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The effects of television on the social construction of body images by five- and six-year-old girls

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Recommended Citation

The effects of television on the social construction of body images

by five- and six-year-old girls

A Thesis

Presented to the

Department of Communication

And the Graduate College

University of Nebraska at Omaha

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

University of Nebraska at Omaha

By

Kristine M. Gruidl

January, 2001

UMI Number: EP72910

UMI®

Dissertation Publishing

UMI EP72910

ProQuest®

THESIS ACCEPTANCE

Acceptance for the faculty of the Graduate College,

University of Nebraska, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of Master of Arts, University of Nebraska at Omaha.

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Name   Department/School

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Chairperson/Date

Table of Contents

THE EFFECTS OF TELEVISION ON THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF BODY IMAGES BY FIVE- AND SIX-YEAR-OLD GIRLS

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Television images influence individuals (Elliott and Slater, 1980). Cognitive learning theory suggests that during the first five to six years of life, children's behavior patterns will be set (Donohue, 1975). Television has the potential to be a positive influence on learning. However, typical American media and television have been a negative influence on most children (Williams, 1981).

A 1996 study reported thirty-nine-point-one percent of first graders do not like their appearance and would change their looks, given the opportunity. It has been suggested the mass media are responsible and have taught children fat is bad and thin is good (Flannery-Schroeder and Chrisler, 1996).

Research has also found this to be true in adult women. Watching thirty minutes or more of television programming and advertisements a day may alter a woman's body image. Meyers and Biocca (1992) suggested that media feature thinner women, creating a thinner social ideal, which is unrealistic for most women.

The purpose of this study was to determine how television might affect the body image of five- and six-year-old girls. Based on the theory of social construction of

reality, it was suggested that girls who are exposed to attractive female television personalities will want to be attractive themselves, as they would like to receive the same positive attention.

This study was unable to support that television exposure leads to a negative body image in girls of this age. This study does suggest that girls of this age tend to have a low level of body image awareness. Daily life experiences seem to be more of an influence at this age than television. It is not to say that girls of this age are not affected by the mass media. Perhaps interviews were not the appropriate methodology. It is also possible media do not influence girls of this age as the researcher suggested.

The pilot study sample was self-selected, a very limited sample size, and may not be representative of the entire population of girls this age.

Chapter I

Introduction

Mass media may play a strong role in the daily lives of Americans. The messages media send defining femininity and the effects of this messaging will be examined here.

Gender & Body Image

According to Rakow (1986), the term "gender" should be used as a verb, as a set of social practices and cultural meanings, with an evolving definition. Berger and Luckmann's (1967) construction of social reality suggests that what is real for one person may not be real for another; life experiences create reality and will be ingrained into a person so deeply that they will be taken for granted.

Through interviews with girls age 13 to 17, Curtie (1997) suggested that young girls accepted stereotypical images of adult women as their definition of the female gender. In a study conducted by Hoffner (1996), female television character's attractiveness determined whether or not the girls in the study liked the woman. The girls rated female television characters as more intelligent than the male television characters. However, perceived beauty was more important than intelligence, suggesting that beauty is also a characteristic of femininity.

As girls mature, their body image changes, often into a negative image due to ridicule about their weight, a change in weight, or self-comparison to models (Jaffee &

Lutter, 1995; Nelson, 2000). According to Jaffee and Lutter (1995), girls are at a higher risk for low body image if they compare their appearance to others. When asked whom these girls compare themselves to, the respondents surveyed answered: to girls with what they perceived to be perfect bodies (models, entertainers, and teachers). The study also found that the need for peer acceptance. The awkwardness of their maturing bodies heightened some of the girls' vulnerability to casual comments in reference to their weight. In addition, positive attention due to a boy's attraction made the girls believe that they were thin and beautiful. Jaffee and Lutter suggested that the media reinforce this link between attraction and beauty. This suggestion will be explored later.

Television and Other Media Use

Ninety-eight percent of American households have at least one television, and sixty-nine percent have at least two. Per household, television usage averages seven hours a day. U.S. schoolchildren watch an average of four hours of television a day, resulting in twenty-eight hours a week; one thousand four hundred hours a year; eighteen thousand hours by high school graduation. And, the average American child is exposed to twenty thousand commercials per year. Advertisers spend more than seven hundred million dollars a year to reach children. Product mascots, such as Joe Camel, made an impact -- sixty-seven percent of adults could identify Joe Camel, compared to ninety-one percent of six-year olds in the early 1990's (Chen, 1994).

As previously mentioned, mass media present an altered image of women's bodies. And, in some instances this alteration has been linked to negative body images in

women. Current research does not pinpoint when women become aware of their own self-image or when mass media influence this image. The purpose of this pilot study will be to explore if girls as young as five and six years of age possess an awareness of the stereotypical imagery in television programming they are exposed to and if this exposure influences their own body image. In addition, this study will attempt to determine if television is influencing young girls' perceptions and satisfactions or dissatisfactions with their own body images through a distorted reality.

Chapter II

Review of Related Literature

Mass media provide a consensus of public opinion to represent reality, regardless of how far from reality this consensus may be (Katz, 1995). Sometimes, mass media are more influential, establishing stereotypical images (Englis & Soloman, 1994; Rich & Cash, 1993; Umiker-Sebeok, 1996). Exaggerated physical traits that represent a specific social group, such as a "dumb blonde" or a "jock" are considered stereotypical images.

Media Portrayal and Social Construction of Reality

According to Berger and Luckmann (1967), the social construction of reality theory argues that individuals create their own reality, based upon their own experiences, even if this is not an objective reality. "Everyday life presents itself as a reality interpreted by men and subjectively meaningful to them as a coherent world," (p.19).

For purposes of this study, mass media are part of society and contribute to the social construction of reality for females' self-perceptions of body image.

The social construction of reality has been examined in the context of television. Adoni and Mane (1984) described the theory of media and the social construction of reality as two-dimensional. First, there is the type of reality. Second, there is the distance of the social elements from direct exposure. Adoni and Mane suggested the social construction of reality is composed of interactions among individuals, society, and

culture. The construction is social, as it can only occur with a social interaction, either real or symbolic. In addition, individuals play dual roles in the construction, as they are both the creators and the producers of their own individual social world or reality.

Adoni and Mane (1984) defined three types of social reality. First, the objective social reality is made up of factual information. Second, the symbolic social reality is composed of art, literature, and mass media. And the third type of social reality is the subjective social reality, which is both objective and symbolic. Subjective reality is organized by the individual's zones of reference or their distance from the factual or objective reality. The close zone is composed of social elements and experiences the individual is frequently exposed to; the remote zone is composed of general social elements that the individual does not have close access to, such as public opinion. The Media Dependency Theory, according to Adoni and Mane (1984), reflects the extent to which the individual depends upon the media to compromise for a lack of direct experiences and contacts. Brinson (1992) suggested that through viewing, listening or reading television viewers learn from what they are exposed to and terms this idea the Media Socialization Theory.

Allen and Waks (1990) examined the extent of media influence on social reality construction and found two primary influences: mass media exposure and interpersonal discussion of social and political issues. Their results suggested that individuals with higher education levels read the newspaper more frequently, and they will discuss social and political issues. By contrast, the same study suggested television exposure does not promote interpersonal discussion.

Elliot and Slater (1990) expressed concern that mass media images are accepted as real events. They found individuals are influenced by television images more so than when individuals have direct experience with the social element being represented. Elliot and Slater suggested that program exposure is positively related to perceived reality, which in turn leads to greater viewing, furthering the degree of influence on reality. Leckenby (1976) suggested, for example, that the more programming with strong racial jokes and negative tones an individual is exposed to, the more the individual will agree with the attitudes represented in these programs.

Rockler (1999) found that the degree to which a television viewer believes programming to be realistic is the extent to which she will be influenced and that negative effects occur only if the viewer fails to comprehend the programming as unrealistic.

Socialization of Children

Television and the construction of social reality in children have received extensive attention in the research field. A primary concern is the extent to which television influences children's construction of social reality. Donohue (1975) suggested this concern is because children's learning during the first five to six years of their lives will set the behavior and learning patterns for the rest of their lives. In addition, research found that television has the ability to influence pro-social as well as anti-social behavior in children (Poulos, Wicks, and Liebert, 1975). Williams (1981) suggested television has the potential to be a positive influence on children's learning; however, typical American media and television content has been a negative influence on most children.

Children's television viewing is a process in which the child believes he or she is interacting with others (Frazer, 1981). Television viewing typically consists of attention periods of two to eight minutes, alternating with periods of playing with toys or other siblings. Pingree (1983) suggested a child's level of involvement is important in the construction of social reality. Low involvement has a tendency to allow for a greater influence on the child's social reality development, as filtering and evaluating tools are deactivated.

As children naturally develop, the degree to which television influences their perception shifts. For example, children ages three to five years old are able to comprehend clusters of television events (Pingree et. al, 1984). Middle and high school-aged students, by comparison, use three methods of evaluating television: the magic window to reality, as an information resource, and as a source of identification (Potter, 1992).

Flavell, Flavell, Greenrances and Korfmacher (1990) found that children have a four-step process of distinguishing television from reality. Phase one involves the child believing that the television images are real and contained either in the television or behind it. As the child enters phase two, he or she begins to learn that the television images are not real, physical objects. Phase three involves the child learning that the object exists somewhere outside the real world. And finally, during phase four, the child gradually learns to differentiate between reality and fantasy on television.

Reeves (1978) suggested a direct correlation between the consistency of children's attitudes and behaviors and the degree to which they perceive television to be real life.

Television that represents children's own culture as well as another's culture, for example, may cause changes in children's perceptions of their own, as well as others' unfamiliar, cultural groups (Canon, 1979).

Television characters play an active role in the construction of social reality in children as they choose to identify with characters. The process in which television viewers accept abstract characteristics, such as values or personality traits is termed character identification (Reeves and Miller, 1978). Identification must occur in order for individuals to imitate characters.

Boys in Reeves and Miller's (1978) study based character identification on four attributes: sense of humor, attractiveness, strength, and gender. Girls identified with attractiveness and perceived reality of the character. Reeves and Lometi (1979) suggested humor as the primary attribute used by children to differentiate television characters, with attractiveness and activity secondary.

Research suggests children use the same process to understand television characters as they do real-life peers, and judge both on common sets of characteristics (Barbrow, O'Keefe, Swanson, Meyers and Murphy, 1988). The age of the child is important in the character identification process. Young children tend to identify with children their own age until the age of eight (Feilitzen and Linn, 1975).

Parental relationships are also important (Feilitzen and Lin, 1975). Children tend to identify with parents more often than with television characters. However, children with poor parental and peer relationships tend to turn to mass media for models.

Baran (1974) suggested that television is an escape for children and those with low self-esteem will imitate television characters more often that children with high self-esteem. Children want to model the social behaviors demonstrated on television, especially humor, attractiveness, strength, and activity (Reeves and Greenberg, 1977). Six year olds, for example, who are exposed to a character who is ridiculed for negative behavior, will not want to practice the negative behavior for which the character was ridiculed (Bryant, Brown, and Parks, 1983). Reeves and Garramone (1982) suggested that television provides a standard perception of people for children through stereotyping.

Children's Use of Mass Media

The Annenberg Public Policy Center of the University of Pennsylvania (Oldenburg, 1999) found a twelve- percent increase of children's television programming from the previous year and a twelve-percent decrease in children's programming categorized as low quality. The majority of television stations are in compliance with the Federal Communications Commission's requirement of three hours of educational programming per week; however, twenty percent of the "educational" programs had no educational value. Additionally, the study found television violence to be an issue, as four or more instances of violence appeared in twenty-eight percent of children's programs.

The 1999 Kaiser Family Foundation study found that sixteen percent of the time children spend using media, they are using two forms at once. The study also found that children ages two to seven spend over three hours of every day watching television.

Thirty-two percent of these children have televisions in their bedrooms (Kelly, 1999). "Experts say TV and computers shouldn't supplement time with others and note that cyberchats don't develop social skills" (p.79).

The Kaiser study also found that children are watching television now more than any other generation before. The study suggested that the usage will increase (McClain, 1999). Children continue to spend the most time in front of the television. And, despite parents expressing concern regarding negative images in media, the study suggests that the majority of parents do not dislike what children are watching and the amount of time they spend watching.

Berkowitiz (1998) studied two hundred children six to eleven years old, and found that girls spend their money on items (other than clothes) in the following order: snacks, CDs/tapes, savings, candy, video games, movies, toys, and other. The study asked the children whether parents decided to make a spending decision because of them. Girls said they were influential in the following spending: vacation choice, computer equipment, TV, car selection, and stereo equipment.

Children and Gender Typing

Social learning theory suggests that children learn and repeat rewarded behaviors and avoid punished behaviors. Socializing agents, (parents, schools, peers, and mass media), influence the gender type of a child. Parents influence the child by clothing choices and the type of toys they purchase for the child, and among other factors, how

they behave in front of the child. "What does a child learn when dad drives whenever the family is in the car, when mom makes the meals, etc.?" asks Yoder (1999, p. 61). Berk (1999) suggested, "Parents who hold non-stereotypical values and apply them in their daily lives have less gender-typed children" (p. 390).

Schools serve as important socializing agents. Learning materials, school structure, and teacher interaction with students are all agents. Researchers suggest that teachers' treatment in schools provides a shortchange for girls, because girls are often taught to "speak quietly, defer to boys, avoid math and science, value neatness over innovation, stress appearance over intelligence" (Yoder, 1999, p. 61). Yoder also suggested that teachers' expectations and attention levels are higher for boys than girls.

Peers are another socializing agent. "Other children punish violations of gender prescriptions, with girls patrolling girls and boys patrolling boys" (Yoder, 1999, p.61). Siblings are influencers, as older children's toys, for example, tend to dictate play. Yoder (1999) found that children with older other-gender siblings tend to engage in less gender stereotyping than those with same-gender siblings.

Mass media is also an agent. In children's literature, for example, animal characters are male in three of every four stories, and storybooks feature boys in two of every three illustrations. Storybook girls, animal and human, are caring, have fewer occupations, are less likely to be adventurous, and more likely to be in need of rescue (Yoder, 1999).

Heavy television viewing, as a socializing agent, "is related to more sexist views of women's roles in society and children's attitudes about gender typing towards

household chores . . .. Those who watch more stereotypical shows describe themselves in more traditional terms" (Yoder, 1999, p. 68).

Saturday morning cartoons primarily feature male characters, who tend to be violent. Even PBS's *Sesame Street* features males twice as often as females (Yoder, 1999). Lips (1997) found that nursery school boys, after being read a story of a male character's achievement, worked harder and for a longer period of time than after hearing the same story with a female character. Furthermore, her study suggested preschoolers, after exposure to a stereotypical children's book, will choose a gender stereotypical toy and a non-stereotypical toy after listening to a non-stereotypical storybook (Lips, 1997).

Children's gender identity is a process of development. At age two, according to Berk (1999), girls become overwhelmed by boys' wild behavior. In a preschool environment, girls demonstrate a preference for quieter behavior and tend to play in pairs with other girls. Boys in the same environment flock to large groups with other boys. At age four, children of both genders spend three times as much time with same-gender playmates as they do opposite-gender playmates. By age six, this time has increased to eleven-times as much time with same-gender as opposed to opposite-gender playmates.

During the development process, children develop what Berk (1999) referred to as gender constancy. This is the child's understanding and acceptance that his or her gender is permanent, regardless of clothing or hairstyle changes. Children then use this as a self-behavior guide. Yoder (1999) suggested a similar cognitive development theory. She first proposed a schema, which she defines as, "an internal framework that helps organize the world . . . once formed schemas are shaped by assimilation and accommodation" (p.

70). New information that fits with the schema is accepted; new information that conflicts with the schema is disregarded. Schema development occurs in stages. "Children can only accommodate and assimilate information they are maturely ready to handle" (Yoder, 1999, p. 70). Yoder suggested that gender is a type of schema.

During the first eighteen months to two years of age, children are in the first stage of cognitive development. During this first stage, the child develops ideas about his or her own gender identity and then begins to recognize the gender of those around him or her (Yoder, 1999). Stage two of development occurs during age two to five when children develop an accurate perception of gender differences, with occasional errors. Stage three, according to Yoder, occurs between six and seven years old. Here the child develops gender constancy, where the child's gender is perceived as permanent (Yoder, 1999).

Psychoanalytic theory suggests children learn gender by identifying gender in childhood with same-gender individuals. Gender schema theory, however, suggests gender development is a combination of social learning and cognitive development (Berk, 1999).

Mass Media Stereotype Research

Historical Overview of Representation of Women's Bodies. Historically, the standard of living in the era has influenced how the mass media treat women's bodies (Blumberg, 1997). As the standard of living in the 1900's increased from previous centuries so did the health of the American public. At the turn of the Century, women's

bodies were developing at an earlier age; women were receiving higher degrees in education and were having fewer children.

The turn of the twentieth century represented an emphasis on youth. Women were active and athletic. Facial appearances were important, and particular emphasis was placed on purity and cleanliness. Advertisements for soaps, lotions and skin tonics featured healthy, young women. Women's legs were exposed and evaluated for the first time (Blumberg, 1997).

The first true emphasis on weight as part of the female identity happened in the 1920's. Until this time, home scales were not easily available, and women were weighed only at drug stores and county fairs. Home scales became available and heightened dieting. Male barbers cut women's hair short. And makeup, including lipstick, powder, and eyebrow pencils became popular and were applied in public. Before, cosmetics and their public application were socially inappropriate. The Flapper was popular, and women flattened their chests to appear youthful. The ideal 1920's body had long calves and thin ankles and would show a glimpse of the thigh. This was the introduction of beauty pageants, with the emphasis on physical appearances (Blumberg, 1997).

In 1945, *Seventeen Magazine* enjoyed popularity, and the two-piece swimsuit was introduced. Fashionable clothing was first designed for teenagers in 1950, and the names emphasized the teenage identity, with brands such as Hi-Girl (Blumberg, 1997). Full busts and long legs in high heels defined femininity. Cheerleading was popular, associated with social success, and popularized heavy sweaters and knee-length skirts. Girls posed in strapless dresses next to their boyfriends' cars for photographs.

Eyeglasses, designed especially for women, and contact lenses became available

(Blumberg, 1997).

In 1958, "slenderizing" styles were available for overweight women. Blue jeans

became popular in the 1960's and drew attention to women's lower bodies, with the

upper body in revealing T-shirts and bra tops. The bra top and low-slung shorts required

that 1970's women have a thin body. The 1980's glamorized female athletes, both in

advertising products to women and in offering recreational activities to women. In the

1990's, the athletically toned and thin woman's body was glamorized and became the

ideal (Blumberg, 1997).

It is important to realize that stereotypical female images presented by the mass

media have evolved over the past century. It is also important to keep in mind that the

human body itself does not evolve as fashion demands.

Television. As fashion changed, do did the forms of media women were

exposed to. Television became popular, and many tuned in.

MTV has been a frequent forum of analysis on the representation of women

(Englis & Soloman, 1994). An examination of music videos on MTV (Brown &

Campbell, 1986) found that females are less likely than males to be portrayed in

professional careers.

Kalof (1993) examined how images of gender and sexuality on MTV are

perceived by audiences and found that males and females construct different meanings of

women's roles after being exposed to MTV. In contrast, both men and women agree on

the role of males. Respondents were exposed to a Michael Jackson music video and

asked how they viewed the female in the video. Twenty-six percent of the females found the woman positioned as vulnerable, and eighteen percent found her to be a tease. In contrast, thirty-five percent of the male respondents felt the female was a tease, while only six percent thought she appeared vulnerable. More importantly, this data reinforces the traditional gender stereotype of men being the pursuers and women teasing and not giving in too easily. From viewing such a music video, the role of masculinity is easily defined for men, while women receive confused messages: weak, vulnerable and passive, or are they to be strong, self-sufficient and self-confident (Kalof, 1993).

African American women are receiving similar attractiveness messages in mass media. Research has indicated that black women, just as white women, gain perceptions of their own physical attractiveness through media. Fewer black women than white women appear on television (Perkins, 1996). When black women do appear on television, oftentimes they have Caucasian characteristics, such as light skin, or light colored eyes. When darker women appear on television, they typically play the maternal or belligerent role (Perkins, 1996).

A 1992 study (Maher, 1992) examined two milk product commercials; the first commercial featured a well-built male, zapping the remote control through a video of himself. The first part of the video pictured him thrown into lockers by bullies, whereas the second half, "him now," featured him surrounded by women, none of whom he acknowledged. He attributed his success to drinking milk. The second television spot, also for milk, featured a young woman in the same role. This time, however, her video pictured her alone at the high school dance, wearing preppy clothes. The "later" shot

pictured her again at the high school dance, this time wearing a sexy dress and flirting with the boys. This was her success. Maher's primary concern with the two television commercials was the definition of femininity presented. Maher proposed that women take their definition from men; women rely upon men's attention to define themselves (Maher, 1992).

In a study using the popular series *Beverly Hills 90210*, Granello (1997) found the meaning of femininity women took from the series depended upon the viewer's age. A twelve-year-old examining relationship roles placed the primary focus on the family. For the seventeen -year-old, however, the focus was on how the relationship defined a person. Granello suggested that *90210* was a sexist television program, as the majority of the male characters worked while females shopped (Granello, 1997).

Print Media. Researchers have also examined print media, analyzing the presentation of women. According to Klein (1993), comics often display the stereotypical depictions of women, and they present women with the male viewer in mind. The male gaze represents longing and desire--the cartoon women are often represented with large breasts, lips, and shapely legs. Often women's body parts, such as arms, legs, and hands, are wrapped around objects, representing women as mere instruments in an accomplishment (Klein, 1993).

An examination of gender in computer technology print advertisements and direct mail pieces found women portrayed as subordinate, even in a field where women are highly proficient (Knupfer, 1997). Knupfer proposed that a gender bias exists, and it is a reflection of the society. In the ads examined, women were consistently in the

background and not utilizing computer equipment in a productive manner. In addition, the computer matched the model's body shape- for example, the thin data processor used a laptop, while the older schoolteacher used a heavy computer. These findings, Knupfer proposed, left the consumer with a deceptive image of women (Knupfer, 1997).

Media address not only the image of femininity but also the power of femininity. From a spatial-relationship, print advertisements served as the basis of a content study (Umiker-Sebeok, 1996). Findings reported that the men represented tended to be taller than the women did, and their posture was bolder, implying more power than the women. Women were typically viewed in the home, especially in the bathroom using personal products. Men, if featured in the bathroom, were taking vigorous showers. If men were in the bedroom, they were either lying down or concerned with such issues as finance. Umiker-Sebeok proposed that spatial relationships influence perceptions of power. The more space consumed, the more power of the individual. As women were often depicted as thin, they consequently took up less space and thus had less power (Umiker-Sebeok, 1996).

The Effects of Media Stereotypes

Negative imaging effects mass media have on women have been examined in many studies. Meyers and Biocca (1992) found that watching thirty minutes or more a day of television programming and advertisements may alter a woman's perception of her own body. Body image is a mental construction, not an objective evaluation. Body

image is unstable and highly responsive to exposure, and this is called "the elastic body image" (Meyers & Biocca, 1992).

Mass media have an important role in the concept of elasticity. Content analysis supported that media feature thinner women, creating a thinner social ideal, which is unrealistic for most women. Meyers and Biocca (1992) found media presentations of thinness, however, do not always have a negative effect. In fact, in some instances, exposure to a thin media personality leads to higher self-esteem of the viewer, possibly because the viewer visualizes herself as the thin model (Meyers & Biocca, 1992).

Such visualizations can sometimes have a negative impact. The 1997 Body Image Survey found fifty-six percent of the women surveyed reported dissatisfaction with their overall appearance, and eighty-nine percent wanted to lose weight. While cultural factors played a major role in the individual's self-perceptions, advertising was held accountable. Women with eating disorders are the most influenced by fashion models (Garner, 1997).

Sociocultural norms encourage eating disorders among women (Burton, Scott, Netemeyer and Ricard, 1995). Twenty percent of advertising features some form of an attractiveness message, contributing to a consumer's concern with personal appearance. Female models and celebrities reinforce this attractiveness message. Research indicates that women possess a higher concern for physical attractiveness than men yet have a lower perception of personal appearance on an individual basis (Burton & Netemeyer, 1995).

Eleven million American women suffer from eating disorders, and the amount of advertising containing thin women is suggested to be linked directly to this. Advertisers

have motivation, according to Stephens and Hill (1994), to continue to feature thin media

personalities. The study suggested that the more dissatisfied a woman feels with her

appearance, the more positively she will associate with an attractive female model and the

brand promoted. Not only do the advertisers continue to support the American female's

quest for a perfect body, but they also can benefit from it financially. From the onset of

youth, Americans are taught the female body is used to attract others. And a thin body is

more attractive than an obese body (Stephens & Hill, 1994). Thin media personalities'

influence on American women has been an issue of concern in relation to the building of

healthy self-images. Mass media are charged with transmitting thinness norms, and thin

is associated with success (Harrison, 1997).

A study of young girls in first, third, and fifth grades indicated the severity of

eating disorders that have been potentially instigated by media. In this study, first had

dieted and shown proof of eating disorders. The children understood the connection

between eating and weight gain and, therefore, developed poor eating habits. When

questioned-- "Do I like my looks?"--thirty-nine-point one percent of first graders and

twenty-four-point-two percent of third graders responded "no." Thirty-nine-point-one

percent of first graders and forty-four-point-one percent of third graders would change

their appearance if given the opportunity. The author suggested that media are

participating in the social learning theory, teaching children that fat is bad and thin is

good. These children will learn the social benefits of being thin and the negatives

associated with being fat, reinforcing the ideal body image as represented by media

(Flannery-Schroeder & Chrisler, 1996).

Young girls' motivation for comparison to media characters will determine whether or not the comparison has a negative effect (Martin & Gentry, 1997). For instance, a young girl comparing for self-evaluation or improvement may find her own body perception seemed larger than it really was. If self-improvement is the motive, oftentimes women will increase their self- esteem (Martin & Gentry, 1997).

In the work environment, research has indicated in some instances those females wearing make-up decreases their credibility. Yet women still wear make-up because the image projected with wearing make-up is thought to be associated with health and attractiveness (Dellinger & Williams, 1997).

Many women are combating negative self-images with plastic surgery. In 1992, eighty thousand women had plastic surgery on their breasts (not including the thirty thousand women who had reconstructive surgery after a mastectomy). The media, tabloids, and talk shows have promoted plastic surgery as a simple way to feel better about one's self, and many women have tried it. Many of the women undergoing plastic surgery treatment are already attractive compared to the social norm; however, their self-esteem is so intertwined with their appearance that they constantly seek self-improvement (Neimark, 1994).

The influence of the mass media, particularly television, on women's body images has traditionally received much attention. The present study seeks to further this existing knowledge base by providing insight as to how television influences five- and six-year-old girls' body images.

The following research questions will be addressed:

R1: What extent of awareness do six-year-old girls have of their body image?

R2: What popular media characters, if any, are influencing young girls' body images?

R3: Do mass media construct a positive social reality of body image for six-year-old

girls?

R4: How do six-year-old girls define attractiveness?

R5: Is there a connection between young girls' body images and mass media portrayals?

Chapter III

Methodology

Sampling.   Twelve interviews with five- and six-year-old girls were conducted, with a sample of Omaha area girls from a local Catholic elementary school.   Interview questions were developed specifically to answer the research questions. The school was selected based on the willingness of the principal to work with the researcher on this study. Two first-grade and one kindergarten teachers were sent letters, explaining the study and the procedure in advance of permission slip distribution. The researcher contacted each teacher at school via telephone, with the researcher leaving a message for the teacher to please call with any questions. The teachers had no questions.

Packets of information, including a letter explaining the intention of the study, an Adult Consent Form and a Parental Consent Form, were given to each teacher to be sent home with the female students in each of the three classrooms. The sample included the first twelve students to return their permission slips. The students who participated in the study did so due to parental self-selection.

Instrument. An interview format was developed from a previous study of the current researcher's.   The researcher's Thesis Committee members also provided input as to what to ask subjects in order to gain necessary data for analysis. Each question was selected to potentially provide insight into the thoughts of children this age and their parents. Specifically, the first question, "Pretend we're on the telephone talking, and I

can't see you. Tell me what you look like," was asked to test the level of body image the child had. A similar format was used in a previous research project of the researcher's. The next question, "Now can you tell me what you like the most about yourself," was asked for the same reason, as the researcher thought perhaps the area of the body the child focused on would provide further insight into the child's body image awareness. "What do you like the most about the way you look?" was another way of asking the same question, and again, worked for the researcher in a previous project.

"Can you tell me if you like the way you look" was taken from Flannery-Schroeder and Chrisler's (1996) findings that thirty-nine-point-one percent of first grade girls answered "no."

"Pretend you could be anyone you wanted to be. Who would you be and why?" was asked to determine if the child wished to "be" a popular media character. Depending upon how the subject answered the question, the researcher hoped to gain insight as to the role of the social construction of reality and television in girls this age. "What do you like about her/him?" followed in order to determine if the child liked the character due to physical or personality traits. The child followed this with a description of the character. The researcher inquired as to what features the child noticed, possibly suggesting a pattern with the child's own body image description.

"What do you like to watch on TV?" was asked to compare the child's television preferences to children surveyed nationally. Current data was obtained from *Electronic Media* (March 6, 2000). The child was asked who her favorite media character was, and if the character was not female, the child was asked who her favorite female character

was. This questioning was done here to gain insight as to who, if any media character, the child may be comparing herself to. The child was also asked why she liked this character and what she looked like in order, again, to gain further insight into how the child's body image was constructed. A similar line of questioning was conducted in a previous study of the researcher's.

The researcher questioned the children as to who the prettiest person they knew was to help the researcher determine how these children define attractiveness. According to psychoanalytic theory, children learn gender from identifying with the same gender (Berk, 1999). How these children described the person they found most attractive may provide insight as to how children of this age define the female gender.

At the suggestion of the thesis committee, the children were asked what their favorite toy was, as perhaps this toy would be a media character. Additionally, the committee suggested that the researcher ask the girls' opinion of American Girl dolls, as they are a trend with children this age. The girls were also asked what they thought of Barbie, as not only is Barbie a popular toy for girls, but Wason-Ellam (1997) suggested Barbie represents what an ideal girl should be.

Finally, the girls were asked who they live with, to provide demographic insight. They were asked who they watch TV with and what their friends watch, because according to Pingree (1983) low involvement with the TV, due to the distraction of other children, for example, has a tendency to allow for a greater influence from TV on the child's social reality development. Filtering and evaluating tools are deactivated by the distractions.

The questions were phrased in language the girls could comprehend. Interviews were approximately ten minutes in length, due to short attention spans.

The researcher developed parental interview questions with the thesis committee to provide guidance during the telephone interview. The researcher asked about the number of children in the household to help define demographics. The parents were asked who the child watches TV with to see if there was anyone else selecting the programs the child was exposed to. The amount of time spent watching was asked to provide a comparison to the national average. And the parents were questioned if the child pretends to be anyone when playing make-believe to see if there was a particular character the child wanted to be like. Additionally, the parents were questioned if the children ever have purchase requests regarding media characters to determine if the child favored particular programs. Parents were also asked who shops and picks out the child's clothing to determine the level of independence of the child. Furthermore, the parents were asked who styles the child's hair in the morning, as this became an obvious issue during the child interviews.

Data Collection. Twelve five- and six-year-old girls were interviewed, and nine parent(s) were interviewed, based on availability. The girls were interviewed in the school office, the school library, or the nurse's office, dependant on availability of space and third party presence. In some instances, the background noise was distracting, and in a few interviews, school officials interjected during the interview process, which in some cases provided additional insight into the girls' self-perceptions.

The majority of interviews were conducted during school hours, and the girls were excused from class on a one-by-one basis, which in some cases seemed to embarrass the child with the extra attention. A few of the interviews were conducted during an after-school care program.

The names of the children have been removed, to protect the child's identity. The results will first be presented from an individual perspective, followed by presentation of the group as a whole.

In all daytime interviews, the researcher and the child each sat on child-sized chairs facing one another. The interviews for after-school care were conducted on the playground or inside the lunchroom. In both scenarios, at least twenty people were within ten feet. The researcher sat on the ground facing the subject in these interviews. At the beginning of each interview, the child was asked if it was okay to interview her and to tape the conversation using a small hand-held tape recorder.

The interviews were taped using a hand held recorder. The interviewer also paused following each interview to make note of the child's appearance, attire, and any other attributes relevant to the study. A third party then transcribed the interviews, and the interview tapes were destroyed per Institutional Review Board regulations.

The children's parents who agreed to participate in the study were contacted at home. The school administrator provided the researcher with home phone numbers. The researcher contacted the parents at home in the evening. In a few instances, the parents were unreachable after several attempts. Most of the interviews were conducted with just the mother; one interview was conducted with both the mother and the father, and one

interview was conducted with just the father. These interviews were documented by notes the researcher made and were later used as a supplement to the child's interviews.

Data Analysis. The data was analyzed using qualitative inquiry, looking to uncover specific patterns and to answer the proposed research questions. Data was categorized into the following categories: Ethnicity, self-description (hair, eyes, clothes, personality, skin color), like about self, change about self, like looks, pretend character, favorite TV show, favorite TV character. Next, individual interviews were analyzed, looking for specific comments from the child or parent to coincide with the group findings.

Chapter IV

Results/Discussion

The first research question asked was: What extent of awareness do six-year-old girls have of their body image? Results on this question tend to suggest that six-year-old girls' body image is directly related to events in their lives as six year olds, with minor exceptions. In order to examine this question closely, the researcher asked the girls to describe themselves. Eight of the twelve subjects began this description with describing their hair: color, length, or style. After interviewing parents of the children, it became apparent that the girls are at the age where they start to fix their hair themselves, with a little help from their mothers. In some cases, the girls would fix their hair to the best of their ability, and then their moms would "fix" it. At any rate, the girls were focusing on a piece of themselves they deal with on a daily basis, suggesting their daily lives influence their construction of social reality regarding their appearance. Their hair may also represent a step towards independence for girls this age, making it an important issue with their mothers as to who fixes it. Furthermore, as the girls are beginning to fix it themselves, it can be considered a sign of self-expression for the child, especially if her mother or father picks out her clothing.

The second feature mentioned was their eyes. One child said, "I have brown hair and blue eyes." Another said, "I have brown hair and bluish green eyes. And I have a useful mind. That's all."

Two of the children mentioned skin color on the first description of their appearance, one of which was an African American. She said: "I look like brown and brown eyes and I have my uniform on...." A Caucasian child commented: "Peach skin and I have a light shirt, pants, white shoes. I mean blue jeans and white socks, brown hair and I don't like the cold--I have to take a pill." The peach skin comment may be related to the Peach crayon color frequently used by children to represent Caucasian. The children seemed to be aware of the different skin colors by qualifying their own; however, this is not to suggest that they have developed a bias.

One child described herself as "pretty" and continued to use this reference to herself throughout the interview: "People say that sometimes I'm pretty and stuff and I get tied of them doing that ... keep on doing that cause I'm the beautifulist girl. That's what they think. But I think I'm the prettiest girl."

The same child was later discussing why she liked Barbie dolls, when an adult interjected that the reason this particular child liked Barbie was because she looks like a Barbie doll. Assuming the child receives frequent comments like this one, other people would account for the child's self-perception. Wason-Ellam (1997) wrote: "For young girls, Barbie, especially, appears to be a template of being an ideal girl, a standard against which to judge their own lives" (p. 435).

The girls were asked what they liked the most about themselves, again, to test their awareness of their body image. Only four mentioned anything relevant to body image: appearance, hair (2), and body size. The child who mentioned her small body size

said she liked being small, as it allowed her to be "sneaky," a thought that would seem to be appropriate for a six-year-old child.

The girls then had an opportunity to change anything about themselves, again, the researcher trying a different angle to search for body image awareness. Five said they would not change anything. Four mentioned changing their hair, again, relevant to activities in their daily lives; one child said she would like a suntan, and one child said she would change her "looks." One child responded with the following hair-related comment: "Make my hair a little browner, just like it is." Another said, "I would change my hair . . . brown."

When asked if they liked their looks, nine participants said "Yes" and one said "Kind of," perhaps because she was not as confident. Two girls were not asked this question due to the researcher's oversight.

The extent of body image awareness of six-year-old girls was less than what the researcher had thought it to be. In fact, the children only seemed to be aware of parts of their body that required attention, such as their hair. The hairstyles of the children may be important, as they are a form of self-expression. One mother mentioned that she did have to "fix" her daughter's hair after she tried herself, implying the child is striving for independence or self-expression.

It can be suggested that perhaps six-year-old girls have a very low awareness of their body image as their body; other than hairstyles and basic features such as eyes or skin color, parts of their bodies did not receive a great deal of attention.

Research question two asked: What popular media characters, if any are influencing young girls' body images? In order to gain insight for this question, the researcher suggested that the child pretend to be anyone she would like. The girls chose to be people they actually knew, such as friends or family members, and many attributed this decision to personality traits, such as "she's funny." One child did want to be Princess Diana and actually had a hairstyle similar to the late Princess's. She commented, "I'd want to be Princess Diana … because she was really good, and she's a princess."

Only one child chose to be a television character. Results regarding this question may have been affected by how the researcher posed the question. Wason-Ellam, in a 1997 study regarding gender typing, suggested that the child subjects imagined that the storybook characters being considered were real. Perhaps suggesting that the subjects consider television characters to be real may have provided more insight for this question. One child this may have helped commented, "A doctor … cause I want to help people."

Feilitzen and Linn (1975) suggested that up until age eight, children have a tendency to identify with children their own age, which may also explain why the girls did not show influence according to the social construction of reality, as perhaps they are not cognitively able to yet. One child's response supports this: "My friend Claire … because she's nice." Another said, "Sarah, my friend … she plays nice." Yet another commented, "Emma … because she's funny and cause I want to be funny like her."

The children were also asked who their favorite television stars were, and if the response was not female, they were led to a female response. Many of the girls mentioned teen star Brittany Spears, and one mother said her daughter liked Brittany

Spears because of Brittany's hairstyle. Many of the girls also liked the Power Puff Girls and mentioned their hairstyles, including color and pigtails.

One child commented, "A princess ... I don't know her name. But I like her. She has brown hair and she's beautiful." Another said, "Brittany Spears . . . cause I have of some of her."

Results to research question two suggest Power Puff Girls and Brittany Spears are influencing girls' body images, although to a moderately-low extent, and seem to be in agreement with girls' body image awareness focusing on hairstyles.

Feilitzen and Linn (1975) suggested that children will tend to identify with their parents more than with the television characters, provided there is a positive parental relationship. Children with poor parental and peer relationships will turn to the mass media to find their role models. As the parents of the children in this study seem to be active decision makers and express concern for their children, perhaps this sample is comprised of positive parental-child relationships and may not be representative of all girls this age. It is possible the child who focused on her own attractiveness in her self-description may have low self-esteem and is turning to television for confirmation. It is also possible she may have a poor parental relationship and uses the Barbie comments as affirmation of her acceptance.

Research question three asked: Does the media construct a positive social reality of body image for five- and six-year-olds? Research question three would have been better phrased to ask, "Does television construct a positive social reality of body image

for five- and six-year-old girls" as the term "media" encompasses many more forms than those being considered for this study.

Unfortunately, the data collected in this study does not shed light on this question. A content analysis of female characters' body types in top-ranked children's programming should be considered to provide insight into this question.

Research question four asked: How do six-year-old girls define attractiveness? To provide insight, the girls were asked who the prettiest person they know was. A couple of the girls mentioned the researcher, due to the proximity of the researcher and possibly due to the researcher's lipstick or nailpolish, which the children were not allowed to wear at school. Many of the girls mentioned their mothers as the prettiest persons they knew. Quite possibly, the children's positive feelings towards their mothers qualified them as the prettiest person they knew. A few other family members were mentioned, sometimes followed by justification with personality traits, such a "funny." In this limited study, attractiveness for six-year-old girls seems to be defined by personality traits or their feelings toward other people whom they like.

Research question five asked: Is there a correlation between young girls' body images and the mass media? Research question five may have been better phrased, "Is there a connection between young girls' body images and the bodies of characters on television?"

As question one found six-year-old girls to have a relatively low body image awareness, it is difficult to suggest that television truly affects girls of this age's body image. Perhaps hairstyle, considered part of body image, is influenced by the styles the

girls' favorite media characters are wearing, as some of the girls interviewed did mention their favorite characters' hairstyles when asked to describe the characters.

The children interviewed reported their favorite television programs to be: *Scooby Doo, Powder Puff Girls, Arthur, Bugs Bunny, Rug Rats* and *Sesame Street*. Many of the children were unable to identify a favorite or a favorite female television character. Those who did reported they liked Shaggy, Blossom, Princess Diana, Brittany Spears, and Tommy on the *Rug Rats*.

Parents reported different amounts of television viewing, from two hours a week to only watching television on the weekend to one mother commenting her daughter's father likes to use the television as a babysitter. One mother said she screens the television programs for content. It is important to consider that the parents answering these questions do not want to be judged as "poor parents" and may have not been completely accurate in their reporting.

Chapter V

Conclusion

The intent of this pilot study was to determine the extent to which television influences five- and six-year-old girls' body images, based on the social construction of reality. It was expected that the girls would be exposed to attractive girls on television, who would receive positive affirmation based on their appearance. In turn, the girls exposed to television would want to be like the girls on television. This study does not support this idea, however, does suggest perhaps girls of this age are not as influenced by the media as proposed.

This study was comprised of twelve five- and six-year-old girls and their parents. The girls attend a private, Catholic school in a mid-sized Midwestern city. By attending a private school, it can be suggested that the parents' play an active role in their children's lives, because they made the conscious decision regarding their child's education. These parents may be more in touch with their children than the average parent. The socio-economical background on these families was not available. The school principal suggested that most of the families are middle class and live in the surrounding community.

It is important to note that the study participants were self-selected, as the parents needed to agree to participate in the study, and in turn so did the child. It can be suggested that parents who are confident with their relationship with their child would be

more likely to respond to such a study. This self-selected sample is not representative of the general population. This study should be considered as a pilot study only.

Twelve girls participated in the study. Eleven were Caucasian, and one was African American. Race only seemed to be an issue of identity for the one African American child, who described her skin color as "gray." Her mother explained that her daughter's father is African American, and she is Caucasian. Her daughter often describes herself as gray, as it is how she understands herself. Additionally, this child prefers dolls with dark complexions, as opposed to blonde Barbie dolls, probably because she can identify with the dolls with dark complexions.

This sample is not representative of the average child, due first to the level of involvement of the parent; second to the demographic; and third, to the race. In a truly representative study, there would be a variety of ethnic backgrounds represented. Additionally, the girls attended a religious-based school, which may influence how they are taught to view themselves.

According to Berger and Luckmann (1967), society creates reality and what is real for one person may not be real for another; reality is based upon life experiences and will be ingrained into a person so deeply that it will be taken for granted. It would be impossible to argue the children involved in this study do not have a socially constructed reality. It is difficult, based on this study alone, to prove five- and six-year-old girls' reality is influenced by television.

This study did suggest that five- and six-year-old girls are most influenced by their daily life experiences, such as their hair and the personalities of the people who surround the girls. These personality traits are used by the children to define attractiveness.

The children's mothers also seemed to influence the children, as many girls viewed their mothers as "pretty." The children's positive feelings toward their mother s seemed to be the basis for attraction. This is in agreement with psychoanalytic theory, which suggests children learn gender identification by identifying with the same-sex gender (Berk, 1999).

Cognitive development theory suggests children develop an internal framework of gender that helps them organize their experiences (Yoder, 1999). In this case, it may be that children use their mother's and friend's of the same gender personality traits to provide a base for what is attractive. One child in particular appeared to wear trendy jewelry that most twelve-year-olds, not six-year-olds, would wear. In speaking with the child's mother, she has older sisters, who the six-year-old looks up to. This child tends to wear the same style of clothing as does her older sisters, indicating she her sisters provide her definition of the female gender.

The child who made repeated references to her own attractiveness may possibly be a child with low self-esteem, as according to Baran (1974) children with low self-esteem will use television as an escape and want to model the social behavior they are exposed to, such as attractiveness.

There are a number of possibilities why the children interviewed did not seem to be as influenced by television as the researcher proposed. Perhaps the media indeed

socially constructs five- and six-year-old girls' body image, and the methodology employed here was unable to detect it. Or perhaps five- and six-year-old girls are only influenced by social interaction at this point of their cognitive development.

It could also be argued that the children are in fact being influenced by the images the television offers; however, possibly a layering of negative images over time creates negative body images. Perhaps the repeated exposure to attractive images builds a negative image for girls, and over the course of time, they develop negative self-images. There is also the possibility that some of the girls who participated in the study currently have a negative body image, however, are not able to articulate it yet.

Media have a number of different affects on individuals. According to McQuail (1997), the media have the ability to "cause intended change, cause unintended change, cause minor change (form or intensity), facilitate change (intended or not), reinforce what exists (no change), or prevent change" (1994, p. 334). Perhaps in this study, the media, television in particular, are reinforcing positive body images or preventing a changed body image if the images projected to children this age are positive.

Additionally, Pingree (1983) suggested that a child's level of involvement determines the degree to which the television will be able to influence the child: the lower the amount of involvement, the greater the tendency for influence on the child's social reality development, due to deactivated filtering and evaluating tools. Future research should consider the child's level of involvement when exposed to television.

Salen and Dupagne (1999), explain the Media Third-Person theory suggests that individuals will believe that the media has a greater effect on other people than it does on

themselves. Perhaps the researcher in this study is subject to third-person effect, as the subjects were not as influenced by the media as initially thought.

While this study was unable to provide proof of a direct influence of television on five- and six-year-old girls, it is to be suggested that this may be an important finding, based on this limited pilot study, as perhaps children of this age are not negatively influenced by the media.

It is essential to consider that television is only one form of media, and media is only one part of the society that constructs social realities. Adoni and Mane suggested the social construction of reality is composed of interactions among individuals, society, and culture (1984). Future research should consider avenues to differentiate the affects of society from the affects of individuals (such as parents and friends) from the affects of culture. This study was unable to provide such insight.

Other forms of media, such as the Internet, home video rentals, books, the radio and recorded CD's are forms of media which have the potential to influence children this age--positively or negatively. Future research should consider how to separate the effects of each media, in order to better analyze the effects of television.

Children's purchase requests, such as particular toys and games, could be further explored in future research. This may provide more insight into what extents of awareness that girls of this age have of television characters, as well as the level of affinity they have towards the characters.

Future research should include the teachers as much as possible because the students already have a comfort level with the teachers. Additionally, the teachers are

able to observe the children on a daily basis and know the children's parents and the parental-child relationship. And, future research might include a larger sample, including children from different ethnicity's, schools, and varying levels of parental involvement.

Donohue (1975) suggested children's learning during the first five to six years of will establish behavior and learning patterns for the rest of their lives. Future research might include conducting a similar study with these children at yearly intervals, to determine if Donohue's theory holds true and these girls are able to maintain positive body images.

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Appendix A
Child Interview Questions

Researcher introduces self to child, asks her age and birth date, then proceeds with the following.

Pretend we're on the telephone talking, and I can't see you. Tell me what you look like.

Now can you tell me what you like most about yourself?

Pretend you could change one thing about yourself. What would that be?

What do you like most about the way you look?

Can you tell me if you like the way you look? Why/Why not?

Pretend you could be anyone you wanted to be. Who would you pretend to be? Why?

What do you like about him/her?

Can you tell me what he or she looks like?

What do you like to watch on TV?

Who's your favorite TV character? (If answer is not female, then "Who is your favorite girl on TV?")

Why do you like her?

Can you tell me what she looks like?

Can you tell me who you think is the prettiest person you know?

Can you tell me what she looks like?

Why do you think she is pretty?

Can you tell me what your favorite toy is?

Can you tell me what you think of American Girl dolls? Why?

Can you tell me what you think of Barbie? Why?

Can you tell me who you live with?

Can you tell me who you watch TV with?

What do your friends watch?

Appendix B
Parental Interview Questions

How many children are in the household?

Who does your daughter watch TV with?

What does she watch?

How much time does she spend watching?

When she plays make-believe, does she pretend to be anyone?

Has she ever asked you to buy any toys or characters from TV or the movies?

Who picks out her clothes when shopping?

Does she pick out her own outfits?

Does she do her own hair?

Appendix C
Children's Television Ratings

At the time this study was conducted, *Electronic Media* (March 6, 2000) ranked

children's programming as follows:

Top Broadcast Shows, Weekdays (Kids 2-11)	Rating/Share
1. Pokemon 2 (WB)	4.5/23
2. Pokemon 330 (WB)	4.4/24
3. Pokemon 3 (WB)	3.6/17
t. Pokemon 1 (WB)	3.6/29
4. Digimon (Fox)	2.6/12
5. Batman Beyond/MIB (WB)	2.5/12
6. Woody Woodpecker (FOX)	2.2/10
7. Batman/Superman2 (WB)	2.2/10
t. Power Rangers/Lost Galaxy (FOX)	2.0/11
8. Magic School Bus 7:30 a.m. (Fox)	2.0/16

Top Broadcast Shows, Weekdays, (Kids 6-11)	Ratings/Share
1. Pokemon 2 (WB)	5.3/28
2. Pokemon 330 (WB)	5.3/30
3. Pokemon 1 (WB)	4.8/38
4. Pokemon 3 (WB)	4.4/21
5. Digimon (Fox)	3.0/14
6. Batman Beyond/MIB (Fox)	2.7/13
7. Batman/Superman 2 (WB)	2.3/11
8. Woody Woodpecker (Fox)	2.2/11
9. Batman/Superman 1 (WB)	2.1/12
10. Power Rangers Lost Galaxy (Fox)	2.0/12

Top Broadcast Shows, Saturday a.m. (Kids 2-11)	Ratings/Share
1. Pokemon 2 (WB)	7.0/25
t. Pokemon 1 (WB)	5.0/24
2. Pokemon 11 a.m. (WB)	4.9/20
3. Disney's One Saturday Morning 3 (ABC)	4.3/16
4. Men in Black (WB)	4.2/16
5. Batman Beyond (WB)	4.0/16
6. NASCAR Racers (Fox)	4.0/14
t. Digimon (Fox)	4.0/15
7. Disney's One Saturday Morning 2 (ABC)	3.9/16
t. Digimon, Saturday (Fox)	3.9/15

Top Broadcast Shows, Saturday a.m. (Kids 6-11)	Ratings/Share
1. Pokemon 2 (WB)	8.6/31
2. Pokemon 1 (WB)	6.4/29
3. Pokemon 11 a.m. (WB)	5.6/23
4. Men in Black (WB)	5.0/19
5. NASCAR Racers (Fox)	4.9/18
6. Batman Beyond (WB)	4.7/18
7. Disney's One Saturday Morning 3 (ABC)	4.5/17
t. Digimon, Saturday (Fox)	4.5/18
t. Digimon (Fox)	4.5/17
10.Disney's One Saturday Morning 3 (ABC)	4.1/17

Top Ten Broadcast, Cable Shows, Saturday a.m. (Kids 2-11)	Ratings/Share
1. Pokemon, 10 a.m. (WB)	7.0/25
2. Rugrats (Nick)	5.1/19
3. Pokemon, 8:30 a.m. (WB)	5.0/24
4. Pokemon 11 a.m. (WB)	4.9/20
5. SpongeBob SquarePants (Nick)	4.7/18
6. Disney's One Saturday Morning 3 (ABC)	4.3/16
7. Men in Black (WB)	4.2/16
8. Hey Arnold (Nick)	4.1/16
9. Batman Beyond (WB)	4.0/16
t. Digimon (Fox)	4.0/15
t. NASCAR Racers (Fox)	4.0/15

Top Ten Broadcast, Cable Shows, Saturday a.m. (Kids 6-11)	Ratings/Share
1. Pokemon, 10 a.m. (WB)	8.6/31
2. Pokemon, 8:30 a.m. (WB)	6.4/29
3. Pokemon, 11 a.m. (WB)	5.6/23
4. Rugrats (Nick)	5.2/20
5. Men in Black (WB)	5.0/19
6. Batman Beyond (WB)	4.7/18
t. SpongeBog SquarePants (Nick)	4.5/17
t. Disney's One Saturday Morning 3 (ABC)	4.5/17
t. Digimon (Fox)	4.5/17
7. NASCAR Racers (Fox)	4.5/17

Top Broadcast Prime-Time Shows (Kids 2-11)	Ratings/Share
1. Wonderful World of Disney (ABC)	8.3/26
2. Who Wants to be a Millionaire? Sunday (ABC)	6.7/26
3. Malcolm in the Middle (Fox)	6.5/19
4. Sabrina, the Teenage Witch (ABC)	6.4/23
5. Who Wants to be a Millionaire? Tuesday (ABC)	6.1/20
6. The Simpsons (Fox)	5.3/16
7. Odd Man Out (ABC)	4.9/17
8. The Hughleys (ABC)	4.7/18
9. Boy Meets World (ABC)	4.4/15
10. Who Wants to be a Millionaire? Thursday (ABC)	4.3/17
t. Futurama (Fox)	4.3/13
11. WWF Smackdown! (UPN)	3.8/14
12. Friends (NBC)	3.4/12
13. Drew Carey Show (ABC)	3.1/14
t. King of the Hill (Fox)	3.1/10

Top Kids Networks, Saturday Mornings (Kids 2-11)	Ratings/Share
1. Kids' WB	4.0/18
2. Nickelodeon	3.8/17
3. ABC	2.8/13
t. Fox Kids	2.8/12
4. UPN	1.8/9
5. Cartoon Network	1.6/7
6. Disney Channel	1.6/7
t. NBC	0.8/3
7. CBS	0.7/4

Top Kids Networks, Weekdays (Kids 2-11)	Ratings/Share
1. Kids' WB	2.4/15
2. Nickelodeon	2.3/16
3. Fox Kids	1.9/11
4. UPN	1.2/9
5. Cartoon Network	1.0/7
6. Disney Channel	0.7/5

Top Kids Networks, Saturday a.m. (Kids 6-11)	Ratings/Share
1. Kids' WB	4.7/21
2. Nickelodeon	3.9/17
3. Fox Kids	3.1/14
4. ABC	2.9/13
5. UPN	1.9/10
6. Cartoon Network	1.4/6
7. Disney Channel	1.0/4
8. NBC	0.8/3
9. CBS	0.6/3

Top Kids, Teen Shows on Basic Cable (Kids 2-11)	Ratings
1. Rugrats, M-F 7:30 p.m. (Nick)	8.1
2. Rugrats, Sat. 9:30 a.m. (Nick)	7.6
3. Rugrats, Marathon (Nick)	7.1
4. Rugrats, Sun. 9:30 a.m. (Nick)	7.0
5. Wild Thornberrys, M, Th 8 p.m. (Nick)	6.8
6. Rugrats You Pick (Nick)	6.7
7. Rugrats, Sat. 7:30 p.m. (Nick)	6.7
8. SpongeBob, Sun 10 a.m. (Nick)	6.5
9. Hey Arnold, M-F 7 p.m. (Nick)	6.5
10. Rugrats, Sun. 9 a.m. (Nick)	6.4
11. Rocket Power You Pick (Nick)	6.3
12. SpongeBob, Sun. 10 a.m. (Nick)	6.2
13. Rugrats, Sat. 9 a.m. (Nick)	6.0
14. Rocket Power, Weds. 8:30 p.m. (Nick)	5.9
15. Rocket Power, Mon. 8:30 p.m. (Nick)	5.9

(2000, March 6). Kids and teens TV ratings. Electronic Media: Special Report, p.36.

Appendix D
IRB Approval Letter

**University
of Nebraska**

Institutional Review Board (IRB)
Office of Regulatory Affairs (ORA)
University of Nebraska Medical Center
Eppley Science Hall 3018
986810 Nebraska Medical Center
Omaha, NE 68198-6810
(402) 559-6463
Fax: (402) 559-7845
E-mail: irbora@unmc.edu
http://www.unmc.edu/irb

February 9, 2000

Kristine Gruidl
7523 Howard #208
Omaha, NE 68114
UNO -

IRB # __456-99-FB__

TITLE OF PROPOSAL: __The Effects of Television on the Social Construction of Body Images by Five
and Six-Year-Old Girls__

DATE OF FULL BOARD REVIEW   __12-16-99__   **DATE OF EXPEDITED REVIEW** _____

DATE OF FINAL APPROVAL   __02-09-00__   **VALID UNTIL** __12-16-00__

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the Protection of Human Subjects has completed its review of the
above-titled protocol and informed consent document(s), including any revised material submitted in response
to the IRB's review. The Board has expressed it as their opinion that you are in compliance with HHS
Regulations (45 CFR 46) and applicable FDA regulations (21 CFR 50.56) and you have provided adequate
safeguards for protecting the rights and welfare of the subjects to be involved in this study. The IRB has,
therefore, granted unconditional approval of your research project. This letter constitutes official notification
of the final approval and release of your project by the IRB, and you are authorized to implement this study as
of the above date of final approval.

We wish to remind you that, under the provisions of this institution's Multiple Project Assurance for compliance
with DHHS Regulations for the Protection of Human Subjects (MPA #1509), the principal investigator is directly
responsible for submitting to the IRB any proposed change in the research or the consent document(s). In
addition, any unanticipated adverse events involving risk to the subject or others must be reported to the IRB.
This project is subject to periodic review and surveillance by the IRB and, as part of their surveillance, the IRB
may request periodic reports of progress and results. For projects which continue beyond one year from the
starting date, it is the responsibility of the principal investigator to initiate a request to the IRB for continuing
review and update of the research project.

Sincerely,

Ernest D. Prentice, Ph.D.
Co-Chair, IRB

EDP