TELEVISION CONSUMPTION AND AFFECTIVE ORIENTATION

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Thesis

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ABSTRACT

This study examined affective orientation and television viewing. The mass media plays an influential role on individual viewers. Television viewing patterns may have a connection with Affective Orientation. Affective Orientation is defined as the predisposition to actively scrutinize, consider, and use one’s emotions as guiding information (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1990). Affectively oriented communicators tend to acknowledge subtle changes in their emotional states. Moreover, high AOs consider their emotions and use them as a way to guide behavioral decisions. Individuals low in AO tend to ignore their emotions as useful information. This study found no significant connection between hours of television watched and Affective Orientation. However, the findings suggest that affective orientation may be more uniquely influenced by television program type viewed. People who scored high in AO watched programming that allowed them to identify with or imitate those live symbolic models, which are often prevalent in drama/soap operas.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. N.J. Brown, for her patience and kindness. Thank you to Dr. Andrew Rancer, for your insights and knowledge on personality traits. Thank you to Dr. Heather Walter, for taking extra time out to work with me and for your encouragement. Thank you to my parents, Veodis and Carmen Byrd, who always give their love and support. And, I am grateful to God, with whom all things are possible. This thesis was a learning experience and a journey, of which I am thankful.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Television and human behavior is a heavily researched topic in the communication field. There is a great deal of interest in empirically verifying television’s impact on society as a whole. Research on this topic has been conducted in a variety of fields such as communication studies, social psychology, child development, political science, business and marketing, sociology, psychiatry, and gerontology. Organizations such as the Federal Communications Commission, the Federal Trade Commission, and various public interest groups have turned to research for guidance in evaluating television’s performance. Research affects legislative decisions as well as applications for social institutions and commercial interests.

Television and Human Behavior

Research on television and human behavior has taken several approaches. Many studies have looked at television and violence and its effect on the viewing audience. For example, Bandura (1973) found evidence that exposure to violent films leads to aggressive behavior. Potter (1999) researched the overall findings on the potential effects of media violence. After summarizing seven decades of research data, he found that there are short-term and long-term effects of exposure to media violence.
While short-term effects are usually immediate and occur shortly after one single exposure, long-term effects are a cumulative process. In fact, long-term effects may occur after repeated and consistent exposure to media violence.

In addition to short-term and long-term effects, Potter found that long-term exposure to media violence is related to the level of aggression in a person’s life. He noted that individual’s who watch many hours of media violence tend to be more aggressive. Potter also found that situational factors, such as viewer traits, demographics, age, gender, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status might influence how audience members receive media violence portrayals. Audience traits such as personality type, intelligence, and cognitive processing can mediate the effects process. Thus, violent media exposure does not affect everyone the same way.

Other studies have looked at audience viewing behaviors. For instance, Nielsen (2000) reported that the average adult in the United States watches over eight hours of prime time programming per week. Consequently, adults spend two full weeks or 400 hours of their leisure-time activity per year watching prime-time shows.

Milkman and Sunderwirth (1987) described television addiction as a way to escape from unpleasant and negative feelings. They compared television addiction to compulsive overeating. They suggested that research be conducted on personality styles of such addicts as a way of determining addictive behaviors. Harrison and Cantor (1997) suggested that adolescent females who view more television are more dissatisfied with their bodies and are more likely to show symptoms of eating disorders than females who view less television (Botta, 2000; Stice, Schupak-Neuberg, Shaw, & Stein, 1994).
Extended television viewing can pose a risk, especially if the program content is highly aggressive or violent (Smith, Nathanson, & Wilson, 2002). Researchers assess just how often viewers watch television and what programs are viewed as well as what impact television has on individuals.
CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

*Television Consumption*

Existing literature has often focused on violence and television. Since the mid-1950s, social scientists have tried to discover a link between violence viewed in the media and aggressive behavior. For example, Andison (1977) suggested that watching television violence could lead to an increased level of aggression of viewers. He argued that linking those two variables together should be used as a justification for reducing the amount of violence shown on television.

However, Morris (1971) reported that watching violent television neither stimulates nor retards the aggressive levels of its viewers. His research suggested that TV violence—repetitive or not—is not harmful. Because violence in society exists, people must utilize their resources for coping with it.

While Morris reported on the effects of violent television, McLeod and Chaffee (1998) studied the effects of television on children. They reported that the type of violence displayed is the key factor in determining whether or not the viewer responds in an aggressive manner after watching a violent portrayal. For instance, a violent act committed by an attractive character is more likely to be imitated than one committed by
an unattractive character (Bandura, 1994). Additional research has shown that viewers tend to imitate behaviors on programs that contain justified violence than programs that contain unjustified violence (Paik & Comstock, 1994).

Other research on audience exposure has argued that viewers with high levels of aggression were angry and, thus preferred watching talk shows that displayed more sensational topics (Rubin, Haridakis, & Eyal, 2003). Their research explained individual’s attraction to different types of talk shows and examined how dispositional factors and television viewing factors influenced the attraction. For example, Jerry Springer viewers that possessed high levels of aggression watched to be entertained and enjoyed watching guests’ be embarrassed, shocked, and hurt. On the other hand, viewers of The Oprah Winfrey Show that had low levels of aggression watched to be informed. Thus, their research linked individual motivation and dispositions with attraction to certain media content.

Chory-Assad (2004) explored the effects of exposure to verbally aggressive television sitcoms on the accessibility of aggressive cognitive responses. To explore this, participants watched either a crime drama or a sitcom and then completed a thought-listing task and measures of arousal, affective state, and trait verbal aggressiveness. The results indicated that trait verbal aggressiveness predicted aggressive cognitive responses during exposure to sitcoms, but not during exposure to crime dramas. In addition, sitcom viewers had a higher number of aggressive cognitive responses than crime drama viewers.

Another study by Scharrer (2001) examined the relationship between television violence exposure and aggression and hostility. Findings indicated that people exposed
to a hypermasculine and violent television show had an increase in reports of aggression and hostility.

Another aggression study by Potter and Smith (2000) suggested that people who view non-graphic television violence are less likely to focus on the aggression and more likely to focus on the characters or the plot. This study emphasized how the context of the program cues the television viewers on how to interpret the action.

Research on the effects of television and personality traits such as aggression is consistent with the Social Cognitive Theory. Therefore, the link between these two constructs will be explored.

*Social Cognitive Theory*

Bandura (1986) also identified the influential role the mass media play in society. In his research, he placed heavy emphasis on cognitive concepts. Bandura introduced the Social Cognitive Theory that focuses on how children and adults operate through intuition or perceptions on their social experiences and how those perceptions influence development and behavior. Bandura’s theory was the first to incorporate vicarious learning and modeling as a form of social learning. He believed two aspects of human nature determine behavior: internal and external. In addition, he introduced several other concepts, such as self-efficacy, reciprocal determinism, and the idea that there could be a significant temporal variation in time lapse between cause and effect. The concept of self-efficacy is the belief that self-motivation determines the outcome of achieving a goal. For example, a person with high self-efficacy would work hard to achieve a goal. Reciprocal determinism refers to the belief that people have the ability to change their destiny. In other words, people have the cognitive means to determine their behavior.
Bandura’s belief in variation in time lapse between cause and effect further emphasizes that cognitions change over time as a result of experience and maturation. The main focus of Social Cognitive Theory is the acquisition of behaviors through observation. In other words, people may imitate or identify with live or symbolic models.

Bandura’s Social Cognitive Theory has been used in developing techniques for promoting a change in behavior. The symbolization in this theory provides humans with a tool for comprehending their environment and for creating and regulating environmental events that touch every aspect of their lives.

These studies have attempted to identify the various effects that television has on the viewing audience. However, understanding the relationship between television and an individual’s emotions in determining its effects represents an underinvestigated area of research. Like aggression and cognition, affective orientation is a trait that influences one’s behavior, thus, the link between television and affective orientation will be evaluated.

Affective Orientation

Affective Orientation (AO) is defined as “the predisposition to actively scrutinize, consider, and use one’s emotions as guiding information,” (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1990, p. 451). Affectively oriented communicators tend to acknowledge subtle changes in their emotional states. Moreover, high AOs consider their emotions and use them as a way to guide behavioral decisions. Individuals low in AO tend to ignore their emotions as useful information. However, there is a sequence of cognitive events that lead up to communication action (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1998). An individual’s affective orientation will increase if there is an extreme or direct
event that triggers it. Therefore, individuals must be in an emotional state or have their emotions triggered in order to discover the effect of affective orientation.

Both psychology and communication researchers have an interest in AO. Since its inception, researchers have investigated how affectively oriented communicators notice subtle differences and changes in their own emotional states (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1990). Booth-Butterfield and Booth-Butterfield (1996) examined how AO is associated with other constructs. Their research proposed a measure for AO and found a correlation between AO and nonverbal sensitivity.

Avtgis and Rancer (2003) compared affective orientation and touch apprehension between Asian-American and European American siblings. Their research hypothesized that Asian-Americans would report lower levels of affective orientation and higher levels of touch apprehension, as a result of restrictive social norms and their tendency to be influenced by high context culture. Supporting their hypothesis, they found that Asian-Americans had lower levels of affective orientation and reported higher levels of touch apprehension toward their siblings. Their study supported an earlier study (Frymier, Klopf, & Ishii, 1990) that found that Japanese students scored lower on affective orientation than American students.

Booth-Butterfield and Booth-Butterfield (2002) positioned affective orientation with the Five-Factor model of personality and assessed how it impacted the communication process. The Five-Factor model of personality consists of five dimensions of personality, which includes neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Participants in their study completed the 15-item AO scale (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1996) and the NEO-FFI
Form S (Costa & McCrae, 1992), which operationalized the Five-Factor model. Their study found AO to be significantly related to the more emotional aspects of the Five-Factor model, such as extraversion and neuroticism. In addition, AO demonstrated factorial independence, which suggests that it could be factored as a distinguishable facet.

Early research and theory on this trait evaluated the relationship between retrieval differences and cognitive processing (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1990). Individuals high in AO were more likely to incorporate humor into their messages (Wanzer, Booth-Butterfield, & Booth-Butterfield, 1995). High AO’s tend to use affect to influence their communication encounters and are well aware of their feelings (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1994). Additionally, high AO’s displayed more comforting behaviors and nonverbal sensitivity (Dolin & Booth-Butterfield, 1993). In addition, there was a significant difference in the AO scores of males and females. Males were less affectively oriented, while females were more affectively oriented and used more touch when communicating with others. On the other hand, individuals with a low AO were not as aware of their emotions, and if they were, they would ignore those cues.

Dillard, Plotnick, Godbold, Freimuth, and Edgar (1996) looked at how affective orientation plays a part in a person’s response to fear appeals in health public service announcements. They reported that low AOs respond with less emotion to fear inducements as opposed to high AOs. The results of their study had an overall effect on how messages can change audience behavior. Yelsma (1995) researched the relationship between affective orientation and spousal abuse. He reported that individuals high in AO tend to express negative emotions. However, these individuals did not necessarily display negative emotions in an abusive manner. In a related area, Sidelinger and Booth-
Butterfield (1997) reported a positive correlation between the AO levels and verbal aggressiveness of children and parents and openness in family communication patterns. Families high in AO were more likely to have satisfactory family interaction styles, as opposed to families low in AO, where communication was not as prevalent and the families were less open.

While early research on affective orientation did not examine whether AO is related to increased television viewing, recent research by Chory-Assad and Cicchirillo (2005) has linked identification with television characters with empathy and AO. More specifically, their study examined the relationship between affective orientation and viewers’ empathy and how they identify with their favorite character on television. They hypothesized that viewers’ empathy and AO would predict identification with their favorite TV character. The results of their study found that AO positively predicted similarity identification.

Similarity identification was defined as the process by which television viewers expand their identities (Feilitzen & Linne, 1975). This process included viewers identifying themselves with the characters and becoming involved with the character based on similar characteristics. Additionally, viewers’ AO and perspective taking positively predicted group identification and cognitive-emotional identification. Group identification was defined as the process by which television viewers identify with TV characters because they share similar characteristics of viewer friends and family (Auter & Palmgreen, 2000; Feilitzen & Linne, 1975). Perspective taking was defined as the ability to adopt another person’s viewpoint during interactions (Stiff, Dillard, Somera, Kim, & Sleight, 1998).
Not only did Chory-Assad and Cicchirillo (2005) find a link between AO and similarity identification, but they also found that the television genre in which the character appeared in and the sex of the favorite character also predicted viewer identification. In addition, AO predicted perspective taking, which suggested that similarities between the TV character and oneself involves a cognitive process that is worth noting.

Purpose of the study

The effect of television consumption on individuals has been supported by a variety of research studies on media effects. Affective orientation is a communication trait that continues to be an area of interest for psychology and communication researchers, and one that has recently been linked with television viewing. However, research has yet to explore the relationship between television consumption and affective orientation. It is not known how one’s AO score may be affected by the amount of hours one watches television or the types of programs viewed. Thus, research has not investigated the link between what is viewed on television and scores obtained on the AO scale. By studying the amounts of time individuals spend watching television and what is being viewed, a possible connection between AO and viewing behavior may be determined. Therefore, the present study explores (a) the frequency with which individuals watch television and, (b) the relationship between television viewing and AO.

Research Question

Past research on television and human behavior suggests that program consumption and the amount of time spent watching television has an effect on viewers’ attitudes and social perceptions (Shrum, 1999). Additionally, the nature of the affective
orientation trait suggests that individuals who are high in affective orientation are
expected to experience their emotions more strongly and be more sensitive to changes in
perceptions of themselves (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1998).

RQ1: What is the relationship between the amount of television viewing hours by genre
and one’s level of affective orientation?
CHAPTER III

METHOD

This study investigated the relationship between television consumption and affective orientation, and asked the following research question: (1) What is the relationship between television viewing hours by genre and affective orientation?

The two variables investigated were television viewing patterns, which was measured using a questionnaire that focused on the programs viewed and the amount of hours spent watching television per day, and affective orientation as measured by the Affective Orientation Scale (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1990).

Participants

A nonprobability sample was taken from students enrolled in communication courses at a large midwestern university. One hundred and forty individuals participated in this study. Those who participated were given a brief explanation of the purpose of the study and its time requirements. The participants were seated in a classroom setting and were issued an informed consent form in which they agreed to complete an anonymous questionnaire (See Appendix A).

Respondents were recruited by one primary method: communication professors were contacted by phone and e-mail and asked permission from the researcher to distribute the questionnaires on television viewing patterns. Once the professors were
contacted, a meeting place and time was arranged that was convenient for both parties.
Respondents were given a brief overview of the study and how their participation would contribute to communication research. Forty-six percent of the participants were male (N = 65), and fifty four percent of the participants were female (N = 75). Although the age ranged from 18 to 39, 21% of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 24. The average age was 21.1 years.

*Instruments*

A general television questionnaire was developed that described television viewing behaviors. The questionnaire consisted of multiple choice, short answer, and fixed alternative questions (See Appendix A). Questionnaire items related to academic and socioeconomic background, and university experience were also included. In addition, the Affective Orientation Scale was issued. This 15-item instrument was based on Booth-Butterfield and Booth Butterfield’s 1990 model of AO and was presented in a 5-point Likert-type format with scale items ranging from (5: *strongly agree* to 1: *strongly disagree*). It was designed to identify and tap into several dimensions associated with communication and emotions. The test instructions stated that 15 minutes would be required to complete the test. Previous reliability coefficients for the AO scale were alpha=.80 (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1990). In this study, a coefficient alpha of .93 (M=51.73, SD=13.10) was reported.

Approval from the researcher’s academic institution, The University of Akron’s Institutional Review Board, was received (See Appendix B). All participants received a copy of the informed consent to participate in the study. Participant confidentiality was
Confidentiality was maintained by not asking for personal information that would identify the respondent.

Confidentiality was maintained by keeping all data in a locked file cabinet.

Data Analysis

The statistical method that was used to assess the relationships between television viewing hours by genre and affective orientation was Pearson correlation. The number of hours participants revealed watching each genre of TV programs was correlated with their total AO score.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The research question asked if there would be a significant relationship between participants’ television viewing hours by genre and their AO score. In order to test this question, television viewing hours by program genre for all participants’ were correlated with affective orientation. Results from this correlation analysis of AO and hours per week of television program genres revealed that the number of hours per week reported for drama/soap operas was moderately and positively correlated with AO ($r = .254, p < .01$). Thus, as the number of hours per week reported for drama/soap operas increased, respondent’s AO score increased.

In addition, affective orientation was significantly and negatively correlated with sports TV viewing ($r = -.358, p < .01$). Thus, as the number of hours per week reported for sports programs increased, the respondents’ AO decreased.

Affective Orientation was not correlated with situation comedies ($r = .071, p > .05$), talk shows ($r = .143, p > .05$), crime/drama ($r = .041, p > .05$), and reality programs ($r = .145, p > .05$).
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The focus of this study has been on the relationship between television viewing hours per week by program genre and affective orientation. Affective orientation was positively correlated with the amount of hours per week reported for watching drama/soap operas. This finding suggests that the more respondent’s reported watching drama/soap operas, the higher their AO. This data was consistent with previous research that affectively oriented individuals are more affected by TV exposure and more likely to engage in cognitive-emotional identification and group identification (Chory-Assad & Cicchirillo, 2005). This “emotional identification” is more prevalent in drama/soap operas where individuals can identify with or emulate either individuals or groups.

Affective Orientation was not correlated with situation comedies, talk shows, crime/dramas, news/educational or reality programs. This could be because while these types of programs can be somewhat emotional, they tend not to display as much emotion as drama/soap operas. For instance, past researchers have shown that reality programs are viewed as only moderately real (Nabi, Biely, Morgan, & Stitt, 2003). Thus, these types of programs are distinct from many major program genres. In addition, regular viewers tend to receive different gratifications from viewing as opposed to periodic viewers.
The present findings suggest that affective orientation may be more uniquely influenced by television program type viewed. For example, when comparing the scores of respondents who reported watching more hours of sports and news/educational programming, to the scores of respondents who reported watching situation comedies, drama/soap operas, talk shows, crime/dramas and reality programs, the proportions were significantly different. People who viewed sports and news/educational programs scored low on AO. This is not unreasonable given the types of emotions that are observed and displayed while viewing this program genre. For example, Rubin, Haridakis, and Eyal, (2003) noted that talk shows tend to display more sensational topics, thus triggering feelings of anger in a person who is high in aggression. However, sports programming does not offer this type of sensationalism. Also, sports programming is less dependent on language when compared with other program genres that offer more dialogue and intense storylines (Cowie & Williams, 1997).

Additionally, sports programming is unique because it has a strong public good element (Gaustad, 2000). Public good was defined as a program genre that is nonexcludable in the way in which it is consumed. For example, if Harry Potter is shown on a television channel that is not encrypted, it is non-excludable. However, if this same movie is shown on a coded or encrypted pay TV service, then it is considered excludable since not all viewers have direct access to that channel. Similarly, much value is placed on sports programming because of the uncertainty of the outcome, the quality of the players, and the quality of sports coverage. As a result, these factors determine the value of sports programming being perceived as a public good element.
These findings support the notion of Social Cognitive Theory that viewers operate through perceptions on their social experiences, which in turn influences development and behavior (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, people who scored high in AO watched programming that allowed them to identify with or imitate those live symbolic models, which are often prevalent in drama/soap operas. Conversely, people who scored low in AO viewed sports programming, which does not offer high levels of sensationalized emotion.

This study extends affective orientation and television research in different ways. It is the first to examine the relationship between television viewing hours by program type viewed and affective orientation. In this regard, it suggests that the type of television program genre people watch might influence their trait affective orientation. When someone has low AO, for whatever reason, it is likely that they will watch programming such as sports, which does not offer high levels of emotion. Consequently, it is useful to know what types of programming are likely to affect one’s affective orientation, such as drama/soap operas. Therefore, television consumption may be an important factor when assessing one’s affective orientation.

Limitations

Although the current study’s findings appear to offer new ideas for future research, a few limitations to the study should be noted. First, the television viewing questionnaire is a self-report measure that was created to assess how many hours per week individuals watch television. However, the program type genres within the questionnaire excluded cartoons and music videos as options. It is possible that these particular genres could have an influence on affective orientation. Therefore, future
research should find alternative methods of having the subjects report on what type of programming they watch and ensure that each television genre category is mutually exclusive.

Second, more reliable evidence could be obtained by sampling a more diverse group of individuals, as opposed to college students, who tend to watch less hours of television.

Suggestions for Future Research

Additional affective orientation research could address how television consumption correlates with emotional intelligence, or EQ, a construct that is very similar in nature to the affective orientation trait. Emotional Intelligence is the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ emotions and feelings and to cognitively use those emotions to guide one’s behaviors and thinking (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). By linking these two constructs together, researchers can determine if one’s actions are influenced by the type of program content viewed and how well they score on an EQ test. There might be similarities in how people who score high on EQ watch program types that display high levels of emotion, such as drama/soap operas.

It would also be helpful to utilize a uses and gratification approach to media as opposed to Social Cognitive Theory. This approach would be useful because it provides a framework that is significant in mass communication mediums, such as newspapers, radio, television, and the Internet (Ruggiero, 2000). In doing so, future research would be able to focus on how people use the media and the gratification they receive from it.

This study is one of few preliminary studies on affective orientation and television. Although it offers insight into the relationships between TV consumption and
affective orientation, future research on this topic should correlate affective orientation
with other forms of media.

The fact that females tend to have higher levels of AO than males is worth noting. Therefore, future research should correlate the affective orientations of males with program genres, and the affective orientation of females and program genres, to see if there are differences in AO, program preference and gender.

Furthermore, the proportions of hours by program genre and the amount of hours of participants’ total TV viewing should be evaluated.

Finally, as this study was exploratory in nature, replication research should be conducted prior to offering any definitive conclusions on the nature of the relationship between TV consumption and AO.
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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

A Little About You

1. Are you… ____Male  ____Female                              2. How old are you? ______

3. How many hours of television do you watch per week on average? __________________

4. What type of television programming do you watch?

   ____Situation Comedy (a comedy series in which the same characters star in each episode) (i.e. Bernie Mac, Friends, George Lopez, etc.)

   ____Drama/Soap Operas (i.e. The Young and the Restless, The Bold and the Beautiful, Desperate Housewives, Days of Our Lives, General Hospital, etc.)

   ____Talk Shows (i.e. Jerry Springer, Oprah, Montel Williams, etc.)

   ____Crime/Drama (ER, Law and Order, Forensic Files, NYPD Blue etc.)

   ____News/Educational Programs (i.e. nightly evening news, CNN, MSNBC, Dateline NBC, ABCs 20/20, PBS, CBS, etc.)

   ____Reality Television (i.e. American Idol, The Apprentice, The Bachelor, etc.)

   ____Sports (i.e. ESPN, ESPN Classic, Speed Channel, etc.)

   ____Other (any program genre not specified) ____________________________________

5. How many hours do you watch per week of situation comedies? ______

6. How many hours do you watch per week of drama/soap operas? ______

7. How many hours do you watch per week of talk shows? ______
8. How many hours do you watch per week of crime/drama programming? _______

9. How many hours do you watch per week of news/educational programming? _______

10. How many hours do you watch per week of reality television programming? _______

11. How many hours do you watch per week of sports programming? _______

12. How many hours do you watch per week of other? ______________________

Directions: The following statements refer to the feelings and emotions people have and how people use their feelings and emotions to guide their behaviors. There are no right or wrong answers. Also realize that emotions and feelings can be positive or negative. One person can feel anger; another can feel love and tenderness. Both cases, however, are emotion. Use the following 5-point scale to indicate your answer.

<table>
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<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
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<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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13. I use my feelings to determine what I should do in situations.

14. I listen to what my “gut” or “heart” says in many situations.

15. My emotions tell me what to do in many cases.

16. I try not to let feelings guide my actions.

17. I am aware of and use my feelings as a guide more than others do.

18. I won’t let my emotions influence how I act most of the time.

19. I follow what my feelings say I should do in most situations.

20. Most of the time I avoid letting my emotions guide what I do.

21. I usually let my internal feelings direct my behavior.

22. Usually my emotions are good predictors of how I will act.

23. My actions are often influenced by my awareness of my emotions.

24. My emotions provide me solid direction in my life.
25. How I act often depends on what my feelings tell me to do.

26. Even subtle emotions often guide my actions.

27. When I am aware of my emotional response, I listen to it to determine what to do.
APPENDIX B

IRB APPROVAL FORM

Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs
Akron, OH 44325-2102
(330) 972-7665 Office
(330) 972-6281 Fax

September 16, 2005

Crystal Byrd
120 North Ave., Apt. 118B
Tallmadge, Ohio 44278

Ms. Byrd,

The University of Akron’s Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (IRB) completed a review of the protocol entitled “Television Consumption and Personality.” The IRB application number assigned to this project is 20050904.

The protocol was reviewed on September 16, 2005 and qualified for exemption from continuing IRB review. The protocol represents minimal risk to subjects and matches the following federal category for exemption:

(2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: (i) information is recorded in such a manner that subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to subjects; AND (ii) any disclosure of responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of civil or criminal liability or be damaging to subjects’ financial standing, employability or reputation

Enclosed is a copy of the informed consent document, which the IRB has approved for your use in this research. In addition, your request for a waiver of documentation of informed consent, as permitted under 45 CFR 46.117(c), is also approved.

Annual continuation applications are not required for exempt projects. If you make any changes or modifications to the study's design or procedures that either increase the risk to subjects or include activities that do not fall within one of the categories exempted from the regulations, please contact the IRB first, to discuss whether or not a request for change must be submitted. Any such changes or modifications must be reviewed and approved by the IRB prior to their implementation.

Please retain this letter for your files. If the research is being conducted for a master's thesis or doctoral dissertation, the student must file a copy of this letter with the thesis or dissertation.

Sincerely,

Sharon McWhorter
Associate Director