrain.
- Minton, J. (1972). The impact of Sesame Street on reading readiness of kindergarten children. Doctoral dissertation, Fordham University, New York.
- Mulligan, W. E. (1974). The television picture in Arabia. The Arabian Sun Magazine, II, p. 3. Dhahran, Saudi Arabia.
- Murray, J. P. and Kippax, S. (1978). Children's social behavior in three towns with differing television experience. Journal of Communication, 28(1), 19-29.
- Palmer, E., Chen, M. and Lesser, G. (1976). Sesame Street: Patterns of international adaptations. Journal of Communication, 26(2), 109-123.
- Paulson, F. L. (1974). Teaching cooperation on television: An evaluation of Sesame Street Social Goals Program. AV Communication Review, 22(3), 229-246.
- Pearl, D. (1984). Violence and aggression: Television at the crossroads. Society, 21(6), 17-21.
- Pearl, D., Bouthilet, L. and Lazar, J. (Eds.) (1982). Television and behavior: Ten years of scientific programs and implications for the eighties. Vol. II. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.

- Peel, T., Schauble, L. and Palmer, E. (1979). A checklist of seven common production mistakes. In International Research Notes, Premier Issue, 2-9. New York: Children's Television Workshop.
- Piaget, J. (1952). The origins of intelligence in children. New York: International Universities Press.
- Piaget, J. (1954). The construction of reality in the child. New York: Basic Books.
- Piaget, J. (1965). The moral judgment of the child. New York: The Free Press.
- Piaget, J. and Inhelder, B. (1956). The child's conception of space. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Price, J. (1985). The relationship of television viewing patterns and central preferences to children's emotional, social and cognitive functioning. Doctoral dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.
- Quanti, C. B. and Davis, A. (1974). Observing children. New York: Alfred Publishing Co.
- Ramzy, N. (1979). Television viewing habits of Egyptian children. In Children and Television: Discussion papers based on themes related to International Year of the Child. New York: United Nations, IYC Secretariat.
- Rapaczynski, W., Singer, D. and Singer, J. (1982). Teaching television: A curriculum for young children. Journal

of Communication, 32(3), 46-55.

- Rice, M. L., Huston, A. C. and Wright, J. C. (1982). The forms of television: Effects on children's attention, comprehension and social behavior. In D. Pearl, C. Bouthilet and J. Lazar, Television and behavior. Ten years of scientific progress and implications for the eighties, Vol. II. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.
- Ridha, M. J. (1979). Project profile: "Iftah Ya Simsim" for the Arab world. In International Research Notes, Premier Issue, 13-17. New York: Children's Television Workshop.
- Ridley-Johnson, R. C. (1984). Children's reactions to component aspects of a televised conflict portrayal. Doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia.
- Roberts, E. J. (1986). Television and sexual learning in childhood. In D. Pearl, L. Bouthilet, and J. Lazar (Eds.), Television and behavior. Ten years of scientific progress and implications for the eighties, Vol. II. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.
- Rushton, J. P. (1982). Television and Prosocial behavior. In D. Pearl, L. Bouthilet, and J. Lazar (Eds.),

- Television and behavior. Ten years of scientific progress and implications for the eighties, Vol. II. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.
- Salomon, A. (1976). Cognitive skill learning across cultures: "Sesame Street" around the world. Journal of Communication, 26(1), 138-144
- Schickedanz, J. A., Schickedanz, D. I. and Forsyth, P. D. (1982). Toward understanding children. Canada: Little, Brown, and Company, Ltd.
- Schramm, W., Lyle, J. and Parker, E. B. (1961). Television in the lives of our children. California: Stanford University Press.
- Schuetz, S. and Sprafkin, J. N. (1979). Portrayal of prosocial and aggressive behaviors in children's TV commercials. Journal of Broadcasting, 23(1), 33-40.
- Selman, R. L. (1976). Social-cognitive understanding: A guide to educational and clinical practice. San Francisco: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Shapiro, B. N. (1975). Comprehension of television programming designed to encourage socially valued behavior in children: Formative research on Sesame Street programming with social and effective goals. Amherst: University of Massachusetts.

- Silverman, T. L. and Sprafkin, J. N. (1980). The effects of Sesame Street's prosocial spots on cooperative play between young children. Journal of Broadcasting, 24(2), 135-148.
- Singer, D. G., Singer, J. L. and Zuckerman, D. M. (1981). Teaching television: How to use television to your child's advantage. New York: Dial Press.
- Singer, J. L. (1982). Introductory comments. In D. Pearl, L. Bouthilet, and J. Lazar (Eds.), Television and behavior: Ten years of scientific progress and implications for the eighties, Vol. II. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.
- Singer, J. L. and Singer, D. G. (1981). Television, imagination and aggression: A study of pre-schoolers. Hillside, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Association.
- Singer, R. D. (1984). The function of television in childhood aggression. In R. M. Kaplan, V. J. Konechi and R. W. Novacu (Eds.), Aggression in childhood and youth (NATO ISI Series). The Hague and Boston: Martinus Nijof.
- Sprafkin, J. N. and Rubenstein, E. A. (1979). Children's television viewing habits and prosocial behavior: A field correlational study. Journal of Broadcasting, 23(2), 265-276.

- Stein, A. H. and Friedrich, L. K. (1971). The effects of aggressive and prosocial television programs on the naturalistic social behavior of preschool children. Paper presented at the Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Minneapolis, Minnesota.
- Stein, A. H. and Friedrich, L. K. (1975). Impact of television on children and youth. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Stein, A. H., Friedrich, L. K. and Vondracek, F. (1972). Television content and young children's behavior. In J. P. Murray, E. P. Rubenstein and G. A. Comstock (eds.). Television and social behavior, vol. II. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.
- Stephens, T. M. (1978). Social skills in the classroom. Columbus, OH: Ceder's Press.
- Stevenson, H. W. and Stevenson, N. A. (1961). A method for simultaneous observation and analysis of children's behavior. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 99(1), 253-260.
- Strain, P. S., Guralnick, M. J. and Walker, H. M. (Eds.) (1986). Children's social behavior. London: Academic Press.

- Strayhorn, J. M. and Strain, P. S. (1986). Social and language skills for preventive mental health: What, how, who and when. In P.S. Strain, M. J. Guralnick, and H. M. Walker. Children's social behavior, development, assessment, and modification. London: Academic Press.
- Surgeon General's Scientific Advisory Committee on Television and Social Behavior. (1972). Television and growing up: The impact of televised violence. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office.
- Tracy, W. (1979). Sesame opens. Aramco World Magazine. September-October issue, p. 9-17. Dhahran, Saudi Arabia.
- Truet, C. (1979). Children and television, Introduction. In. Children and television: Discussion papers on themes related to the International Year of the Child. New York: United Nations, IYC Secretariat.
- Vasta, R. (1979). Studying children: An introduction to research method. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman.
- Walters, J., Pearce, D. and Dahms, L. (1957). Affectional and aggressive behavior of preschool children. Child Development, 28(1), 15-26.
- Wartella, E. (1980). Children and television: The development of the child's understanding of the medium.

- In C. C. Wilhoit and H. deBock (Eds.), Mass communication review handbook, vol. I, Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Werner, E. E. (1979). Cross-cultural child development: A view from the planet Earth. Monterey, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing.
- Winter, J. (1980). A content analysis of a commercial television network to determine social-cultural conditioning towards reading and writing. Masters thesis, Kean College of New Jersey.
- Wright, H. F. (1967). Recording and analyzing child behavior. New York: Harper and Row.

VITA

Bahiya J. Aljishi was born and raised in Bahrain. As an undergraduate, she joined the University of Cairo where she majored in Arabic Language and Literature and obtained the degree of Bachelor of Arts.

She worked as a teacher of Arabic language and literature before moving to broadcasting. She contributed to local newspapers as a free lance journalist. She was keen on literary criticism and drama as well as children's and women's affairs. She was awarded a scholarship by the government of Bahrain to continue her graduate studies at the University of London where she obtained her Master of Arts degree.

As a broadcaster, Mrs. Aljishi attended several courses of study in radio and television production techniques run by the British Broadcasting Corporation and the British Council and obtained certificates in radio production, general television production and educational television production. While in the U. K., she worked for the BBC Arabic service as a newscaster and current affairs presenter between the years 1976-1978.

She was in charge of children's and educational programs at Bahrain Radio, and then at Bahrain television

before moving to the General Organization for Youth and Sports in Bahrain as the head of the Children's Department. She was admitted to the School of Education at Boston University for a doctoral program and graduated in September 1988 with a degree of Doctor of Education.