

TV NEWS INDUCED FEARS OF CHILDREN BASED ON THE REPORTS OF
CHILDREN AND THEIR MOTHERS

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ABSTRACT

TV NEWS INDUCED FEARS OF CHILDREN BASED ON THE REPORTS OF CHILDREN AND THEIR MOTHERS

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The thesis aims to examine the fear responses of 8 to 13 years old children to content of TV-news. To reach this aim, study investigated; a) relationship between mothers' and children's responses about children's TV-news induced fears, b) nature of TV-news induced fears among 8-13 years old girls and boys, c) most common fearful coverages of TV-news, d) threatful parts of TV-news, and e) behaviors of children shown as reactions to TV-news.

To examine the nature and severity of TV-news induced fears of children, Television Induced Fright Scale (TIFS-Valkenburg, Cantor & Peeters, 2000) was adapted into Turkish. TIFS was administered to 186 (95-girls, 91-boys), 8 to 13 year olds and their mothers. In addition, "mother survey" examined the threatful parts of TV-news,

and behavioral manifestations of children, and a demographic information form were administered to mothers.

According to findings, differences were found between children's responses and mothers' opinions. TV-news coverages about "children who get hurt", "children who are kidnapped", "starving children in poor countries", and "animals who get hurt" were found as the most fearful for children. In all coverages of TV-news, girls got higher fear scores than boys.

According to results, the images, and sounds of human beings and animals were the most threatful parts of TV-news for children. As reaction to fearful TV-news, girls mostly experienced difficulty sleeping, whereas boys behaved irritably. Both girls and boys also experienced obsessive thoughts about events in TV-news. The results of the present theses are expected to shed light on understanding the relationship between fears of children and TV-news.

Keywords: Children, fears, TV induced fears, media and children, news and children

ÖZ

ÇOCUKLARIN VE ANNELERİNİN İFADELERİNE GÖRE ÇOCUKLARIN TV HABERLERİ KAYNAKLI KORKULARI

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Bu çalışmada, 8-13 yaş çocuklarının TV haber içerikleri karşısında duydukları korkuların incelenmesi amaçlanmaktadır. Amaca ulaşmak için; a) çocukların ve annelerinin, çocukların TV haberlerinden kaynaklı korkuları hakkında verdikleri cevaplar arasındaki ilişki, b) 8-13 yaşlarındaki kız ve erkek çocukların TV haberlerinden kaynaklı korkularının doğası, c) çocukları en çok korkutan haber içerikleri, d) haberlerin çocukları en çok korkutan unsurları ve e) izledikleri haberler karşısında çocukların gösterdikleri tepkiler incelenmiştir.

Çocukların TV haberlerinden kaynaklı korkularının doğasını ve önemini incelemek için Televizyon Kaynaklı Korku Ölçeği (TKKÖ-Valkenburg, Cantor, & Peeters, 2000) Türkçe'ye çevrilmiştir. TKKÖ, 8-13 yaşlarındaki toplam 186 çocuğa (95 kız,

91 erkek) ve annelerine uygulanmıştır. Ayrıca, TV haberlerinin çocuklar için tehdit edici unsurlarını ve çocukların gösterdikleri tepkilerini sorgulayan “anne anketi” ve demografik bilgileri sorgulayan demografik bilgiler formu da annelere uygulanmıştır.

Çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre çocuklar ve annelerinin, çocukların TV haberlerinden kaynaklı korkularıyla ilgili verdikleri cevaplar arasında farklar bulunmuştur.

Çocuklar için en korkutucu haber içerikleri; “acı çeken çocuklar”, “kaçırılan çocuklar”, “fakir ülkelerde açlık çeken çocuklar”, ve “acı çeken hayvanlar” olarak sıralanmıştır. Tüm haber içerikleriyle ilgili kız çocukların korku düzeyleri erkek çocukların korku düzeylerinden daha yüksektir.

Bu çalışmanın bulgularına göre, TV haberlerinde yayınlanan, insanlara ve hayvanlara ait olan görüntü ve sesler çocuklar için en tehdit edici unsurlardır. İzledikleri TV haberleri sonrasında kız çocuklar çoğunlukla uyku problemi yaşarken; erkek çocuklar çoğunlukla kolayca sinirlenme davranışı göstermektedirler. Hem kız hem de erkek çocuklar, TV haberlerindeki olaylarla ilgili takıntılı düşünceler geliştirebilmektedirler. Bu çalışmanın, çocukların korkuları ve televizyon haberleri arasındaki ilişkiye ışık tutması beklenmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Çocuklar, korkular, TV kaynaklı korkular, medya ve çocuklar, haberler ve çocuklar

To my sisters, Nurşen Nokta

and

Nurşadan Gergerliođlu

&

To my parents, Yaşar Kandemir

and

Durmuşe Kandemir

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

This study aims to understand the fear responses of the children to the TV news. Based on the related literature, this study examined; a) whether there is an agreement between mother's and their children's reports about the TV news induced fear reactions of children, b) what are the most common fearful coverages of TV news, c) whether there is relationships between fears of children and television news with regard to their age and gender. In addition, threatful parts of television news for children, and behavioral reactions of children to TV news were also investigated in the present study.

The motivation of the study comes from the fact that negative information transmission was one of the main sources for children to develop and maintain fears. Although some researchers suggested fears are innate and survival (Ledoux, 1996), others agree that fears may be developed through learning (Field, Angyrus, & Knowles, 2001). Many researchers regarded origins of fears in their studies and they focused on learning experiences of fears (Merckelbach & Collaris, 1997; Ollendick

& King, 1991). Rachman's three-pathway theory explains the fear acquisition clearly. According to Rachman's three-pathways, children acquire fears in three ways; conditioning (direct experiences with fearful thing/event), modeling (vicarious learning), and negative information (exposure to negative information about fearful thing/event) (Rachman, 1977). In their study, Ollendick and King (1991) examined Rachman's three-pathway-theory and study results showed that the most common way of fear acquisition is negative information transmission (89%), then modeling (56%), and conditioning (36%). Different than Ollendick and King (1991), Muris, Merckelbach, and Collaris (1997) indicated that conditioning (45.8%) pathway is the most noticeable pathway than negative information (35.1%) and modeling (3.8%).

The three pathways of development of fears are not only useful for understanding general childhood fears, but also they are helpful to understand fear responses to media content. Media-induced fears can also occur (1) via a direct experience with a mediated danger, (2) via observational learning of fears from media characters, and (3) through negative information transfer via media characters (Valkenburg & Buijzen, 2008). Muris, Merckelbach, Ollendick, King, and Bogie (2001) also mentioned that children learn what to fear in the primary source; mass media, especially through the negative information. In television news, verbal information of the newsreader or the reports and eyewitness accounts qualify as mediated negative information transfer (Calvert & Wilson, 2008). These negative information about situations and stimuli may pose children have fears because of increasing awareness about those dangerous situations or stimuli such as new diseases (e.g.

AIDS), disasters (e.g. earthquake) and other threatening events (e.g. drugs) (Muris et al., 2003).

Most of the TV news programs are not suitable for children to watch (Walma van der Molen, 2004). Even though children do not choose to watch TV news consciously, they are confronted with TV news while searching for other programs or when their parents watching (Cantor & Nathanson, 1996). Therefore, parents and caregivers think children do not watch news much; however, children watch TV news more than parents and caregivers think (Walma van der Molen, 2004). In eighties, Cantor and Reilly (1982) and Jones (1988) suggested that parents have a tendency to underestimate their children's fear responses to the mass media. As in eighties, parents have a tendency to underestimate their children's fears in general (Muris et al., 2001).

While media and especially TV news are so important for children's fear acquisition, researchers generally inclined to examine content, intensity, frequency of children's fears and relation between fears and demographic variables (Gullone, 2000; Erol & Sahin, 1995; Burnham, 1995). Some of the common demographic variables regarded in the research of children's fears are age (Gullone & King, 1992; 1993; Muris, 2007), gender (Gullone 2000; Gullone & King, 1993), and socioeconomic status (SES) (Erol & Şahin, 1995; Gullone, 2000). In addition, the effects of culture, negative life experiences (e.g. terrorist attacks, earthquakes) and television-media on fear of children were examined (Burnham & Giesen, 2005; Muris et al., 2003). As

developmental fears, TV news induced fears of children also differ according to their age, gender, and reality perception (Cantor, 1996; Cantor & Sparks, 1984; Smith & Moyer-Guse, 2006; Wright, Huston, Reitz, & Piemyat, 1994). In addition, duration of exposure to TV news is effective on TV induced fright levels of children (Smith & Moyer-Guse, 2006).

According to the results of studies, the level and number of fears tends to decrease with age. However, the content of children's fears change with increasing age (King & Ollendick, 1989; Svensson & Öst, 1999). While infants and young children fear from circumstances occur in their immediate environment (e.g. loud noise, strangers), older children exhibit specific and much older ones show realistic fears (e.g. physical injury, school achievement) (King, Ollendick & Tonge, 1997). About the TV news related fears, younger children fear more than older children do from news stories representing concrete graphic visuals of war such as weapons, explosions, and physical harm (Cantor, Mares, & Oliver, 1993). In contrast, Smith and Wilson (2000; 2002) suggested that older children show more fear in the face of danger and threats on the news than their younger counterparts, because older children can comprehend the content of the news better than younger children.

The level and number of fears not only differs according to age, but also differs according to gender. Most of the researchers indicated that girls are more fearful than boys in overall fear scores or in intensity of different fear types with the same age; and they report more number of fears than boys (Burnham, 2005; Gullone & King,

1993; Ollendick, King & Finary, 1989; Morris & Kratochwill, 1998). As fears in general, girls reported more fear reactions to violent content of news (Cantor & Nathanson, 1996; Gunter & McAleer, 1997; Smith & Wilson, 2002).

Last year, in Turkey, Serim (2010) investigated the origins of children's and adolescents' fears according to Rachman's three pathway theory. It is important for present study that Serim (2010)'s study shed light on the fear acquisition pathways of Turkish children and adolescents (8-18 ages). Findings of the study showed that 64.8% of all children learnt fear by modeling, 51.8% of them acquired fear by negative information transmission and 35.8% of them learnt fear by experiences (conditioning). These results indicated that as a strong instrument of negative information transmission, television/news may importantly relate with fears of children.

Furthermore, in Turkey, television programs or news about negative effects of television are broadcasted; however, there are little if any studies on the relationship between TV/TV news and fears of children. Radyo Televizyon Üst Kurulu made some studies. People mostly choose to watch news (93.7%) on television rather than series, show programs, etc. (RTÜK, 2009). According to results of the study (RTÜK, 2007), 68.7% people reported they watch TV news regularly everyday and the TV news watching time was evenings with the percentage of 78.6%. Additionally, the most reported time was 'between 1-2 hours' about the duration of exposure to TV news daily at weekdays. Furthermore, participants were asked "Have you observed

your child is affected negatively because of the image presented in the TV news?'. The percentage of answers 'yes' were 21.2% and 'from time to time' were 34%. All these results showed that in Turkey, children expose to TV news very much. Because evening hours is the only time that members of the families become together, and again according to results of another study of RTÜK (2006), most of the children watch television between the hours of 17.00-22.00, the results of RTÜK's studies are important for current study.

Therefore, the relationship between children's fears and TV news should have been analyzed in detail. The important ways causing fear learning are negative information transmission, modeling and conditioning (Rachman, 1977). TV news is one of the important instrument causes children acquiring some fears and it has full of violence, bad, fearful content (Walma van der Molen & Bushman, 2008; Wilson, 2008). Psychological counselors and educators should be aware of important relation between the fears of children and TV news. This will help them to take children's fears under control by informing children about TV news and fear relation. Additionally, mothers' awareness of their children's fears and TV news relation should be taken into consideration.

The major purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship between children's fear responses and TV news. Thus, this study investigated relationship between the responses of mothers and children about children's TV news induced fears. Additionally, most common fearful coverages of TV news and nature of

children's TV news related fears with respect to age and gender were also examined in the study. In the study, threatful parts and behavior manifestations of children were also explored.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The major goal of the study was to understand children's fear responses to the TV news. In order to reach the goal, this study investigated whether mothers' responses about TV news induced fears of their children are consistent with their children's responses. In addition, this study examined the nature and severity of the TV news induced fears of children with regard to age and gender of children. Threatful parts and behavior manifestations of children as reactions to TV news were also investigated to reach the goal.

1.3. Research Questions

In order to achieve the aim of the research, the answers for the questions stated below were sought:

1. Are mothers' perceptions and children's reports on the level of TV induced fright of children consistent?
2. What are the most common fearful coverages of TV news for children?

3. What is the nature of children's TV induced fears with respect to age and gender?
4. According to mothers what are the threatful parts of news for children?
5. Related to the level of children's TV induced fears, what are the behavior manifestations of children as a reaction to TV news?

1.4. Significance of the Study

The study examined relationship of children's fears with television news. Fear is normal maturation process and necessary for healthy emotional and cognitive development (Meltzer, Vostanis, Dogra, Doos, Ford, & Goodman, 2008); however, there is high relationship between fear and anxiety (Ollendick, Yule, & Ollier, 1991) and the base of adult anxiety problems may be in childhood years (Ollendick & King, 1994). Therefore, having knowledge about children's fears-for example about what fears are normal in what situations, how the fear effects life of the child- is important to distinguish children's normal and abnormal fears. According to three pathway theory of Rachman (1977) fear acquisition occurs by three ways; conditioning, modeling, and negative information transmission and television news programs are full of negative information. Children are exposed to television news more than adults assumed (Walma van der Molen, 2004). In Turkey, RTÜK made some surveys and survey results showed that percentage of watching TV news is 93.7%.

Thereby, examining the relationship between the television news and fears of children is crucial that the results can be helpful in educational and research area. For diverse groups, intensity and frequency of children's TV news induced fears can be screened and assessed and the results can be shared with parents and children. Children can be educated to control their TV news induced fears to prevent fears to turn into anxiety. Mothers also can be educated to prevent their children from negative consequences of TV news. Moreover, TV news program professionals can develop children specific news programs on TV. In addition, this study is significant for Turkey that most common fearful TV news coverages and threatful parts of TV news for children were investigated. By use of TV Induced Fright Scale (TIFS) in this study, the translation of TIFS and examination of its psychometrics, a new instrument was introduced to the Turkish literature.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This study examines whether TV news with their content are related to the development of fear acquisition of children. The study relies on Rachman's Three-Pathway Theory. As explained below in details, this theory states that negative information transmission is one of the three ways that fears are developed by children. In order to provide background information for the study, this chapter summarizes the existing literature the nature and developmental characteristics of fears as well as the impact of media/television on children in two sections. Each section appears to be distinctive but complementary in nature. The first section introduces (a) the definition and the nature of fear, (a/1) relationship of fear to anxiety, phobia, worry and depression, (a/2) developmental characteristics of fear in relation to various variables, and (b) origins of fear. The second section presents; a) children's usage of media and television, b) the negative effects of television on children, and c) the relationship between the fear of children and media and television news.

2.1. Fear and Children

In this part, nature of fear; relationship among fear and other emotions (anxiety, worry, phobia, and depression) and developmental characteristics of fear with regard to various variables (genetic factors, age, gender, and SES) and origins of fear will be explained.

2.1.1. Definition and the Nature of Fear

Among theorists study on emotions, there is no consensus observed whether fear is one of the basic emotions or not. While, Weiner and Graham (1984) did not include fear in basic emotions such as happiness and sadness, according to Ekman (1972) fear is one of the basic emotions as anger, disgust, happiness, sadness, and surprise. Similarly, Ortony and Turner (1990) ranked the fear as a basic emotion among anger, happiness, and sadness. Gullone and King (1993) defined fear as “A normal reaction to a real or imagined threat is seen as integral part of development” (p.137) as some other researchers (e.g. King, Hamilton, & Ollendick, 1988).

Fear is a reaction to perceived threatening stimulus and is revealed in physiological (e.g. sweating), cognitive-affective (e.g. afraid), and behavioral (e.g. avoiding) responses (McCathie & Spence, 1991). Because fear has a survival value and naturally exists, it is related with other emotions (Izard, 1991). These characteristics make fear the most extensively researched emotion among all other emotions

(Gullone, 1996). Fear helps protecting self from dangers and motivates learning. Thus, it is necessary for healthy emotional and cognitive development (Gullone, 2000). Every individual has developmental fears (e.g. loud noise in first months, school-related fears at the beginning of the school ages, etc.) (Gullone, King, & Ollendick, 2000); however, most of these fears are not long-lived and disappear through months (Gullone, 2000). In addition to its basic and necessary aspects, fear may cause brain to reduce capacity to process and store information (Hamilton & Mackie, 1993), and may limit the ability of problem solving abilities and learning (Bodenhasen, 1993; Lazarous, 1991). Therefore, there are some criteria differentiate normal and adaptive fears from clinical fears or phobias. These criteria are; whether expressed fear is age or cognitive stage specific or not, whether expressed fear persists over an extended period of time, and whether expressed fear significantly interferes with child's development or education and destroys family harmony (Bernstein & Borchardt, 1991; Gullone, 2000; Miller, Barrett, & Hampe, 1974; Muris, Merckelbach, Jong, & Ollendick, 2002).

Ollendick and King (1994) suggested that childhood fears affect daily functioning negatively as more than 60% children reported their fears interfered with daily activities. In addition, children reported to have some persistence of their childhood fears especially about death/injury, insects and heights (Roubos, 1983). Similarly, Muris, Merckelbach, Mayer, and Prins (2000) mentioned that the childhood fears are the signs of serious anxiety problems in significant number of children. All these

evidences show that childhood fears and anxieties are mostly interrupting the life of children and disappointing children in a serious manner (Muris, 2007).

Results of fear studies from 19th century through 21st century showed that fears may change depending on current events, issues, and concerns such as war, hurricanes, terrorist attacks, and school shootings (Burnham, 2009). While Hall (1897) stated some fears; thunderstorms, darkness, death, animals, disease, and ghost in 19th century; Jersild and Holmes (1935) classified fears as concrete events (e.g., animals, strange people), losses (e.g., health, death), and imaginative fears (e.g., supernatural, being alone, movies) in 20th century. Additionally, Gullone and King (1992) suggested AIDS as a contemporary fear. In the study conducted in 1994, contemporary fears were described as crime, poverty, divorce, guns, shootings, gangs, dying, kidnapping, world hunger, etc. by Adler. Gunshots, street drugs, being burned, drive-by shootings, were added to contemporary fear list by Owen in 1998. In another study, fears classified in four factors as following: “fears about interpersonal events or situations”, “fears related to death, injuries, illness, blood, and surgical procedures”, “fear of animals”, and “agoraphobic fears (fear of entering public places-shopping malls, fear of crossing bridges, fear of traveling alone, etc.)” (Arrindell, Pickersgill, Merckelbach, Ardon, & Cornet, 1991).

As mentioned above, although fears of animals, death, darkness, and supernatural were unchanged fear patterns during centuries (Burnham, 2009), many contemporary fears appear when children and adolescents consistently exposed to such situations;

global events (e.g., disasters, wars, diseases, etc.), television/media exposure, and societal changes (Burnham, 2009). According to Adler (1994), categories of societal changes; changes in family dynamics (e.g. increases in single-parent homes) and outside influences (e.g., increase in child abuse, increases in violent crime) are also change fear contents.

In 1993, Gullone and King examined the 10 most common fears of 918 Australian children between 7 and 18 years old and the list was as follows with the percentages: AIDS (74.3%), someone in my family dying (64.8%), myself dying (64.0%), not being able to breathe (63.4%), being threatened with a gun (61.0%), taking dangerous drugs (60.0%), being kidnapped (58.7%), nuclear war (53.5), being hit by a car or truck (52.4%), and sharks (51.5%).

Burnham (2009) conducted a study with 1033 children in grades 2-12 to examine the top 20 most common fears in 21st century and updated the American Fear Survey Schedule for Children (FSSC-AM) according to contemporary fears of 2-12 graders. The findings of the study concluded that, “being raped” (1st), ”terrorist attacks” (11th), “having to fight in a war” (13th), “drive by shootings” (15th), “tornadoes/hurricanes” (18th) were some of the fears and sequences in top 20. Additionally, new contemporary fears were determined by children in nine categories: safety, animals/reptiles, spiritual/religious, school, people, death, rational issues/social adjustment, sex-related issues, and health/medical issues.

In Turkey, the last study about fears of children and adolescents made by Serim in 2010. Findings of the study showed that the most common reported fears of Turkish children and adolescents were “someone in my family dying”, “going to Hell”, “death of a closed person (grandparent, best friend etc.)”, “abuse”, “God”, “AIDS”, “someone in my family having an accident”, “my parents separating or getting divorced” and “terrorist attacks”.

As a result, although some researchers did not list ‘fear’ under basic emotions, fear is a basic emotion and defined as a normal reaction to a real or imagined threat is seen as integral part of development by others. Normal fear does not have long lifespan and vanish through months; however, if the fear is not age specific, long lasting and interferes with the life of child and prevent daily routines; the fear become clinical or abnormal. As it was mentioned above fears experienced in childhood years are the signs of important anxiety problems in significant number of children. Global and current events (e.g., terrorist attacks, disasters, wars, diseases, etc.), exposure to television or media, and societal changes may influence fears to change. Results of the studies and suggestions of the researchers exhibited that childhood fears and anxieties mostly interrupts the life of children and disappoint them seriously.

2.1.1.1. Relationship of Fear and Other Emotions (anxiety, worry, phobia, and depression)

The terms of fear and anxiety are generally used alternately; yet, both concepts are different in terms of symptoms, function, and biological bases. Anxiety is often prestimulus (anticipatory to threatening stimuli); however, fear is poststimulus (elicited by a defined fear stimulus). Thus, definable appearing stimulus distinguishes fear from anxiety (Öhman, 2000). Whereas anxiety can be defined as unresolved fear, fear can be solved by the help of coping behaviors. If coping behavior is unsuccessful and the fear is uncontrolled, it may turn into anxiety (Epstein, 1972).

Muris and Ollendick (2002) examined the relationship between fear and anxiety with the instruments of Fear Survey Schedule for Children-Hawaii (FSSC-HI), the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory for Children (STAIC), and Spence Child's Anxiety Scale (SCAS). Participants were 551, 12-19 years old children from Belgium. The findings revealed that higher fear levels are generally associated with higher levels of trait anxiety and symptoms of anxiety disorders. Particularly, scales of FSSC-HI; "Fear of Failure and Criticism", "Aversive Social Fears", and "Anticipatory Social Fears" were strongly correlated with scales of SCAS; "Social Phobia" and "Generalized Anxiety". There was also a significant relationship between FSSC-HI "Fear of Unknown" and SCAS "Separation Anxiety". In addition, FSSC-HI "Fear of

Unknown”, “Animal Fears” and “Medical and Situational Fears” were associated with SCAS “Physical Injury Fears”.

Again the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory for Children (STAIC), this time with the Fear Survey Schedule for Children-Revised (FSSC-R) was used in the study of Svensson and Öst (1999) to examine the relationship between fear level and the trait and the state anxieties of 550 Swedish children between 8 and 16 years of age. Interestingly, different from many other studies, they found no gender effect on fear level; however, age effect existed on fear level with the exception of fear of failure/criticism and fear of small animals. According to results of the study, there was no relationship between fear level and trait anxiety of children; however, fear level and state anxiety of children were a little related with each other. Similar with Svensson and Öst (1999), Eysenck (1984) investigated the relationship between the process of worry and anxiety. As a result, the researcher stated that unlike fear, worry was associated with trait anxiety. Trait anxiety increased the probability of worry process and it also extended the duration of worry.

Different from studies mentioned above, Ollendick, Yule, and Ollier (1991) examined the relationship among anxiety, fear, and also depression. The participants of the study were 327 British, 8-10 years old children. The scales of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children – Revised (FSSC-R), the Revised Children’s Manifest Anxiety Scale (RCMAS), and the Children’s Depression Inventory were applied to each participant. The findings exhibited that fear and anxiety are highly related. There was

not any relationship between fear and depression; however, there was a high correlation between anxiety and depression as in the study results of King, Gullone, and Ollendick (1992).

In another study, rather than fear, the negative effects of anxiety on children were examined. Strauss, Frame, and Forehand (1987) compared the functioning of 24 anxious children with 24 nonanxious peers in 2nd and 5th grades. Data gathered from peers', self reports, and teachers via Revised Behavior Problem Checklist. The study concluded that anxious children experience some impairment in social emotional relations, school performance, self- esteem, and attention and depression level.

Similarly, Muris and Meester (2002) compared the anxiety symptoms of preschool children and teacher ratings of school performance in a sample of 317 children. They found similar results of fear studies mentioned below. As fear, high anxiety symptoms are the signs of poor school functioning and lower self esteem.

As referred above, as well as fear and anxiety, fear and worry are also used interchangeably in the literature or practice. The definition of worry given by Muris (2007) that “Worry is the prototypical example of anxiety that when worrying, a person engages in thinking about negative things that might happen” (p.2). Worry is adaptive as fear and prepares person to bad events that are not expected; however, it may prevent autonomic cognitive processing necessary for dealing with the danger. While fear takes place when the individual confronted with dangerous stimulus or situation, worry occurs when the individual is concerned by thinking about

threatening scenarios although there is no actual danger (Muris, Merckelbach, Gadet, & Moulaert, 2000).

As anxiety and fear are related (e.g. Gullone, King, & Ollendick, 2000), fear and worry of children and adolescents are also expected to be correlated to each other (Laing, Fernyhough, Turner, & Freeston, 2009). In their study, Laing et al. (2009) examined the fear, worry and ritualistic behaviors via open and closed responses of 142 children from North-East England, ages between seven and 16. Study results concluded that there is general decline both in worry and fear intensity through age as well as ritualistic behaviors; however, social evaluative worries covering appearance, being clean enough, and meeting someone for the first time got higher rankings with age. In addition, results showed that fear and worry are positively related with each other as expected.

Briefly, although fear and anxiety are sometimes used interchangeably, they are different from each other and anxiety is more serious situation than fear. Fear is a developmental process but it is related with anxiety. According to study results, if fear cannot be controlled, it may trigger some serious anxiety problems. Therefore, anxiety symptoms may be the causes of high level of depression, difficulties in social and romantic relationships, and alcohol use in some situations (Cole, Peeke, Martin, Truglio, & Seroczynski, 1998; Glickman & La Greca, 2004; Kaplow, Curran, Angold, & Costello, 2001) and being unsuccessful at school. Furthermore, although fear and worry also may be used alternately, they are related emotions and different

from each other. As a result of all mentioned studies, it can be concluded that although fear is a normal developmental process, it should be paid attention not to cause serious anxiety problems.

2.1.1.2. Developmental Characteristics of Fear in Relation to Various Variables

Fears show some different characteristics during developmental process due to the influence of different variables. Several of the variables affect the development of fear are genetic factors, age, gender, and socio-economic status.

The Role of Genetic Factors in Fear

When a child comes into the world, she/he brings some specific fears innately.

Although, not being exposed to learning experiences, newborns show some fear reactions, for example, to loud noises, bright and flashing lights, and loss of support (Gullone, 2000). The reason of these innate reactions is reflection.

Behavioral-genetic studies showed that genetic transmission contributes to origin of fears and phobias. In their study, Stevenson, Batten, and Cherner (1992) examined contribution of genetic factors to fearfulness. They studied with 384 twins between the ages 8 and 18. Findings about effects of heredity on fearfulness concluded that, fears of “Unknown”, “Injury and Small Animals”, and “Danger” were significantly affected by genetic factors; however, “Fear of Failure” and “Fear of Medical

Procedures” were not affected by heredity as well as others. The results also showed that among twins, girls’ scores were greater than boys in all fear factors (fear of failure, fear of the unknown, fear of injury and small animals, fear of danger, and fear of medical procedures). In addition, as well as in non-twin children, fear scores of twins significantly decreased in older groups.

According to Merckelbach and De Jong (1996) fears and phobias are innate and spontaneous reactions. Additionally, Poulton and Menzies (2002) suggested that for the evolutionary- relevant fears of heights, water, spiders, strangers, separation, etc.; learning experience involving feared objects is not necessary, these fears occur innately. In spite of some innate fear responses, Rachman (1991) stated that most fears develop after infancy via three different pathways; negative information transmission, vicarious learning, and modeling. In other words, whereas some researchers mentioned that fears and phobias mostly occur as a result of learning experiences, others stated that fear is a spontaneous and innate reaction.

Age, Gender, SES and Fear

According to the cognitive developmental theory of Piaget (1970), as children getting older, they become cognitively developed. Through transition from concrete operational stage (7 to 11-12 years of age) to formal operational stage (11-12 years and up), thinking abilities of children develop and they are able to think more abstract rather than concrete. With together enhancing cognitive development, in

formal operational stage, children think about social matters much more. Thus, children's fears also change from concrete to abstract and to social manner by age increasing. Generally, studies conducted to examine the age and gender differences on fear together because age and gender are the most important factors have an effect on fears of children.

Fears related with imaginary things (e.g., ghosts, monsters) and certain animals appear in early childhood years and decrease with age increasing (Bauer, 1976; Hall, 1897; Jersild & Holmes, 1935); however, fears related to social and medical situations (Gullone & King, 1997; Hall, 1897; Jersild & Holmes, 1935) and realistic fears such as bodily injury, physical danger increase with age (Ollendick, Yule, & Ollier, 1991). Bauer (1976) examined fears of 54, 4-12 years old children in northern California. According to responses of children to open ended questions, fears of ghost and monsters, animals, and frightening dreams were decreased; however, fears of bodily injury and physical danger were increased with age increasing.

As it was mentioned above, Gullone and King (1993) conducted a study with 918 Australian children between seven and 18 years old. The Fear Survey Schedule for Children and Adolescents-II (FSSC-II) was administered to each participant independently. The aim of the study was to examine the prevalence, intensity and content of children's fear. The results concluded that reported fear levels of girls generally higher than boys. Additionally, younger children's level of fear intense was higher and number of fears was greater than older children. Younger children

reported more fears related with animals, whereas older children reported fears related with social evaluation and physic stress.

Similar with Gullone and King (1993), Scherer and Nakamura (1968) conducted a study with 99 children between the ages 9 and 12 to examine the prevalence of fear, fear intensity, and most common fears, and age, gender differences via The Fear Survey Schedule for Children (FSSC). Different from many other studies, they found no age difference, but found gender difference as others that girls acquired high scores in prevalence and intensity of fears. According to results, most common fears were school and death/danger related such as being sent to the principal, failing a test, fire-getting burned, not being able to breathe.

In another study, Ollendick (1983) studied with 8-11 year olds and found no significant age difference but there was gender difference. Girls' scores were significantly higher than boys. Most common fears were a burglar breaking into house, being sent to the principal, bombing attacks, being hit by a car or truck, falling from high places, earthquakes, and not being able to breathe. Additionally, Ollendick (1983) revised the scale of Scherer and Nakamura (1968) for second time and it became The Fear Survey Schedule for Children-Revised (FSSC-R).

Similar with the results mentioned above, researches in Australia, China, Israel, USA, Greece, Hawaii, and South Africa, girls always report more and higher levels of fears than boys (e.g. Burkhardt & Loxton, 2008; Burnham, 2005; Ollendick, King,

& Muris, 2002; Ollendick, Yule & Ollier, 1991). This result can be also illustrated by a study of Burkhardt and Loxton (2008) who examined common childhood fears, coping strategies and effectiveness of coping strategies of 141, 8-13 years old children in South Africa. FSSC-R and open ended questions were used for measurement. Results indicated that ghosts, darkness, strangers, death/dead people, men/boys, weapons were some fears in top ten fears children reported. Girls reported more fears and also higher levels of fears than boys. In addition, most preferred and most effective coping strategy was secondary coping strategies (e.g., seeking social or/and spiritual support).

In the study made in Netherlands, Valkenburg, Cantor, and Peeters (2000) practiced with 314 children between the ages 7 and 12. Children were both interviewed and made fill the Television-Induced Fright Scale to examine the relationship between fear inducing capacity of different types of television content (interpersonal violence, war and suffering, fires and accidents, and fantasy characters) and the demographic variables of age and gender of the children. Findings concluded that most fear provoking content was interpersonal violence whereas least fear producing content was fantasy characters. War and suffering, and fires and accidents were between. Results also showed that girls significantly more often experience television induced fears than boys. Younger children experienced more television induced fright than older children. Additionally, fears of ‚interpersonal violence‘, ‚fires and accidents‘, and ‚fantasy characters‘ decreased with age, whereas ‚war and suffering‘ did not show any change, either decline or increase.

On the other hand, Carroll and Ryan-Wenger (1999) interviewed with 90 children between the ages 8-12 to examine children's fears, anxiety and human figure drawings. Open-ended questions and Revised Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale (RCMAS) were the measurement instruments of the study. Different from many other studies, present study results showed that on average, both the boys and the girls reported approximately the same number of fears (boys=2.16 fears; girls=1.95 fears). Boys most often reported safety fears such as fear of someone hurting them with either a gun or a knife, fear of someone entering their home at night, and fear of scary rides at amusement parks while girls most often reported fears related with natural phenomena such as fear of the dark and fear of thunder and lightening. In addition, results showed that children's drawings reflect the anxiety of children experienced at the interview time and also anxiety is moderately correlated with the number of fears of children.

To examine the mentioned differences between the fearfulness of girls and boys, Pierce and Kirkpatrick conducted a study in 1992. According to them these differences are influenced by gender-role stereotyping. They studied with undergraduate psychology students and firstly administered 72-item fear schedule to them. One month later, 25-item schedule contains 14 item from the first schedule was administered to the students. The students were informed about the video they would watch covering fish, mice, rats and short roller coaster ride. They also instructed about monitoring their heart rate as a lie detector during 7 minutes video

watching. At the end of the study, they concluded that in order to protect their macho images, men would be more likely to lie about their fears because retest results showed boys' responses to fears related to mice, rats, roller coasters, harmless spiders, and high places were higher than the first test. However, there was no significant difference between test-retest ratings of girls on any of the 14 items.

In the fear studies, as well as age related decline of childhood fears, greater number and more intense fears of girls than boys were also found (Carrol & Ryan-Wenger, 1999; Gullone & King, 1993; King, Gullone, & Ollendick, 1992; McCathie & Spence, 1991; Ollendick, Yule, & Ollier, 1991); however, King, Gullone, and Ollendick (1992) suggested some different results about age increase and fear decrease relation for anxious children. They administered FSSC-R and RCMAS to 1524 children aged 8 to 16 years. The findings exhibited similar with other studies that there is age-related decline in the numbers of fears. However, more anxious children did not experience the same decrease in number of fears by the age increasing as did the less anxious children did in the study.

In Turkey, Erol and Şahin conducted a study in 1995 to examine children's fears concerning age, gender, and socioeconomic status (SES) characteristics. They also adapted the Fear Survey Schedule for Children (FSSC) to Turkish population. Between the ages 9 and 13, 1996 children participated in the study. The research results presented that girls at all age levels and SES groups reported more frequent and intense fears than boys. Children from low SES in all ages reported more intense

and frequent fear levels than peers from high SES. However, in both groups fear levels decreased with age increasing. Additionally, fears of death and separation were at the top rankings in all groups (low-high SES and Holland group) and religious fears most often reported by lower SES children.

Furthermore, as mentioned above, the study was made by Serim in 2010 in Turkey about fears of children and adolescents (8-18 year olds) from different SES levels. The findings of the study concluded that among all participant children and adolescents, 8 year-old girls from low SES were the most fearful group. Girls - especially from low SES- acquired higher level of fear score for all fear factors than boys.

Lastly, in 2008, Meltzer, Vostanis, Dogra, Doos, Ford and Goodman examined the fears of 5 to 16 years old children from Great Britain. The data was gathered from parents, teachers and children. Results showed that the fears of animals (11.6%), blood/injections (10.8%), and the dark (6.3%) were the most experienced fears by children. In addition, 0.8% of children reported having uncontrolled fears and these fears make them stressful and also it interfered with daily functions. Thus, researchers mentioned that according to research diagnostic criteria of International Classification of Diseases these uncontrolled fears children experience can be defined as specific phobia. Other results of the study were about age, gender and SES. While 11 to 16 years old children experienced more fears of diseases and enclosed places, younger children (5-10 year-olds) showed more fears of dark, the

natural environment, loud noises, imaginary or supernatural beings, and specific types of people (e.g. people with beards or crash helmets). Girls showed more fears of animals, blood, injections or injury, elements in the natural environment, and specific types of people than boys. Socioeconomic factors also had an effect on children's getting specific fears. Children from low SES were more likely to have fears of animals, blood, the dark, doctors, and dentists and using the toilet than children of high SES were.

For the studies of children's fear, data were sometimes gathered by children individually, however sometimes mothers are used as participant of the study. When compared to children's own responses, it is seen that majority of parents underestimate fears of their children. Fear level of children was lower when parents responded to study scales; however, when children responded to scales, the level of fear was higher (e.g. Mahat & Scoloveno, 2003; Muris, et al., 2001). According to Jersild and Holmes (1935), younger children's probability of exhibition of fears is higher than older children. Therefore, parents' underestimation of their children's fears may be because older children have ability to mask or „fake' their emotions.

To sum up, findings of the research studies exhibited that age, gender and SES are the most investigated and related variables with fears of children. Almost all study results proved that girls experience more intense and higher level of fear than boys. Younger children also reported higher level of fear intense and greater number of fears than older peers and age related decline of childhood fears was found at the end

of the studies. According to results, whereas imaginary things (e.g., ghosts, monsters), animals, dark, and natural environment were mostly fearful for young children; social and realistic situations, and physical danger were fearful for older children. In addition to higher level of intense and greater number of fears in general, girls also frequently experienced television induced fears more than boys.

2.1.2. Origins of Fear

Many researchers regarded origins of fears in their studies and they focused on learning experiences of fear (e.g., Merckelbach & Collaris, 1997; Ollendick & King, 1991). There are different opinions about origins of children's fears. According to Watson and Rayner (1920), children can acquire fear by directly experiencing (conditioning) the conditioned stimulus; CS (neutral stimulus) and unconditioned stimulus; US (fear-eliciting stimulus) together. They studied with a 9-month infant, Albert. At the beginning of the experiment, Albert exposed to a white rat, a rabbit, a dog, a monkey etc. and he did not fear or response negatively. Then he exposed to again these animals while a heavy hammer against a steel bar was barking loudly. This time Albert started to cry. After that experience, when he exposed to one of the animals without banging in the environment, he showed fear reactions and avoidance (Hoffmann, 2008).

Another opinion about fear acquisition presented by Mineka and Zinbarg (2006) that phobic fears can be acquired by vicarious (observational) conditioning by watching

models behaving fearfully and also by watching movies or TV. For example, if a child has a mother behaves extensively fearful with the height (phobic object), the child can also has the same phobic fear because of observation of mother's attitude.

The present study based on Rachman's three pathway theory of fear acquisition, because Rachman's theory is comprehensive and clearly explains fear acquisition. According to Rachman's three-pathways, children acquire fears in three ways; conditioning (direct experiences with fearful thing/event), modeling (vicarious learning), and negative information transmission (exposure to negative information about fearful thing/event) (1977). The last pathway „negative information transmission' helps to understand the role of television news on children's fear acquisition more clearly. Thus, Rachman's three pathway theory was chosen for present study as fear acquisition theory.

Rachman mentioned that people may directly experience such events: natural disasters, earthquakes, and epidemics; attacks by dangerous animals or people; physical mutilation; and may directly see people or animals that look unnatural, such as people who have been mutilated, and monsters (Jersild & Holmes, 1935) and can be *conditioned* to fear. Or people may learn fear by *observing*. Media is one of the most effective appliances for vicarious learning (observing) pathway. By observing the emotional reactions to dangers of main characters or victims in media productions (Bandura, 1996), individual may get media induced fear responses. Fear responses become exist because although the danger itself is often not even shown in

audiovisual media, the emotional reactions of main characters are sufficient to cause an intense fear response in the viewer according to Bandura (1996). When an individual hear information about a present or potential danger without observing the results of danger via media character, fear acquisition by the *negative information* way occurs. Media is full of negative information. Especially news covers crime, war, and other dangers. Negative information transfer occurs by the way newsreaders' and eyewitnesses' verbal information (Calvert & Wilson, 2008).

Ollendick and King (1991) examined Rachman's fear acquisition theory. The participants of the study were 1092, 9-14 years old American and Australian children and adolescents. Researchers gave fear list to the participants and wanted them to describe the fear levels and origins of the fears. At the end of the study, researchers suggested that the majority of children attributed their fear to negative information (88.8%) rather than modeling (56.2%) and conditioning (35.7%). They suggested that girls' fear of level was higher than boys; however, while girls reported more negative information source, boys reported more direct conditioning and modeling sources than girls. Additionally, 9 to 11 years old children reported more fears than 12-14 year olds. Although, there was no age difference on conditioning pathway, modeling and informational pathways more frequently reported by 9-11 years old children than 12-14 years old children. Researchers attributed this difference to developmental process on cognitive skills. About difference of culture, there was no difference between the level of fear and fear acquisition pathways of American and Australian children.

As Ollendick and King (1991), Muris, Merckelbach, and Collaris (1997) examined the origins of childhood fears addition to top intense fears, and rank orders and characteristics of childhood fears. The participants were 129 children between the ages of 9 and 13 from the Netherlands. FSSC-R and 20 minute-interviews were used for measurement. Results indicated that 87.8% of the children reported to had heard frightening things about their most feared stimulus (negative information), 61.1% of the children reported the conditioning and 49.6% of the children reported the modeling pathways related with their fears. However, children added that their fears had not strengthen by all these experiences, different than Ollendick and King (1991), they reported the pathways as conditioning (45.8%), negative information (35.1%), and modeling (3.8%) increased the intense of fears and caused children become more fearful. In addition, results indicated that the top intense fear for children was spider (41.7%) and most frequently reported fears were fear of animals (37.9%), then fear of the unknown (22.5%), fear of danger and death (17%), medical fears (6.9%), and fear of failure and criticism (6.2%).

In another study, Muris, Merckelbach, Ollendick, King, and Bogie (2001) investigated the origins of nighttime fears of children aged between 4 and 12 years old in Netherlands. They interviewed both with children and parents, especially with mothers. Study results represented that 73.3% of the children reported they show nighttime fears, whereas only 34.0% of the parents reported their children have such fears. 77.5% of the children associated their nighttime fears with negative

information, especially from television. Children related their nighttime fears with conditioning and modeling were in the percentages of 25.6% and 13.2%. The 24.0% of the children reported not attributing nighttime fears to any pathway. Responses of parents were also consistent with children's responses that the most reported pathway was negative information (61.9%), then conditioning (23.6%), and modeling (9.0%).

As mentioned above, as well as negative information and conditioning pathways of Rachman's theory, modeling pathway (vicarious learning) has an effect on children's fear. During World War II, Rachman (1989) examined the relationship between fearfulness of parents and children. He observed fearful cues of families during air raids. And he concluded that, when parents apparently showed signs of fearful behavior, their children were more likely to become fearful. Children of parents, who responded as fearful to air raid sirens, modeled behavior of their parents and showed the similar responses to air raid sirens. So they conditioned to air raid sirens for fearful behavior.

In 2000, Muris, Merckelbach, Gadet, and Moulaert studied with 190 children between the ages 4 and 12 in order to investigate anxiety symptoms and origins in children. Firstly, 15 min. ongoing interview was done then pictures describing each concepts of fear; worry and scary dream were presented to children. After presenting pictures, children were asked how frequently they experience these particular behaviors: fear, worry and scary dream. Results indicated that 75.8% of the children reported experiencing fears, 67.4% of the children reported experiencing worries and

80.5% of them reported experiencing scary dreams. Most common fears were animals (21.6%), imaginary creatures (12.6%), being kidnapped (7.9%), and social threats (7.9%). Most often reported worries were harm (16.8%), death (14.8%), test performance at school (13.7%), and being separated from parents (5.3). The most mentioned scary dreams were about imaginary creatures (29.5%), harm (17.3%), being kidnapped (14.7%), dangerous animals (6.8%), and death (6.8%). All these results showed that the anxiety phenomena; fear, worry and scary dream are common in children. The study results about the origins of fears showed that most of the children (55.2%) attributed their fears to negative information experiences followed by conditioning (33.1%) and modeling (25.5%). As the origin of worry, 54.7% of the children reported experiences of conditioning (e.g., “My worrisome thoughts about death began when Grandmother died last year”), then negative information (32.8%; e.g., “My worry about being kidnapped become worse after seeing a kidnapper on the television news”), and modeling (13.3%; e.g., “My mother also worries a lot about my little sister’s health”). The majority of the children (69.3%) mentioned negative information as origin pathway of scary dreams (e.g., “These dreams were about some frightening thing that I had recently seen on TV”), followed by conditioning (15%; e.g., “I dream about being hit by a car since I was involved in an accident a few months ago”) and modeling (9.8%; e.g., “I dream about dogs ever since seeing my mother very afraid of a dog”).

In Turkey, as it was aforementioned, Serim (2010) examined the origins of children’s and adolescents’ fears in addition to fears of male and female children and

adolescents between the ages 8 and 18 from different SES. Findings of the study were different from previous study results that modeling (64.8%) was the most frequently reported pathway of fear acquisition by children and adolescents. The second frequently reported pathway was negative information transmission (51.8%) and the third one was conditioning pathway (35.8%).

Briefly, the most detailed theory of fear acquisition is Rachman's three pathway theory. According to Rachman's theory, children acquire fears via negative information transmission, vicarious learning and conditioning. About origins of fears of children, these three pathways were examined by many researchers; however, research studies examining origins of childhood fears reported inconsistent results. For example, while in some of the studies, the most reported pathway was negative information transmission; conditioning was reported mostly in others. In some studies the second frequently reported pathway was modeling; however, conditioning pathway was reported secondly in others. Additionally, source of negative information was more often stated by girls, whereas direct conditioning and modeling sources were reported by boys much more according to results of studies.

2.2. Television and Fear of Children

In this part, the place of media and television in the life of children, negative effects of television on children, and relationship between television news and fears of children will be explained. In addition, literature about threatful parts of television

news for children and behavior manifestations of children as reactions to television news will be presented.

2.2.1. Media, Television and Children

Since media started to take a role in children's lives, their positive and negative effects have been debated. Today, young people and children live in media-saturated environment. They spend an average of 6.5 hours a day using media and they are exposed to media more than 8.5 hour a day (Roberts, Foehr, & Rideout, 2005). Thus, Valkenburg (2004) suggested that according to their age, children watch TV between 2.5 and 3.5 hours per day. Similarly, in Turkey, children watch TV between 1 and 3 hours per day in weekdays and between 2 and 5 hours per day at weekends (RTÜK, 2006). In western societies, childhood has changed very much since 1960s and researchers pointed out television as one of the reasons of changes in childhood (Elkind, 1981; Meyrowitz, 1985; Valkenburg, 2004).

Children start to watch television in early years. For example 4-5 months children started to notice TV programs such as preschool programs and commercials with visual and auditory characteristics. In early ages, visual and auditory stimuli attract children's attention; however, these stimuli are meaningless for children yet (Richards & Gibson, 1997). In other words, the sounds or music cause children to look at the screen and the visual broadcast extend the duration of children's watching (Gunter & McAleer, 1997).

Within the scope of cognitive theory, Piaget (1929) suggested that children younger than 6 years old are not be able to distinguish fantasy from reality, they are not able to differentiate the boundaries between thoughts, dreams, and real physical things. For example, 4 year olds believe that Bugs Bunny is real (Howard, 1998). Especially until 4, children suppose that all things on television are real. They may walk to the screen and may kiss the character loves so much, may try to keep the thing on TV (Valkenburg, 2004). However, about the age of 7, children are able to differentiate the frightening fictional and real productions of media (Harris, 2000). Between the ages 8 and 12, the real world events or circumstances become important for children, they are able to realize and understand the emotions of others. Beside comic and dramatic films, and entertainment programs, 8-12 year olds search for reality in media productions (Mielke, 1983).

Children have many reasons to watch television. They watch television to learn about things and about self (e.g., specific programs about occupations, lifestyles, events around the world, fashions, and games). They watch television also for companionship (e.g., by bringing the family together), for escape boredom and problems (e.g., programs about fantasy world), and for relaxation. Additionally, they watch television for as habit or as time filler (e.g., comedy, entertainment shows), and also as arousal (e.g., serious drama, science fiction, romantic serials, and variety shows) (Greenberg, 1976; Rubin, 1979).

As well as reasons mentioned above, watching adult programs help children/early adolescents (ages of 9 to 14) to direct themselves through adult world. They also easily have relationships with peers by the help of knowledge gained from adult programs (Paik, 2001). Especially in early adolescence years, when children watch adult programs, they have high status among peers because early adolescents try to adjust themselves to adult world (Paik, 2001).

2.2.2. Negative Effects of Television on Children

Today, children spend so much time with media productions especially they spend so much time in front of television. Because television viewing is a major part of children's life, it influences children so much. Its effects may be good or bad. It may affect children's knowledge, beliefs and values; it may improve or worsen cognitive development and enhance learning process; it may change feelings or attitudes about events or things; it may also cause some changes in behaviors (Gunter & McAleer, 1997). These effects are also related with the programs children choosing to watch. Some programs are designed for education, whereas others are designed for entertainment.

Wilson (2008) mentioned that by watching scary movie or television programs, small children are probably feel some of their first fears; by watching a favorite media character, small children feel some of their earliest non-familial attachments; and by watching the adventures of a popular media character, small children experience the

beginnings of emotional empathy (Wilson, 2008). In addition, some of the contents of television production improve children's learning of academic skills, information, pre-reading skills, and social values (Huston, 1993; MacBeth, 1996), whereas others affect children negatively so much. For example some programs induce children to think the world is nastier place than actual situation, and have children to behave aggressively (Huesmann, Moise-Titus, Podolski, & Eron, 2003; Morgan & Shanahan, 2010). Rather than positive effects, negative effects of television on children more attracted the researchers' attention.

Bandura (1973) suggested that aggressive behavior is acquired by observational learning as well as by direct experience. Therefore, according to Bandura (1973)'s social learning theory, the family, the subculture the child lives in, and the mass media were the significant sources for aggressive models. Parallel with this suggestion, the relationship between the exposing to the violence on television in childhood and aggressive and violent behavior in adulthood was examined by Huesmann, Moise-Titus, Podolski, and Eron (2003). The study was conducted between 1970s and 1980s. Participants of this longitudinal study were growing up in Chicago and 6-10 years old (N=450) when archival data was gathered and after 15 years, interviews were done with the participants (N=329). The results of the study indicated that females and males watched violence on television in childhood years behaved more aggressive in adulthood; however, aggressiveness of children was not related to their preference of violent television content. Exposure to violence on TV

in childhood years related with physical aggression of both females and males; however, only related with the indirect aggression of females in adulthood.

In another study, Shin (2004) examined the relationship between the amount of television viewing and academic achievement of 1203 American children between the ages 6 and 13. The data of 1997 Child Development Supplement (CDS) and the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID) collected by Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan was used for the study. The study results showed that there was negative correlation between the amount of television viewing and four scores of academic achievement; letter-word, passage comprehension, calculation, and applied problem. Additionally, it was found that children's television viewing was likely to decrease their time spend for doing homework, studying, and reading for leisure, and to increase their impulsive behaviors.

Lăzărescu (2010) examined the effects of television and computer on behaviors of children and teenagers. The ages of 115 participants were 8 to 18. Open ended questions were asked to children and teenagers and their teachers. Within the study, children and teenagers reported that they watch television to pass time, or to have fun, to feel good, to listen to the music, to document, to obtain information, to forget about worries, and to relax after a day's school. Children from the grades of 5th to the 7th stated they prefer to watch films, followed by variety shows and cartoons. High-school students mentioned they mostly watch movies, documentaries and variety shows. According to both the statements of students and their teachers, the main

consequence of so much using computer and so much watching television is tiredness, followed by boredom and lack of attention. Teenagers have also added that the addiction of watching some shows and accessing the internet were another consequences.

In addition to negative effects on academic achievement, behaviors, and attention; television may cause some emotional problems of children such as fear experiencing. The study of Paavonen, Roine, Pennonen, and Lahikainen (2009) was about whether children have TV-related fears and whether co-viewing changes the effects of media on TV-related fears of children. Co-viewing means: “context where parents watch TV with the children offering their interpretations and evaluations of the contents to the children” (p.773-774). The participants of the study included 331 children at 5-6 years old and the data were gathered from mothers via 34-item TV questionnaire. According to reports of parents, 10.3% of the children often or always, and 62.2% of them sometimes had TV induced fears. TV induced fears and nightmares were related with exposure to TV and co-viewing. Results showed that TV induced nightmares (3.8%) not prevalent as fear. Parents reported that 59.2% of the children never had nightmares. In addition, 55.4% of the parents stated they often or always watched TV with their children. According to reports of parents, 42.2% of the children frequently asked questions about TV programs and 41.1% of the mothers mentioned that they discuss with their children about TV programs. Another result of the study was that co-viewing and discussion interestingly enhanced the probability of TV induced fears.

2.2.3. Media/TV News and Fear of Children

Bronfenbrenner (1979) explained the context of children's stressors according to ecological systems theory. Children's fears and coping strategies and effects of these strategies are affected by interactions with the different systems. For example, in the microsystems of South African children, socioeconomic conditions -poverty and unemployment of parents- may cause conflict increase. Anxious rearing, overprotection, and rejection by parents in high levels may cause fearfulness and affect cognitive strategies (Muris, Loxton, Neumann, Du Plessis, King, & Ollendick, 2006). At the exosystemic level, media, especially the television influences children's fear acquisition and reactions (Muris, Du Plessis, & Loxton, 2008).

As study results exhibited, negative information about events or situations is one of the effective factors on causing children become fearful (Field, Argyris, & Knowles, 2001; Muris, Bodden, Merckelbach, Ollendick, & King, 2003). With 285 primary school children aged between 4 and 12 years, Muris et al. (2003) conducted a study in the Netherlands. In the study, children informed negatively and positively about a doglike animal called „beast’. Children's fear of beast was assessed before, during and one week after the beast-related information. Findings showed that negative information increased the beast related fear of children; in contrast, positive information decreased the beast-related fear of children. The effects of positive and negative information were presented at follow-up assessment despite the one week

passed. In addition, this negative and positive information about beast also affected in the same way the children's fear of dog and predators.

Although children feel upset via different types of media contents in different ages, television generally affects children's fear and anxiety throughout childhood. Fantasy portrayals are fearful for younger children, whereas more realistic content including the news are fearful for older elementary school children and preteens (Wilson, 2008).

One of the effective appliances is television for negative information. Through information providing by television, children become aware of news diseases (e.g., AIDS), disasters (e.g., earthquakes), and other threatening events (e.g., drugs) (Muris, Mayer, van Eijk, & van Dongen, 2008). Mass media is more frequently seen as a factor in children's fears during the past 30 years (Fremont, Pataki, & Beresin, 2005; King & Gullone, 1990; Larson, 2003). The conducted studies elucidated the media effects on fears (Burnham, 2009).

Violent content of media may enhance fear and anxiety of children (Valkenburg, Cantor, & Peeters, 2000). This mass media induced fears of children are long-lasting and intense in common. Violent content may also cause concerning of children and may induce them to think being victimized (Cantor, 1998; Walma van der Molen & Bushman, 2008). About violence on television, reality perception of children is a significant factor. Violence in reality reported in the news and documentaries

perceived as more violent than violence in fantasy settings. Gunter and McAleer (1997) suggested that more intense effects have become exist by more realistic events. Children older than 8 years old are able to distinguish fantasy from reality (Cantor, 1998). Thus, violence in news may affect children more than violence in fiction, because older children able to differentiate news from fictional broadcasting (Wright, Huston, Reitz, & Piemyat, 1994), and also because of naturalness of news and representation via graphics (Cantor, 1998; Walma van der Molen & Bushman, 2008).

In their study, Walma van der Molen and Bushman (2008) investigated the effects of violence in fictional and television news content on children's worry and fearfulness. Participants were 572 Dutch and 8-12 years old children in the Netherlands. Firstly, children completed the 20 min. surveys and demographic information form then they were shown 2 pictures represent an alarmed, frightened child and a child seem worried and thinking about something. Lastly, 8 frequently presented threats make children fearful in fiction and news programs were described to children: (1) murder, (2) war, (3) house fires, (4) people shooting at each other, (5) hungry people, (6) airplane crashes, (7) people fighting, and (8) floods. And children wanted to mention how frightened and how worried they became face to face each threat. Similar with suggestion of Gunter and McAleer (1997), the results indicated that violent content of news produce more intense fear than the same violent content of fiction. Girls and younger children reported more fear and worry reactions to violent content than boys and older children. Interestingly, exposure to TV in frequent manner was negatively

associated with fear of children. That means heavy viewers (watching TV more than 2.5 hours daily) turn into less fearful over time. According to researchers, desensitization may be the reason of this result.

News is not prepared for children as audience and it is also not suitable for children; however, as adults, children also need news to have knowledge about events around the world (Walma van der Molen, 2004). Being informed is important especially for older children and they reported that they watch news consciously (Hoffner & Haefner, 1994). Children watch more news than parents or caregivers think they do (Walma van der Molen & Bushman, 2008). There are different opinions about children's exposure to TV news. Walma van der Molen et al. (2002) suggested that while younger children regularly watch the news, elementary school children watch the news at least several times a week. Therefore, reports of crime, natural disasters, and traffic or plane accidents make elementary school children fearful. 10% to 20% of the children reported their fear as intense or very intense (Walma van der Molen, 2004). According to Klein (2003) a majority of 7th (54%) and 8th (58%) graders watched news one to three days per week and also most of the children (68%) from 9th grade watched news four or more days per week.

On the other side, Cantor and Nathanson (1996) suggested that although children do not choose to watch TV news consciously, they are confronted with TV news while searching for other programs or when their parents watching so children watch more news than parents or caregivers think they do. Additionally, the time of the

broadcasting news increase the chance of children's exposure to TV news in many cultures (Walma van der Molen & van der Voort, 2000)

In Turkey, studies of Radyo Televizyon Üst Kurulu supported aforementioned results. In 2006, RTÜK examined watching TV routines of elementary scholars. Participants were 7-14 years old elementary scholars. Findings concluded that 46.7% children watch television between the hours of 17.01 and 20.00, and % 46.4 children watch TV between the hours of 20:01 and 22:00. Children reported that they mostly put of 'indecent images' (82.7%), 'fight/violence images' (71.1%), and 'images show crying or sad people'.

In another study, RTÜK (2007) studied with 3573 participant older than 15 years old to examine the tendency of watching television news in 17 cities of Turkey. They administered 29 item questionnaire including also essay questions. According to study findings, 68.7% people reported they watch TV news regularly 'everyday' and the TV news watching time was evenings with the percentage of 78.6%.

Additionally, the most reported time was 'between 1-2 hours' about the duration of exposure to TV news daily at weekdays. Furthermore, participants were asked "Have you observed your child is affected negatively because of the image presented in the TV news?". The percentage of answers 'yes' were 21.2% and 'from time to time' were 34%. 59.9% of the children reported benefit of TV as 'giving information'.

The aim of the survey study of Walma van der Molen, Valkenburg, and Peeters (2002) was examining the prevalence of fear reactions of children to TV news. They compared the fear reactions of children to adult news program and child news program. Five hundred thirty seven Dutch children aged between 7 and 12 years old participated in the study in Netherlands. Different from the study of Cantor and Nathanson (1996), researchers made telephone interviews with participant children. According to results of the present study, 9-12 years old children (87.0%) reported more watching adult news than 7-8 years old children (51.2%). There was no significant difference between the children news program watching frequencies of children. 48.2% of the children mentioned that they have been frightened by adult news. Girls and younger children experienced fear more frequently than boys and older children did. Fewer fear reactions providing of children news was proven by the study results. Interpersonal violence was the most frequently reported by children as reason of fear. Other most often reported fearful types of news categories were 1) fires, accidents, and disasters, and 2) explicit visual depictions of violence, such as dead bodies and blood.

Moreover, exposure to trauma does not only occur by physical experience directly but also occurs as post traumatic stress (PTS) through relationship indirectly for example via media (Pfefferbaum, Seale, Brandt, Pfefferbaum, Doughty, & Rainwater, 2003). In their study, Pfefferbaum et al. (2003) examined indirect exposure to the bombing of Oklahoma City in 1995 via broadcast and printed media, emotional reactions to the coverage of media and post traumatic stress reactions of

children away from the explosion. Results pointed that all these exposure of broadcast and printed media, emotional reactions to coverage of broadcast and printed media and post traumatic stress were significantly related. Most of the children reported to *sometimes* experience reactions (e.g., feeling irritable, 18.20%; thinking about it without meaning to, 22.25%; having pictures about it pop into mind, 20.23%; avoiding thoughts about it, 13.15%; and having waves of strong feelings about it, 22.25%) although PTS scores were low. When coverage of broadcast was low, PTS and exposure was not related; however, when broadcast coverage increased, PTS increased with increasing exposure of broadcast.

In their study, Muris, Mayer, van Eijk, and van Dongen, (2008) examined what extent 216 children between the ages 9 and 13 in The Netherlands are affected by terrorism threat. At the end of the study, fear of danger and death items of FSSC-R were seen the most dominant items among children. Especially, „bombing attacks’ and „explosions in the bus or subway’ ranked as position 6 and 7 in the top 10 most intense fears. The rank of other items related to terrorism were „terrorists’ (18th), „Osama Bin Laden’ (21th), „Mohammed B’ (i.e., Theo van Gogh’s assassin) (31th), „pictures of airplanes crashing into buildings’ (47th), „Muslims burning the American flag’ (55th), and „women with veils’ (87th). It may show that although there is no war, children have a war fear in their country. As seen in results, this fear probably occurs via negative information transmission in television news.

To sum up, Bronfenbrenner (1979) suggested via the theory of “the ecological system” that media, especially television affects fears of children and reactions in ecosystemic level. As mentioned by researchers, one of the effective instruments for negative information transmission is television news. Researchers also stated that television news is not suitable for children; however, children expose to television news while their parents are watching or while they are looking for a suitable program or channel. In addition, the broadcasting time of television news also increase the chance of children’s viewing. News- especially adult news- are frightful for children because children older than 8 years old can differentiate fantasy from reality. Thus, violent and real content of news affect children more than violence in fantasy productions of television. The study results showed that boys and older children did not experience fear as often as girls and younger children experienced. And news including interpersonal violence was the most fearful types of news for children.

Threatful parts of TV News

In television news broadcasts, shocking pictures about events (e.g., wars, natural disasters), graphics, and voices are extensively used (Walma van der Molen et al. 2002). As previously mentioned, noticeable properties of frightful news content affect younger children in a strong way according to Cantor and Nathanson (1996). In the news of natural disasters, explicit images of destruction are used; however, in the news of interpersonal violence, the details cannot be shown as well as in natural

disaster events. Therefore, Cantor and Nathanson (1996) suggested that young children get higher fear of the news about natural disasters, whereas older children get higher fear of the news about interpersonal violence rather than fear of the news about natural disasters. This is because older children's comprehension abilities are more enhanced, and abstract threats (e.g., nuclear war, environmental problems) make them more fearful than younger children.

On the other side, Walma van der Molen et al. (2002) mentioned that not only physical results (blood or death bodies) but also emotional consequences (people screaming or crying) in harmful content of news may seriously affect children. These harmful results of violence presented in news may increase fear reactions of children especially when children empathize with the victims.

In their study, Cantor, Mares, and Oliver (1993) studied with parents of American children in 1st, 4th, 7th and 11th grades. The percentage of the parents reported that the content of TV disturbed, upset and frightened their children were %45. When they studied on age related differences, they found that younger children were most upset by the news situations covered disturbing visual images (injured people or planes dropping bombs). In contrast, older children were most upset about news stories contained more abstract threats (terrorism and nuclear war).

In another study, as mentioned before, Smith and Moyer-Guse (2006) investigated age-related differences in children's responses to the content of television news.

Similar with the results of the study above, the findings concluded that younger children frightened by concrete, visual dangers represented in television news scared whereas older children frightened by abstract, verbally communicated threats.

Behavioral Manifestations of Children as Reactions to TV News

As it was stated above, Muris, Merckelbach, and Collaris (1997) examined the role of three pathways in the maintenance of fear. They also examined children's behavioral manifestations after experiencing intense fear. They found that 66.4% children reported they show physical symptoms, 80.5% children reported they get negative thoughts, and 75% children reported they show avoidance behavior when confronted with fear.

In addition to fears, Bauer (1976) examined also the scary dreams of 54 children, 4-12 years old in northern California. According to results about scary dreams of children, most of the children, 74% of kindergarteners, 80% of second graders, and 45 % of sixth graders reported that they have dreams about the fearful situations or things that they recently watch on television.

About the relationship between television news and children's fear reactions, Walma van der Molen (2004) stated that in addition to stress, frights, and worries; children's experience of sleep disturbances and nightmares also can be the consequences of negative effects of violent news content. Moreover, violence in news, especially the

used arousing pictures of weapons and actually occurring violence may cause children show or imitate aggressive behaviors. Children can be less interested in distress of other people and violent behaviors can become more acceptable by young viewers because real life violence presented in TV news programs (Walma van der Molen, 2004).

In another study, as mentioned before, Smith and Moyer-Guse (2006) examined behavioral manifestations of children as reaction to television news content. Children's anxiety-related behaviors were listed as difficulty sleeping, nightmares, acting nervous, crying, acting withdrawn, acting aggressive, acting irritable, acting irritable, a desire to sleep with parent, nail biting, difficulty eating, an upset stomach, obsessive thoughts about the war, obsessive discussions about the war, and drawing pictures about the war. The results exhibited that girls showed anxiety-related responses more than boys.

2.3. Summary

Fear research studies have been started to make in very early years. There are different opinions about emotion of fear; it is basic emotion or not. Additionally, there are different definitions of fears; however common sight among researchers is that fear is a normal part of development and most of the fears disappear through months. However, in some situation fears may be abnormal (Muris, Merckelbach, Jong, & Ollendick, 2002). At that point differentiating these concepts of fear,

anxiety, and worry may be difficult and these concepts may be used interchangeably. Thus, there were some studies conducted to examine the relationship between these concepts. Results showed that while fear, anxiety and phobia are strongly related; depression is not related to fear. Worry is also positively related to fear.

Researchers of fear studies also considered origins of fears. They discussed the genetic, environmental and cognitive factors. There are different opinions in the literature; however, the most comprehensive and important theory of fear acquisition is Rachman (1977)'s three-pathways. For fear acquisition, the theory suggested three ways; conditioning, modeling (vicarious) learning, and negative information transmission. The majority of the study results presented that negative information transmission is the most effective way on fear acquisition (e.g., Muris, Merckelbach, & Collaris, 1997; Ollendick & King, 1991).

According to findings of researches, fears change by age increasing. That means younger children experience more fear than older children. Additionally, girls experience more intense and great number of fears than boys (Carrol & Ryan-Wenger, 1999; Gullone & King, 1993; King, Gullone, & Ollendick, 1992; McCathie & Spence, 1991; Ollendick, Yule, & Ollier, 1991). Beside the factors of age and gender, the relationship between television especially television news and children's fears was examined in the literature. Majority of the studies suggested that television news and children's fears are related because news is the primary source of negative information transmission. Although children do not consciously choose to watch

television news, they are exposed to watch it while searching for suitable channel or while parents are watching.

Results of the studies showed that fear contents may change according to current events and issues (e.g. war, terrorist attacks, diseases), change in family dynamics and exposure of television and media (Burnham & Giesen, 2005; Muris, Bodden, Merckelbach, Ollendick & King, 2003). Some contemporary fears in 1900s were suggested as AIDS, crime, poverty, divorce, kidnapping, and drive-by shootings (Hall, 1897). Being raped, terrorist attacks, having to fight in a war, etc. are the most common fears of 21st century (Jersild & Holmes, 1935).

Interpersonal violence is the most reported fearful types of news categories according to findings of studies (Cantor & Nathanson, 1996). Natural disasters and accidents are more fearful for younger children; however, older children fear from violence and crime content of TV news (Smith & Wilson, 2002). Because older children are able to distinguish fantasy from reality, abstract news contents such as crime are more fearful for older children (Cantor & Nathanson, 1996; Smith & Moyer-Guse, 2006). In addition, the fearful characteristics of news are naturalness and broadcasting type; used graphics, pictures, and voices (Walma van der Molen, Valkenburg, & Peeters, 2002). Children's some negative behaviors as a reaction to fear and also to television news were examined in the literature. They can show physical symptoms, have negative thoughts, and avoidance behavior as a result of the experienced fear. Additionally after watching television, they may have scary dreams

and sleep disturbances (Muris, Merckelbach, & Collaris, 1997; Muris, Merckelbach, Gadet, & Moulaert, 2000).

There are only a few studies about children's fear and television news relationship in Turkey. Therefore, the present study aimed to examine the nature and severity of TV news induced fears of children with regarding to their ages and genders. It also aimed to investigate consistency between children's reports and mothers' opinions about their children's TV-induced fears. Exploring threatful parts of TV news and behavioral reactions of children to the TV news were other goals of the study. The methodology of current study will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter consisted of seven sections regarding the methodological details of the study. The first section presented the overall design of the study. The second section described the participants of the study. The third section presented data collection instruments. The fourth section explained the data collection procedure. In the fifth section, variables of the study were introduced. Next, in the sixth section, data analyses procedures conducted were given. Finally, in the last section limitations of the study were presented.

3.1. Overall Design of the Study

This study is descriptive/correlational study in nature. The data sources of the study were the mothers' responses to the survey questionnaire and both mother's and children's responses to the Television Induced Fright Scale (Appendix A). The goal of the study is to understand the fear responses of the children to the TV news. Based on the related literature, this study examined several points related with TV news induced fears of children. This study examined the relationships among mothers' and their children's responses to the Television Induced Fright Scale (TIFS) to

understand whether mothers' observations were indeed accurately reflects their children's TV induced fears. It also explored whether exposure to TV news has any relationships with the nature and severity of the children's fear with regard to their age and gender. Additionally, the current study examined the parts of TV news that are frightened for children, and the behavioral reactions of children as a results of exposure to TV news.

A demographic information form, Television Induced Fright Scale (sample items- Appendix A), and a list of questions related with children and TV news -a mother survey- were administered to 186 mothers and their 186 children in Yeniçağa - Bolu, Ankara and Konya. Descriptive statistics, Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA), and Paired-Samples t-Test were conducted to analyze the data.

3.2. Participants

The participants of the study were 186 volunteering mothers and their 186 children. In order to reach the participants of the study, both convenient and purposive sampling methods were utilized. Mothers and children were chosen from Yeniçağa – Bolu, Ankara, and Konya because of their availability and accessibility.

Additionally, there were three criteria for sample selection: (1) children born between 2002 and 1997 years can participate in the study, (2) only one child from a family can participate to the study (to equate the numbers of mothers and children), (3) mothers should know writing and reading (to able to read and answer the

questions). From Yeniçağa, 54; from Ankara, 55; and from Konya 77 mothers and their children participated into the study. The mothers were between the ages of 27 and 53 ($M=36.39$; $SD=4.73$; Median=36; Mode=35). Of the participant, children 16.1% were 8 years old, 19.9% were 9 years old, 19.9% were 10 years old, 19.4% were 11 years old, 12.4% were 12 years old, and 12.4% were 13 years old. Fifty one point one percentages of participant children were girls and 48.9% of the participant children were boys.

Most of the mothers (43%) graduated from elementary school. Others' educational levels were 28.5% high school, 25.3% university and 3.2% others (postgraduate or institution of higher education). Majority of mothers (65.1%) were housewives, 25.8% of the mothers were government employee, 7.5% of the mothers were worker and 1.6% of the mothers were reported other occupations (Table 3.1.)

Table 3.1.

Demographic Characteristics of Participant Children and Their Mothers

	<i>f</i>	%
City		
Yeniçağa-Bolu	54	29
Ankara	55	29.6
Konya	77	41.4
Gender		
Girls	95	51.1
Boys	91	48.9
Age of Children		
8	30	16.1
9	37	19.9
10	37	19.9
11	36	19.4
12	23	12.4
13	23	12.4
Age of Mothers		
27-30	16	8.7
31-35	71	38.3
36-40	71	38.3
41-45	22	11.9
46-50	4	2.1
51-53	2	1.0
Mother Education		
Elementary School	80	43.0
High School	53	28.5

Table 3.1. (continued)

Demographic Characteristics of Participant Children and Their Mothers

	University	47	25.3
	Other	6	3.2
Mother Occupation			
	Housewife	121	65.1
	Government	48	25.8
	Employee		
	Worker	14	7.5
	Other	3	1.6

For education, 'Other' includes graduate school and post graduate education

Most of the children ($n=94$, 50.5%) watched TV news for an hour in total and nobody watch TV news for four hours the day before the implementation. About the week before, the most of the children's ($n=86$, 46.2%) daily average duration of exposure to TV news was 0 hours, means between 0 and 60 minutes. Only two of the children watched TV news for three hours and six of the children watch TV news for four hours daily, about the week before (Table 3.2.).

Table 3.2.

Frequency Table of Children's Duration of Exposure to TV News

	0 hour(0-59min.)		An hour(60-119 min.)		2 hours(120-179 min.)		3 hours(180-239 min.)		4 hours(240-299 min.)	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Duration of watching TV news yesterday	73	38.7	94	50.5	14	7.5	6	3.2	-	-
Daily average duration of watching TV news last week	86	46.2	80	43.0	17	9.1	2	1.1	6	3.2

Sum of mothers' 'somewhat' and 'very much' answers showed that, approximately half of the children ($n=43$, 23.1%) avoided watching fearful TV news rather than choosing to watch ($n=15$, 8%) it. However, many children are attracted by violence on TV news ($n=38$, 20.5%). In sum, violence of TV news was attractive for children but fearful news types were not attractive for children. (see Table 3.3.).

Table 3.3.

Frequency Table for News Attractiveness for Children

	Not at all		A little bit		Somewhat		Very much	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Choose to watch the news they fear	57	30.6	84	45.2	9	4.8	6	3.2
Avoid to watch the news they fear	34	18.3	58	31.2	17	9.1	26	14.0
Interested in violence on TV news	37	19.9	61	32.8	26	14.0	12	6.5

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

In the present study, the data were gathered with the following instruments: Demographic information form, Television Induced Fright Scales (TIFS; Valkenburg, Cantor & Peeters, 2000), and a „mother survey’ created by the researcher.

3.3.1. Demographic Information Form

In the demographic information form, mothers asked to state their age, occupation, education level, and number and gender of the children. Additionally, questions asking some information about the participant children (age and gender) were utilized.

3.3.2. Television Induced Fright Scales (TIFS)

The original version of the scale was developed by Valkenberg, Cantor, and Peeters (2000). The scale consisted of 18–four point Likert-type items under four factors; interpersonal violence, war and suffering, fires and accidents, and fantasy characters. In the original scale, the score for each item ranged “never (0)”, “almost never (1)”, “sometimes (2)”, “often (3)”. As a result, the possible highest score that could be obtained 54 (indicating high level of fear); whereas the possible lowest score was 0

(indicating no fear). An individual's fear level was determined by summing all of his/her responses.

Television Induced Fright Scales (TIFS) was used in this study for determining the most common fearful TV news coverages for children. TIFS was also used for measuring relationship between children's and mothers' responses about children's TV news related fears. In addition, TIFS was used for examining whether there were differences among four factors (interpersonal violence, war and suffering, fires and accidents, fantasy characters) according to age and gender of the children (see Appendix A). The TIFS in the study of Valkenberg, et al. (2000) measured children's television induced fright related with fictional or nonfictional threats (e.g., news, documentaries).

3.3.2.1. Adaptation Procedure of TIFS

Adaptation process started with translation and back-translation of the scale. After translations, validity and reliability of the scale were controlled. In this part, adaptation process; explanations of validity and reliability studies of Television Induced Fright Scale (TIFS) were presented in detail.

3.3.2.1.1. Validity of Television Induced Fright Scale (TIFS)

Translation and Face Validity

The first step of the adaptation process of the scale was the translations of the items into Turkish by two Turkish counselors advanced in English. These counselors checked the items whether they measure as intended while translating them into Turkish. At the end, they were agree on Television Induced Fright Scale is good scale to measure TV-induced fears of children. Then, two English literature experts translated the items of TIFS back into English. Finalization of language of TIFS was done by comparing these last versions with the original form. Additionally, the opinions of Turkish experts were also taken about coherence of items.

The pilot study was conducted to check the clearness of the scale after obtaining expert opinions. The scale was administered to 15 children and their mothers. No correction or changes were suggested by participants and no additional changes were made in the items. Only more clear instructions were added above the scales for children and mothers. Sample items of the Turkish version of TIFS were presented in Appendix A.

Factorial Validity

Construct validity of Television Induced Fright Scale was examined by Valkenberg, Cantor, and Peeters (2000). Therefore, in this study, the Turkish version of TIFS was made and instead of construct validity, factorial validity was examined. Two separate exploratory factor analysis (one for mother form of TIFS and one for children form of TIFS) were conducted to test the factorial validity of the scale. Before conducting the exploratory factor analysis, assumptions of exploratory factor analysis were checked. First, the sample size needs to be enough to conduct the EFA. Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) suggested that the suitable sample size is calculated by $N/p \geq 10$. Because participants were 186 pair (mother-child) and there were 18 items in the scale; this ratio was 10.3. Therefore, the sample size was suitable for the present study. Second, all variables were metric. Third, the correlation coefficients should be higher than .30 as Hair et al. (1998) suggested. In the present study, although most of the correlation coefficients in the correlation matrix were not large, the Bartlett test of sphericity was significant meaning that there were correlations at least some of the variables. Fourth, the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) value was .90 well providing evidence for multivariate normality and sampling adequacy for factor analysis (Field, 2009).

Firstly, EFA was conducted for mothers' TIFS. Results of the principal axis factoring with promax rotation revealed four factors explaining 65.36% of the total variance. All factor loadings were above .30 accepted as significant as Hair et al. (1998)

suggested. The factor loadings of the items ranged from .30 and .96 (Table 3.4.). All of the factors were the same to findings with study of Valkenburg, Cantor and Peeters (2000) with 18 items. They were named as Interpersonal Violence, War and Suffering, Fires and Accidents, and Fantasy Characters (Table 3.4.)

Table 3.4.

Factor Loadings for Mothers' TIFS

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1				
Interpersonal Violence				
People who fight with knives	.869	.018	-.044	-.021
Somebody who gets murdered	.879	.024	-.078	.014
Blood	.577	.093	.014	.101
People who shoot each other	.741	-.135	.163	-.043
Children who are kidnapped	.301	.267	.197	-.028
Factor 2				
War and Suffering				
Children in poor countries who are starving	.012	.691	.141	-.098
Animals who get hurt	.025	.730	-.092	.045
Children who get hurt	-.078	.918	-.071	.046
Wars in other countries	.256	.340	.238	.000
Factor 3				
Fires and Accidents				
Houses or buildings on fire	-.015	.085	.755	-.028

Table 3.4. (continued)

Factor Loadings for Mothers' TIFS

Cars that run into each other	-.011	-.091	.957	-.024
Air crashes	.040	.057	.709	.058
Car accidents	-.022	-.060	.840	.037
Factor 4 Fantasy Characters				
Ghosts	-.008	.094	-.092	.804
Monsters	-.100	.014	.067	.928
Witches	.105	-.071	-.001	.907
Dragons	.042	-.042	.045	.846
Aliens	-.028	.014	.005	.845

Correlations among four factors; Factor 1 (Interpersonal Violence), Factor 2 (War and Suffering), Factor 3 (Fires and Accidents), and Factor 4 (Fantasy Characters) were investigated and results indicated that all four factors are positively correlated to each other. It can be concluded that any increase or decrease changes in one of the TV induced fright scores of children will result with change in other factors in the same direction (Table 3.5.).

Because of the reason that the factor loadings of the items of TIFS were not equal to each other, McDonald Omega (ω) coefficient estimates were more suitable results for congeneric measurements (Yurdugül, 2006). To estimate McDonald Omega (ω) coefficient, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted after exploratory factor analysis (see appendix B for the figure of confirmatory factor analysis). McDonald

Omega (ω) coefficients were found .91 for mothers' and .97 for children's TIFS. The values of Cronbach Alpha (α) were .91 for both scales.

Table 3.5.

Correlation between Four Factors of TV Induced Fright Scale (mothers' response)

		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Cronbach Alpha	McDonald Omega
Factor 1	Pearson Correlation Sig.(1-tailed)	-	,659* ,000	,632* ,000	,417* ,000	.86	.87
Factor 2	Pearson Correlation Sig.(1-tailed)		-	,503* ,000	,305* ,000	.80	.81
Factor 3	Pearson Correlation Sig.(1-tailed)			-	,319* ,000	.89	.89
Factor 4	Pearson Correlation Sig.(1-tailed)				-	.94	.91

*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)

Second, EFA was conducted for children's TIFS. Results of the principal axis factoring with promax rotation revealed four factors explaining 64.53% of the total variance. All factor loadings were above .30 accepted as significant as Hair et al. (1998) suggested. The factor loadings of the items ranged from .34 and .90 (Table 3.6.).

Except from the item of "Wars in other countries" in Factor 2 (Wars and Suffering) all of the factors and items were the same with findings with study of Valkenburg, Cantor and Peeters (2000) with 18 items and they were named as Interpersonal

Violence, War and Suffering, Fires and Accidents, and Fantasy Characters. Although the factor loading was .436, above .30, the “Wars in other countries” item was excluded from analysis because it passed to under Factor 3 in children’s TIFS whereas it was under Factor 2 in mother’s TIFS. Because we did the analysis of children’s and mothers’ responses in parallel, the item was not covered in the statistical analysis (Table 3.6.).

Table 3.6.

Factor Loadings for Children’s TIFS

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1				
Interpersonal Violence				
People who fight with knives	.865	.037	.104	-.044
Somebody who gets murdered	.830	.063	-.081	.006
Blood	.554	.021	.048	.125
People who shoot each other	.706	-.174	.253	-.068
Children who are kidnapped	.339	.265	.233	.044
Factor 2				
War and Suffering				
Children in poor countries who are starving	.010	.844	.002	-.049
Animals who get hurt	.032	.812	-.097	.028
Children who get hurt	-.054	.903	.073	-.009
Wars in other countries	.199	.174	.436	.026
Factor 3				
Fires and Accidents				
Houses or buildings on fire	-.055	.065	.813	.047

Table 3.6. (continued)

Factor Loadings for Children's TIFS

Cars that run into each other	.000	-.099	.862	.016
Air crashes	-.006	.079	.711	.004
Car accidents	-.023	-.071	.916	-.063
Factor 4				
Fantasy Characters				
Ghosts	.045	-.001	-.040	.792
Monsters	-.013	.012	-.021	.891
Witches	-.030	-.034	.028	.883
Dragons	.126	-.086	-.017	.788
Aliens	-.133	.080	.045	.766

Correlation between four factors; Factor 1 (Interpersonal Violence), Factor 2 (War and Suffering), Factor 3 (Fires and Accidents), and Factor 4 (Fantasy Characters) was investigated and results indicated that all four factors are positively correlated to each other. As mentioned above, it can be concluded that any increase or decrease changes in one of the TV induced fright scores of children will result with change in other factors in the same direction (Table 3.7.)

Table 3.7.

Correlation between Four Factors of TV Induced Fright Scale (children's response)

		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Cronbach Alpha	McDonald Omega
Factor 1	Pearson Correlation Sig.(1-tailed)	-	,556* ,000	,659* ,000	,384* ,000	.85	.85
Factor 2	Pearson Correlation Sig.(1-tailed)		-	,522* ,000	,293* ,000	.88	.88
Factor 3	Pearson Correlation Sig.(1-tailed)			-	,343* ,000	.88	.88
Factor 4	Pearson Correlation Sig.(1-tailed)				-	.91	.91

*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)

3.3.2.1.2 Reliability of Television Induced Fright Scale (TIFS)

Internal Consistency Reliability

The internal consistency of the items was tested by Cronbach Alpha (α) coefficient.

The total scale alpha coefficients obtained from both mothers' and children's responses were .91. For the TIFS responded by mothers, Factor I (Interpersonal Violence) has an internal consistency of .86, Factor 2 (War and Suffering) has an internal consistency of .80, Factor 3 (Fires and Accidents) has an internal consistency of .89, and Factor 4 (Fantasy Characters) has an internal consistency of .94. For the TIFS responded by children, Factor I (Interpersonal Violence) has an internal

consistency of .85, Factor 2 (War and Suffering) has an internal consistency of .88, Factor 3 (Fires and Accidents) has an internal consistency of .88, and Factor 4 (Fantasy Characters) has an internal consistency of .91.

As mentioned above, because the factor loadings of TIFS were not equal to each other, the McDonald Omega (ω) reliability coefficient suitable for congeneric measurement was estimated (Yurdugül, 2006). Reliability coefficient of McDonald Omega (ω) was .91 for mothers' and .97 for children's TIFS, whereas reliability coefficient of Cronbach Alpha (α) was .91 for both of the scales.

Therefore, translation and face validity, exploratory factor analysis, and internal consistency reliability of new version of Television-Induced Fright Scale indicated that it produces valid and reliable scores for Turkish children between the ages of 8 and 13. One item („Wars in other countries') was removed from the original form of the TIFS and Turkish version of the scale consisted 17 item with four factors of Interpersonal Violence, War and Suffering, Fires and Accidents, and Fantasy Characters. The possible range of score (never=0, rarely=1, sometimes=2, often=3) was 0-51.

3.3.3. Mother Survey

There were 7 questions in mother survey. The 3 questions about attraction of TV news (e.g. How much has your child been attracted to the violence in the TV news

coverage?) and 2 questions about duration of children's exposure to TV news (e.g. Approximately how many hours did your child watch TV news yesterday?) from the study of Smith and Moyer-Guse (2006) were administered in order to gain information about children's TV news watching tendencies. For the chart question (e.g. Regarding TV news how concerned or fear your child about visual, sound, and content of presentation of news) of *parts of news threats*, from the questions and items in the studies of Smith and Moyer-Guse (2006), Walma van der Molen (2004), and Walma van der Molen, Valkenburg, and Peeters (2002) were benefited. The items (e.g. difficulty sleeping, nightmares) of the chart question asking for *children's behavior manifestations* were adapted from again the studies of Smith and Moyer-Guse (2006), Walma van der Molen (2004).

After preparing the full of the survey, expert opinion was taken about the items and content. Questions were directed to only mothers. Fifteen mothers participated in the pilot study. The participants suggested no correction. As a result of the feedback provided by the participants, only more clear instructions were added at the beginning of the items measured different variables. After all, no additional changes were done and the last version of the questions was evaluated by a language of Turkish expert again. Similar to the participants of pilot study, expert did not suggest any correction for mother survey.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

After obtaining the permission of the Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee, by means of convenient and purposive sampling methods, 8-13 year old children and their mothers in Ankara, Konya and Bolu-Yeniçağa were selected. The sampling method was chosen as purposive because as Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) suggested, personal judgment based on the previous knowledge of a population and the specific purpose of the research was used to determine the sample. It is known that according to Piaget (1970)'s cognitive development theory, through concrete operational stage (7 to 11-12 years of age) to formal operational stage (11-12 years and up), thinking abilities of children improve and children are able to think more abstract rather than concrete. In formal operational stage, children leave egocentrism and start to think about social matters much more by the help of enhancing cognitive development (Berk, 2003). Based on this information, 8-13 years old children were thought to provide the data needed for the present study. It was thought that these development and change processes may be effective on the TV news related fears of children. Additionally, as mentioned above, three criteria were specified for sample selection. Children born between 2002 and 1997 years, and only one child from a family can participated in the study. Also mothers should know writing and reading to participate in the study. Convenient sampling method also used that children and mothers were chosen from Ankara,

Konya and Bolu-Yeniçağa because the researcher had a chance to reach the participants in these cities easily.

About children's fears, researchers gathered data both from children and parents, sometimes also from teachers and caregivers. For the present study, the data were mainly gathered from mothers; however, children were also chosen as source of the data. There were two reasons for choosing both target groups. Mothers were chosen because as mentioned in the literature review part, fearfulness of boys was influenced by gender-role stereotyping (Pierce & Kirkpatrick, 1992). Pierce and Kirkpatrick also suggested that in order to protect their macho images, men (undergraduate psychology students) would be more likely to lie about their fears. This may valid for younger boys and because of gender-role stereotyping, they also may tend to lie about their fears. We also chose children since parents may tend to underestimate their children's fears because younger children tend to show fears much more but older children have ability to mask or „fake' their emotions (Jersild & Holmes, 1935).

Firstly, the information about the research was given to mothers living around Yeniçağa-Bolu, Ankara, and Konya. Volunteer mothers were visited in their home and the aim and the procedure of the study were explained to them. They wanted to choose one of the 8-13 years old children (if more than one) that watch TV news or they mostly observe TV induced fears of the child. Their voluntariness about participating in the study and permission for their children were again asked.

Mothers were also guaranteed concerning the anonymity of their responses and confidentiality of the data. After obtaining their written permission for the application, the children were also given short information about the purpose of the study and volunteered children participated to the study with their mothers.

At the beginning, children were informed about Television Induced Fright Scales and wanted to fill the scale. Then, mothers were informed firstly about Demographic Information Form, secondly about Television Induced Fright Scales and lastly about questions in the survey related with TV news. Mothers also informed about answering the questions in the survey by thinking about TV news and the child participated in the study. For mothers, completing the entire packet of instruments took approximately 15-20 minutes and for children, completing TV Induced Fright Scale took approximately 10 minutes. Mothers' or children's questions were immediately answered by the researcher during the application of scale and questions.

3.5. Description of Variables

Fear: A normal reaction to a real or imagined threat, is seen as integral part of development" (Gullone & King, 1993, p.137)

Gender: A dichotomous variable with categories of (1) female and (2) male.

Age: Children between the ages 8 and 13 were attended in this study.

Threatful Parts of News: Items in the question of asking for parts such as scenes, voices and content of news.

Behavior Manifestations: Items in the question of asking for children's behavior manifestations as a reaction to TV news.

3.6. Data Analyses Procedures

In the first step, demographic analysis and some preliminary analysis (scanning data, testing; assumptions, duration of exposure to TV news, and attraction of TV news) were conducted. Results of demographic analysis were reported in method part. All the assumptions were tested according to the tests and criteria suggested by Tabachnick & Fidell (2001). The details of the assumptions presented before the analysis in the result chapter. As a result of the assumption testing for MANOVA data were found as appropriate to conduct the main analyses. Other preliminary analysis (testing attraction of TV news and duration of exposure to TV news) were reported in method/participants part. For all the statistical analyses, significance level was chosen as .05. All the analyses were carried by SPSS-PASW statistics 18.

In the second step, research questions were tested. In order to examine consistency between children's responses and mothers' perceptions related to TV induced fears

of children was tested by Paired-Samples t-Test. Frequently chosen fearful TV news coverages were analyzed by descriptive statistics, responses of both mothers and children to TV Induced Fright Scales (TIFS) examined by the help of frequency tables. Furthermore, in order to investigate the nature of the TV news induced fears of children with respect to age and gender, MANOVA was conducted for both mothers' and children's responses to TIFS separately.

3.7. Limitations of the Study

The present study has a number of limitations, which may influence the presented results. First, the sampling method of the study was purposive and convenient sampling. The selection of the participants was not done randomly. There were some criteria for sampling procedure that limit the sample size. The data were collected from the voluntary mothers and their only one 8-13 years old children. The target population was mothers and their children in Yeniçağa-Bolu, Ankara, and Konya but the participants from other cities could not be reached. Therefore, the generalizability of the results is limited to children aged between 8 and 13 in Yeniçağa-Bolu, Ankara, and Konya.

Second, Television Induced Fright Scale (TIFS) was adapted to Turkish in present study. Regarding that they were unstandardized, for eliminating this limitation, the validity and reliability assessments of TIFS were performed for the present data.

However, the stated measurement tool needs to be tested with diverse samples; for example with other age groups, and with children and mothers live in other cities.

Finally, as stated in literature part, fear exhibits some different characteristics during developmental process by the influence of different variables such as genetic factors, age, gender, culture, and socio economic situation. Nevertheless, in this study, data were collected at one point of time. Furthermore, this study only investigated the predictive role of age and gender in TV induced frights of children live in Yeniçağ-Bolu, Ankara, and Konya. However, as stated in the literature, there might be other factors (e.g. socio-economic status) related to children's fears.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This study sought answers to the following main research questions: 1) Are mothers' perceptions and children's reports on the level of TV induced fright of children consistent? 2) What are the most common fearful coverages of TV news for children? 3) What is the nature of children's TV induced fears with respect to age and gender? 4) According to mothers what are the threatful parts of news for children? 5) Related to the level of children's TV induced fears, what are the behavior manifestations of children as a reaction to TV news? In this chapter, answers of these questions were reported.

4.1. The Agreement between Mother and Child

RQ 1: Are mothers' perceptions and children's reports on the level of TV induced fright consistent?

In order to understand the agreement between mothers and children about children's TV news induced fears, TV Induced Fright Scale (TIFS) was applied separately to both children and their mothers. The main question of the scale for children was:

“When you watch television news, how often have you been frightened by?” and for mothers was: “When s/he watches television news, how often has your child been frightened by.....? Children and mothers completed the questions with the items in the scale.

For analyzing the data gathered from mothers and their children, as mentioned above, Paired Samples t-Test was conducted with four pairs: interpersonal violence (child-mother), war and suffering (child-mother), fires and accidents (child-mother), and fantasy characters (child-mother). Means and standard deviations of interpersonal violence, war and suffering, fires and accidents, and fantasy characters with regard to responses of children and mothers were presented in Table 4.1. As seen in Table 4.1, perceptions of mothers and reports of children differ significantly on the measures of four factors of TIFS; interpersonal violence, war and suffering, fires and accidents, and fantasy characters ($t_{(185)} = 5.47$, $t_{(185)} = 3.57$, $t_{(185)} = 3.06$, and $t_{(185)} = 3.29$, respectively, ps for all $< .05$).

Table 4.1.

Means and Standard Deviations of Four Factors of Paired-Samples t-Test

		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Interpersonal Violence	Child	7.23	4.47	185	5.47	.000
	Mother	8.90	4.20			
War and Suffering	Child	5.65	2.94	185	3.57	.000
	Mother	6.40	2.49			
Fires and Accidents	Child	5.09	3.91	185	3.06	.003
	Mother	5.99	3.77			
Fantasy Characters	Child	4.13	4.77	185	3.29	.001
	Mother	5.34	5.21			

In addition, results also indicated that according to both children's responses ($M= 23.56$, $SD= 13.05$), and mothers' responses ($M= 28.25$, $SD= 12.66$), children experienced fears in average levels (See Figure 4.1.). Furthermore, these results indicated that according to mothers' responses children had higher levels of TV news induced fears.

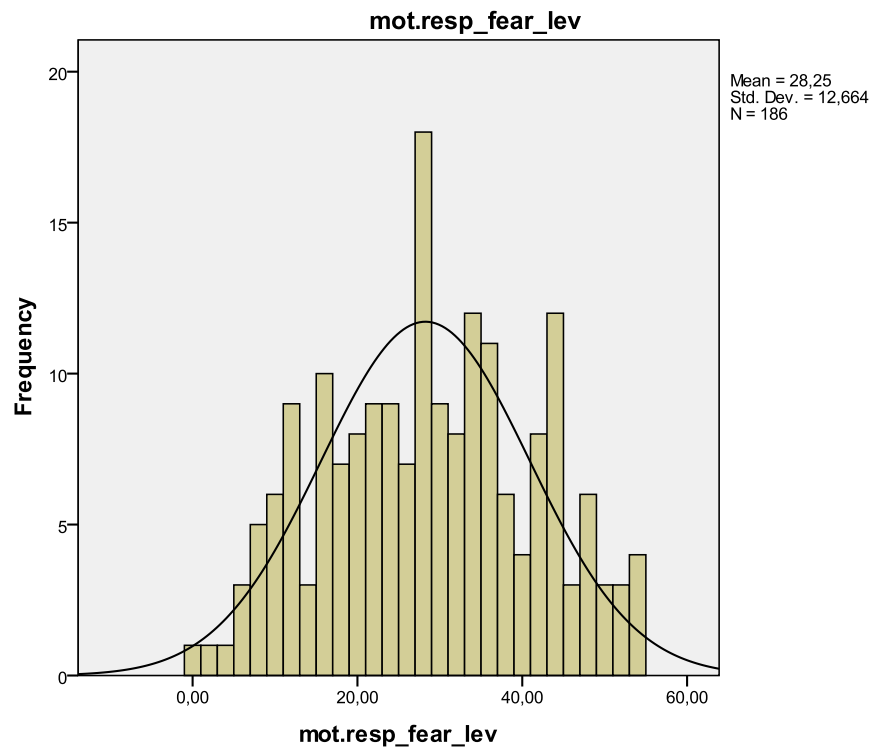
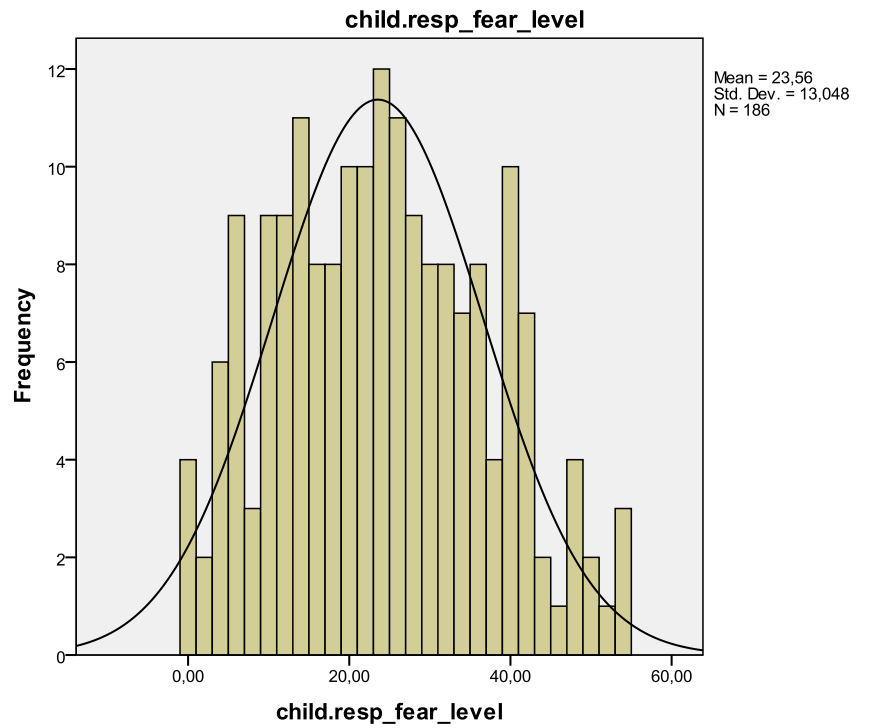


Figure 4.1. Means and Standard Deviations of Children's Fears According to Children's and Mothers' Responses.

4.2. Most Common Fearful TV News

*RQ 2: According to responses of mothers and children, what are the **most common fearful coverages** of TV news for children?*

In order to determine the most common fearful coverages of TV news for children, the highest frequency and percentage endorsement of “often” response choice to Television Induced Fright Scale (TIFS) was examined as it was suggested in Burnham and Gullone (1995) and Gullone and King (1993).

According to children’s responses to TIFS, overall most commonly endorsed 10 fearful coverages of TV news were (1) children who get hurt ($n=84$, 45.2%), (2) children who are kidnapped ($n=73$, 39.2%), (3) starving children in poor countries ($n=70$, 37.6%), (4) animals who get hurt ($n=66$, 35.5%), (5) somebody who gets murdered ($n=62$, 33.3%), (6) houses or buildings on fire ($n=44$, 23.7%), (7) air crashes ($n=42$, 22.6%), (8) ghosts ($n=41$, 22.0%), (9) blood ($n=38$, 20.4%), and (10) people who shoot each other ($n=34$, 28.3%) and car accidents ($n=34$, 28.3%).

According to mothers’ responses to TV Induced Fright Scale, overall most commonly endorsed 10 fearful coverages of TV news were (1) children who get hurt ($n=94$, 50.5%), (2) animals who get hurt ($n=87$, 46.8%), (3) children who are kidnapped ($n=86$, 46.2%), (4) starving children in poor countries ($n=79$, 42.5%), (5) somebody who gets murdered ($n=70$, 37.6%), (6) car accidents ($n=57$, 30.6%), (7)

ghosts ($n=56$, 30.1%), (8) blood ($n=54$, 29.0%), (9) people who fight with knives ($n=49$, 26.3%) and (10) houses or buildings on fire ($n=46$, 24.2%). Most common fearful news coverages for children were presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2.

Most Fearful TV News Coverages for Children

	Responses of Children								Responses of Mothers							
	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>Interpersonal Violence</i>																
People who fight with knives	44	23.7	50	26.9	61	32.8	31	16.7	37	19.9	34	18.3	66	35.5	49	26.3
Somebody who gets murdered	37	19.9	39	21.0	48	25.8	62	33.3	20	10.8	35	18.8	61	32.8	70	37.6
Blood	77	41.4	40	21.5	31	16.7	38	20.4	36	19.4	44	23.7	52	28.0	54	29.0
People who shoot each other	78	41.9	40	21.5	34	18.3	34	18.3	48	25.8	47	25.3	51	27.4	40	21.5
Children who are kidnapped	37	19.9	38	20.4	38	20.4	73	39.2	17	9.1	27	14.5	56	30.1	86	46.2
<i>War and suffering</i>																
Starving children in poor countries	31	16.7	39	21.0	46	24.7	70	37.6	18	9.7	34	18.3	55	29.6	79	42.5
Animals who get hurt	32	17.2	41	22.0	47	25.3	66	35.5	18	9.7	28	15.1	53	28.5	87	46.8
Children who get hurt	22	11.8	35	18.8	45	24.2	84	45.2	15	8.1	21	11.3	56	30.1	94	50.5
<i>Fires and accidents</i>																
Houses or buildings on fire	61	32.8	44	23.7	37	19.9	44	23.7	41	22.0	50	26.9	50	26.9	45	24.2
Cars that run into each other	75	40.3	40	21.5	45	24.2	26	14.0	54	29.0	46	24.7	49	26.3	37	19.9
Air crashes	60	32.3	48	25.8	36	19.4	42	22.6	53	28.5	50	26.9	47	25.3	36	19.4
Car accidents	65	34.9	34	18.3	53	28.5	34	18.3	33	17.7	40	21.5	56	30.1	57	30.6
<i>Fantasy characters</i>																
Ghosts	92	49.5	29	15.6	24	12.9	41	22.0	70	37.6	25	13.4	35	18.8	56	30.1
Monsters	103	55.4	29	15.6	21	11.3	33	17.7	85	45.7	30	16.1	31	16.7	40	21.5
Witches	132	71.0	18	9.7	17	9.1	19	10.2	99	53.2	35	18.8	23	12.4	29	15.6
Dragons	126	67.7	26	14.0	17	9.1	17	9.1	103	55.4	32	17.2	27	14.5	24	12.9
Aliens	92	49.5	42	22.6	20	10.8	32	17.2	84	45.2	39	21.0	36	19.4	27	14.5

4.3. Age and gender differences in TV induced fears

RQ 3: What are the age and gender differences in children's TV induced fears?

In order to examine the mean differences on fear response children in terms of age and gender, a 2 (gender) X 6 (age group) between-subjects, multivariate analysis of variance (two-way MANOVA) was performed on four dependent variables of '*children's TIFS*': interpersonal violence, war and suffering, fires and accidents, and fantasy characters. The age range of the participants was 8 to 13. Means and standard deviations of interpersonal violence, war and suffering, fires and accidents, and fantasy characters with regard to age and gender were presented in Table 4.3.

Prior to main analyses, assumptions were checked. First, the scores of the participants on the variables are independent of each other and independence of observation assumption was assumed. Second, since SPSS cannot offer a test for examining multivariate normality, the univariate the normality tested for each dependent variable by skewness and kurtosis values, histograms, and Q-Q plots, Shapiro-Wilks' W test, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov D test. Skewness and kurtosis values were between -3/+3 which provided evidence for normality. Although Shapiro-Wilks' W test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov D test suggested significant results meaning deviations from normality, visual inspection of the histograms and Q-Q plots showed evidence for normality. Finally, homogeneity of population covariance matrix for dependent variables was tested through Box's M test and Levene's test.

The value of Box's M test and Levene's test should be non significant and in the present study, they are also non-significant except from the factors of interpersonal violence (Factor 1) and fires and accidents (Factor 3). However, F-test is robust to violation of this assumption.

In the result, with the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly related with gender (Wilks's $\lambda = .89$, $F(4, 171) = 5.27$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .11$, medium effect) but not related with age (Wilks's $\lambda = .86$, $F(20, 568) = 1.33$, $p = .15$), and interaction of age and gender (Wilks's $\lambda = .89$, $F(20, 568) = 1.01$, $p = .45$).

Results also indicated that both among girls ($M = 8.36$, $SD = 4.32$) and boys ($M = 6.05$, $SD = 4.34$) the highest level of fear was related with interpersonal violence. In total, and also among girls and among boys, fears of news related to interpersonal violence were followed by fears of news related to war and suffering (in total; $M = 5.65$, $SD = 2.94$, girls; $M = 6.08$, $SD = 2.80$, boys; $M = 5.20$, $SD = 3.03$), fires and accidents (in total; $M = 5.09$, $SD = 3.91$, girls; $M = 5.87$, $SD = 3.79$, boys; $M = 4.26$, $SD = 3.88$), and fantasy characters (in total; $M = 4.13$, $SD = 4.77$, girls; $M = 5.31$, $SD = 5.28$, boys; $M = 2.90$, $SD = 3.83$). Additionally, girls reported higher fear levels in all factors than boys. The details were presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3.

Means and Standard Deviations of Four Dependent Variables of MANOVA (for children's responses)

		interpersonal violence		war and suffering		fires and accidents		fantasy characters	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Girls	Age								
	8	9.56	4.16	6.38	2.36	5.94	4.22	6.06	5.80
	9	10.19	4.43	6.25	2.89	7.69	3.65	7.56	6.22
	10	8.19	4.48	6.29	3.04	5.38	3.63	4.33	5.42
	11	7.53	4.17	5.53	2.78	5.26	3.63	5.95	4.77
	12	8.08	4.27	6.08	3.15	5.42	4.23	3.67	3.77
	13	6.00	3.66	6.00	2.93	5.64	3.41	3.45	4.37
	Total	8.36	4.32	6.08	2.80	5.87	3.79	5.31	5.28
Boys	Age								
	8	7.29	3.45	5.50	2.90	4.43	3.80	4.07	4.50
	9	7.57	4.14	6.10	3.14	5.71	3.94	3.00	4.25
	10	5.69	4.06	5.69	2.91	4.19	4.35	2.69	3.16
	11	5.41	4.46	5.00	3.46	4.76	3.98	3.41	4.24
	12	2.18	2.56	3.91	2.81	1.64	2.58	.91	1.81
	13	6.92	5.35	4.08	2.39	3.33	3.28	2.75	3.79
	Total	6.05	4.34	5.20	3.03	4.26	3.88	2.90	3.83

Table 4.3. (continued)

Means and Standard Deviations of Four Dependent Variables of MANOVA (for children's responses)

Total	Age								
	8	8.50	3.95	5.97	2.62	5.23	4.03	5.13	5.24
	9	8.70	4.41	6.16	2.99	6.57	3.89	4.97	5.60
	10	7.11	4.43	6.03	2.96	4.86	3.95	3.62	4.60
	11	6.53	4.38	5.28	3.09	5.03	3.75	4.75	4.64
	12	5.26	4.60	5.04	3.13	3.61	3.96	2.35	3.26
	13	6.48	4.54	5.00	2.78	4.43	3.47	3.09	3.99
	Total	7.23	4.47	5.65	2.94	5.09	3.91	4.13	4.77

In order to examine the mean differences, a 2 (gender) X 6 (age group) between-subjects, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed on four dependent variables of *'mothers' TIFS'*: interpersonal violence, war and suffering, fires and accidents, and fantasy characters. Means and standard deviations of interpersonal violence, war and suffering, fires and accidents, and fantasy characters with regard to age and gender were presented in Table 4.4.

Prior to main analyses, assumptions were checked as above mentioned. First, the scores of the participants on the variables are independent of each other and independence of observation assumption was assumed. Second, since SPSS cannot offer a test for examining multivariate normality, the univariate normality tested for each dependent variable by skewness and kurtosis values, histograms, and Q-Q plots, Shapiro-Wilks' W test, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov D test. Skewness and kurtosis values were between -3/+3 which provided evidence for normality.

Although Shapiro-Wilks' W test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov D test suggested mostly significant results meaning deviations from normality, visual inspection of the histograms and Q-Q plots showed evidence for normality. Finally, homogeneity of population covariance matrix for dependent variables was tested through Box's M test and Levene's test. The value of Box's M test and Levene's test should be non significant and in the present study, they are also non-significant except from the fantasy characters factor (Factor 4). However, F-test is robust to violation of this assumption.

In the result, with the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly related with gender (Wilks's $\lambda = .91$, $F(4, 171) = 4.14$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .09$, medium effect) but not related with age (Wilks's $\lambda = .90$, $F(20, 568) = .96$, $p = .51$), and interaction of age and gender (Wilks's $\lambda = .90$, $F(20, 568) = .88$, $p = .62$).

Results also indicated that both among girls ($M = 9.83$, $SD = 4.07$) and boys ($M = 7.93$, $SD = 4.13$) the highest level of fear was related with interpersonal violence. In total, and also among girls and among boys, fears of news related to interpersonal violence were followed by fears of news related to war and suffering (in total; $M = 6.40$, $SD = 2.49$, girls; $M = 6.56$, $SD = 2.51$, boys; $M = 6.24$, $SD = 2.47$), fires and accidents (in total; $M = 5.99$, $SD = 3.77$, girls; $M = 6.26$, $SD = 3.89$, boys; $M = 5.71$, $SD = 3.65$), and fantasy characters (in total; $M = 5.34$, $SD = 5.21$, girls; $M = 6.25$, $SD = 5.57$, boys; $M = 4.38$, $SD = 4.64$). Additionally, as in the results of children's responses, responses of mothers also showed that girls reported higher fear levels in all factors than boys. The details were presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4.

Means and Standard Deviations of Four Dependent Variables of MANOVA (for mothers' responses)

		interpersonal violence		war and suffering		fires and accidents		fantasy characters	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Girls	Age								
	8	10.31	3.89	6.81	2.54	6.31	4.14	6.89	5.98
	9	10.81	3.90	6.56	2.45	7.25	4.42	8.88	5.70
	10	9.10	4.24	6.62	2.97	5.95	3.69	4.90	5.49
	11	9.42	4.51	6.37	2.59	5.94	4.18	6.95	5.45
	12	11.08	3.73	6.58	2.23	6.33	3.26	4.25	3.77
	13	8.45	3.83	6.36	2.25	5.82	3.79	5.09	6.12
	Total	9.83	4.07	6.56	2.51	6.26	3.89	6.25	5.57
Boys	Age								
	8	8.64	2.47	6.57	1.79	4.93	3.87	4.07	3.79
	9	8.57	4.08	6.62	2.89	6.81	3.30	6.19	5.04
	10	6.69	4.63	5.81	2.61	4.75	3.86	5.25	5.21
	11	8.65	4.24	5.94	2.63	5.82	3.80	3.59	4.80
	12	6.45	4.32	6.73	2.05	5.91	3.81	2.91	3.48
	13	8.00	4.79	5.75	2.56	5.67	3.58	2.92	4.32
	Total	7.93	4.13	6.24	2.47	5.71	3.65	4.38	4.64

Table 4.4. (continued)

Means and Standard Deviations of Four Dependent Variables of MANOVA (for mothers' responses)

Total	Age								
	8	9.53	3.36	6.70	2.18	5.67	4.01	5.57	5.19
	9	9.54	4.11	6.59	2.67	7.00	3.77	7.35	5.43
	10	8.05	4.52	6.27	2.82	5.43	3.76	5.05	5.30
	11	9.06	4.34	6.17	2.58	5.89	3.95	5.36	5.35
	12	8.87	4.59	6.65	2.10	6.13	3.45	3.60	3.61
	13	8.22	4.26	6.04	2.38	5.76	3.60	3.96	5.25
	Total	8.90	4.20	6.40	2.49	5.99	3.77	5.34	5.21

4.4. Threatful Parts of News

*RQ 4: According to mothers what are the **threatful parts of news** for children?*

In order to examine the threatful parts of TV news, the question of “What parts of news are threatful for your child?” was posed to mothers and their responses categorizes were *visual images*, *sounds* and *content* of the news. According to the frequency table of threatful parts of TV news for children, mothers reported that *very frighten* fearful parts of the news for children were the images of human beings or animals (e.g. dead or injured human beings and animals) ($n=73$, 39.2%) and sounds of human beings and animals (e.g. crying or screaming sounds of human beings or animals) ($n=66$, 35.5%). Mothers reported other threatful parts of news for children were sounds of things or events such as gun burst, explosion of a bomb, and sound of an ambulance ($n=44$, 23.7%), and the contents of the news such as “our country also under threat”, ”if it is true, two years later there can be a big earthquake” ($n=42$, 22.6%) (see Table 4.5. for details.)

Table 4.5.

Frequency Table of Threatful Parts of News for Children

	Never Frighten		Somewhat Frighten		Very Frighten	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Visual images						
Images of things or events	48	25.8	115	61.8	23	12.4
Images of human beings or animals	17	9.1	96	51.6	73	39.2
Sounds						
Sounds of things or events	60	32.3	82	44.1	44	23.7
Sounds of human beings or animals	32	17.2	88	47.3	66	35.5
Content						
Contents of the news	52	28	92	49.5	42	22.6

4.5. Behavioral Manifestations

*RQ 5: What are the **behavioral manifestations** of children as reactions to TV news coverage?*

In order to answer the research question 5, the question of “Has your child experienced any of the following reactions to coverage of TV news? Put ticks that s/he has experienced.” was posed to mothers by mother survey. To reach the results, the frequency tables were examined. According to results, mothers reported that girls mostly manifested difficulty sleeping ($n=46$, 48.4%), while boys mostly acting

irritably ($n=50$, 54.9%) as a reaction to TV news. Other most frequently observed behaviors of girls reported by mothers were obsessive thoughts about events in TV news ($n=45$, 47.4%), and nightmares ($n=44$, 46.3%). On the other hand, mothers frequently reported that boys manifested obsessive thoughts about events in TV news ($n=47$, 51.6%) similar with girls and also acted nervous ($n=47$, 51.6%). Both for girls and boys the least reported behavior by mothers was an upset stomach ($n=4$, 4.2%, $n=6$, 6.2%). The details were presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6.

Frequency Table of Behavioral Manifestations of Children

Behavioral Manifestations	Girls		Boys	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
difficulty sleeping	46	48.4	31	34.1
obsessive thoughts about events in TV news	45	47.4	47	51.6
nightmares	44	46.3	38	41.8
acting nervous	42	44.2	47	51.6
acting irritably	42	44.2	50	54.9
a desire to sleep with parent	37	38.9	33	36.3
acting withdrawn	32	33.7	33	36.3
crying	25	26.3	12	13.2
nail biting	25	26.3	27	29.7
acting aggressive	11	11.6	25	27.5
difficulty eating	10	10.5	14	15.4
drawing pictures about events watched on TV news	10	10.5	11	12.1
an upset stomach	4	4.2	6	6.6

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. Discussion of the Findings

As outlined above, this study examined the fear responses of children to the TV news. The examination of the research questions has started with the evaluating whether reports of mothers and their children were consistent. It was found that according to responses of both mothers and children, children had average level of TV news-related fears. However, while some researchers for example Muris, Merckelbach, Ollendick, King, and Bogie (2001); and Mahat and Scoloveno (2003) suggested that mothers underestimate fears of their children, the results of this study showed that mothers overestimate their children's fears. Perceptions of mothers and reports of children about the level of TV induced fright of children were not consistent according to findings of the present study. The small difference between two responses (mothers and children) of four factors (interpersonal violence, war and suffering, fires and accidents, and fantasy characters) was found. As mentioned above, in all factors, mothers reported higher level of fear than children responded. The findings may be explained by protective attitude of Turkish mothers. Because of their protective attitude, mothers may magnify their children's fears while responding the questions.

Partially supporting the previous findings, the result of the current study showed that “children who get hurt”, “children who are kidnapped”, “animals who get hurt”, “starving children in poor countries”, “somebody who gets murdered”, “car accidents”, “houses or buildings on fire”, “ghosts”, and “blood” are the most common fearful coverages of TV news. According to responses of children, “air crashes” and “people who shoot each other”; and according to responses of mothers, “people who fight with knives” were also common fearful coverages of TV news. Different from this study, in the literature, common fears listed at times in a general form rather than common fearful coverages of TV news. Hall (1897) mentioned that thunderstorms, darkness, death, animals, disease and ghosts were the fears of 19th century. Contemporary fear list was mentioned by Owen (1998) as gunshots, street drugs, being burned, and drive-by shootings. Burnham (2009) suggested that exposing to global events (e.g., disasters, wars, diseases, etc.), television/media and societal changes may cause many contemporary fears appear (Burnham, 2009). Therefore, aforementioned common TV news related fears explored by this study also may be interpreted as contemporary television news related fears of 2011. Briefly, according to results of this study, the contemporary frightful coverage of television news of 2011 may be listed as the news coverages of; “children who get hurt”, “children who are kidnapped”, “animals who get hurt”, “starving children in poor countries”, “somebody who gets murdered”, “car accidents”, “houses or buildings on fire”, “ghosts”, and “blood”, “air crashes”, “people who shoot each other” and “people who fight with knives”.

In the literature, children's fears were investigated mostly regarding gender and age together. Related with gender, majority of the study findings supported that girls always report more and higher levels of fears than boys (e.g. Burkhardt & Loxton, 2008; Burnham, 2005; Ollendick, King, & Muris, 2002; Ollendick, Yule & Ollier, 1991). Only Svensson and Öst (1999) found no gender effect on fear level. In the study of Meltzer, Vostanis, Dogra, Doos, Ford, and Goodman (2008), it was reported that girls showed more fears of animals, blood, injections or injury, elements in the natural environment, and specific types of people than boys. Similar with the findings in the literature, the current study results showed that according to reports of both children and mothers, girls took higher fear level scores than boys. This result may be explained by the nature of girls and boys. As it is known girls tend to share and show their emotions more than boys. Thus, they may also show their fears much more than boys.

Unlike findings of gender and fear studies, the findings of age and fear studies were inconsistent. For example, Scherer and Nakamura (1968) and Ollendick (1983) were found no age difference at the end of their studies; however, Gullone and King (1993) mentioned that younger children report higher intense and greater number of fears than older ones. Meltzer, Vostanis, Dogra, Doos, Ford and Goodman (2008) suggested that 11 to 16 years old children experienced more fears of diseases and enclosed places, and 5-10 years old children showed more fears of dark, the natural environment, loud noises, imaginary or supernatural beings, and specific types of

people (e.g. people with beards or crash helmets). As well as age difference among fears of children, age difference among TV news related fears of children may also be said. Valkenburg, Cantor, and Peeters (2000) reported that younger children experienced more television induced fright than older children. Fears of “interpersonal violence”, “fires and accidents”, and “fantasy characters” decreased with age, whereas “war and suffering” did not show any change, either decline or increase. There is no consistency among the studies indicated above and the current study. This study results exhibited that the highest level of fear was related with “interpersonal violence” and unlike the study of Valkenburg, Cantor, and Peeters (2000), there was no decrease with age increasing. Additionally, this study did not support the finding of younger children experienced more television induced fright than older children. There was no particular line related with decreasing and increasing of fear by age decreasing and increasing in results of current study. The reason may be the age range of participants. The range (8-13) may be insufficient to examine the difference between fears of children and age.

Studies investigated threatful parts of television news were limited in the literature. Walma van der Molen, Valkenburg, and Peeters, (2002) reported that shocking pictures about events (e.g., wars, natural disasters), graphics, and voices are used so much in television news. Therefore, noticeable properties of frightful news content affect younger children in a strong way. Natural disasters and such disturbing visual images (injured people or planes dropping bombs) were more fearful for young children where as news stories contained more abstract threats such as interpersonal

violence, terrorism and nuclear war was fearful much more for older ones because older children's comprehension abilities are more enhanced, and abstract threats (e.g., nuclear war, environmental problems) make them more fearful than younger children (Cantor, Mares, & Oliver, 1993; Cantor & Nathanson, 1996; Smith & Moyer-Guse, 2006). Walma van der Molen, Valkenburg, and Peeters (2002) additionally mentioned that as well as physical results (blood or death bodies), emotional consequences (people screaming or crying) in harmful content of news may seriously affect children. These harmful results of violence presented in news may increase fear reactions of children especially when children empathize with the victims. The results of this study were consistent with the previous ones. It was found that the most fearful parts of television news were the images of human beings or animals (e.g. dead or injured human beings and animals) for children. It was respectively reported by mothers that children are also frightened of sounds of human beings and animals (e.g. crying or screaming sounds of human beings or animals); sounds of things or events such as gun burst, explosion of a bomb, and sound of an ambulance; and the contents of the news such as "our country also under threat", "if it is true, two years later there can be a big earthquake". As seen from the results, although the age group (8-13 years old) covers formal operational stage of Piaget and children may differentiate fantasy from reality through at the end of these age group; bad images have higher negative effects on children rather than sounds and content. This may occur because of clearness and concreteness of images and children's difficulties in drawing inferences from verbally presented information.

Like threatful parts of television news related studies, studies about behavioral manifestations of children as reactions to television news coverage is limited in the literature. In the study of Muris, Merckelbach, and Collaris (1997), children reported that when they were confronted with fear, they show physical symptoms, and avoidance behavior and they got negative thoughts. About the fearful situations or things that children recently watch on television, they reported that they have dreams after watching such things on television (Bauer, 1976). Walma van der Molen (2004) suggested that when children watch violent and fearful content of television news, they may experience sleep disturbances and nightmares in addition to stress, frights, and worries. Furthermore, violence in news, especially the used arousing pictures of weapons and actually occurring violence may cause children show or imitate aggressive behaviors. Behavior manifestations of children as a reaction to TV news content was listed by Smith and Moyer-Guse (2006) as difficulty sleeping, nightmares, acting nervous, crying, acting withdrawn, acting aggressive, acting irritable, a desire to sleep with parent, nail biting, difficulty eating, an upset stomach, obsessive thoughts about the war, obsessive discussions about the war, and drawing pictures about the war. The results of the present study were similar with aforementioned results of previous studies, but mostly parallel with the study mentioned lastly that according to responses of mothers, children show all of those behaviors as reactions to television news; however, gender was related with the reactions of children. Results showed that girls mostly manifested difficulty sleeping where as boys mostly acted irritably as a reaction to TV news. Other most frequently observed behaviors of girls were obsessive thoughts about events in TV news, and

nightmares. On the other hand, boys manifested obsessive thoughts about events in TV news similar with girls and also acted nervous. Both for girls and boys the least reported behavior by mothers was an upset stomach. The findings showed that boys reacted actively (e.g., acting irritably and nervous) while reactions of girls were passive (e.g., difficulty sleeping and nightmares). The reason may be the difference between the natures of boys and girls.

5.2. Implications of the Findings

Considering the findings of the current study, several important implications can be drawn for practice. The findings of the present study would be helpful to school counselors, educators, and parents and will spread knowledge for future research studies. As previously mentioned, fear is one of the basic emotions and developmentally normal reaction; however, it may prevent learning and problem solving abilities in some cases. Children acquire fear through three pathways; modeling, conditioning, and negative information transmission. In this study, it is found that television news is very important way of negative information transmission and television news are related with children's fears.

Although children do not choose to watch TV news consciously, they expose to TV news more than adults assume. The results of current study provided evidence for children's television related fears and inconsistency between children's reactions and parents responses about children's television news related fears. According to the

results, parents magnified their children's TV news related fears; however, they did not have exact idea about what coverage of news is fearful for their children. Results also exhibited that children show some negative behaviors as reactions to television news coverage frightful for them. At this point, especially parents, teachers and school counselors have an important role to observe, to inform, to help and to guide children.

The school counselors have a great responsibility in both prevention and intervention area. School counselors may inform parents and also children about negative parts and effects of television news, for example about „what parts of news are more fearful for children’, „what types of news content are more fearful for children’, „how their gender and age may affect the comprehension of children about TV news coverage’, ‘what behaviors may be related with TV news induced fears’, in order to help children and parents to prevent negative effects of television news.

Since children's and also parents' TV news watching habits can not be observed at school, parents' involvement into the process is important, they can take responsibility. Educational seminars to teach prevention strategies for educators and parents can be developed by counselors. Children can be educated to control their fears or TV news watching habits for preventing them to become having anxiety or phobias by the help of workshops, drama sections or seminars in school.

Additionally, children news programs may be developed by programmers. News not necessary to show children in detail as in adult news programs in Turkey. Children

news programs may be shorter, for example 15 minutes, and cover news in an understandable way for children. Children may be the newscasters and reporters of children TV news programs.

5.3. Recommendations for Future Research

This study requires some recommendations for future research. Some variables such as socioeconomic status, culture, responses to or sharing of television news can be added for the future research. In the current study, these variables were not measured but only socioeconomic status was accepted as the theoretical base. Examining these variables may shed light on the difference between fearful coverages of television news for children in different characteristics.

In addition, this study results showed that mothers overestimate television news related fears of their children, whereas mothers underestimated their children's fears according to the results of previous studies mentioned in the literature part. Studying on television news induced fear of children and culture relationship may also explain this difference of mothers' opinions clearly.

Moreover, Television Induced Fright Scale (TIFS) was adapted to Turkish in present study. Regarding that they were unstandardized, for eliminating this limitation, the validity and reliability assessments of TIFS were performed for the present data. The scale was used for 8-13 years olds lived in the cities of Ankara, Konya, and

Yeniçağa-Bolu in the current study. However, the TIFS needs to be tested with diverse samples; for example with other age groups, and with children and mothers live in other cities. Lastly, in this study, negative information transmission pathway of Rachman's three pathway theory was covered. In the future studies, other two pathways (conditioning and modeling) of Rachman's three pathway theory may be examined.

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APPENDIX A

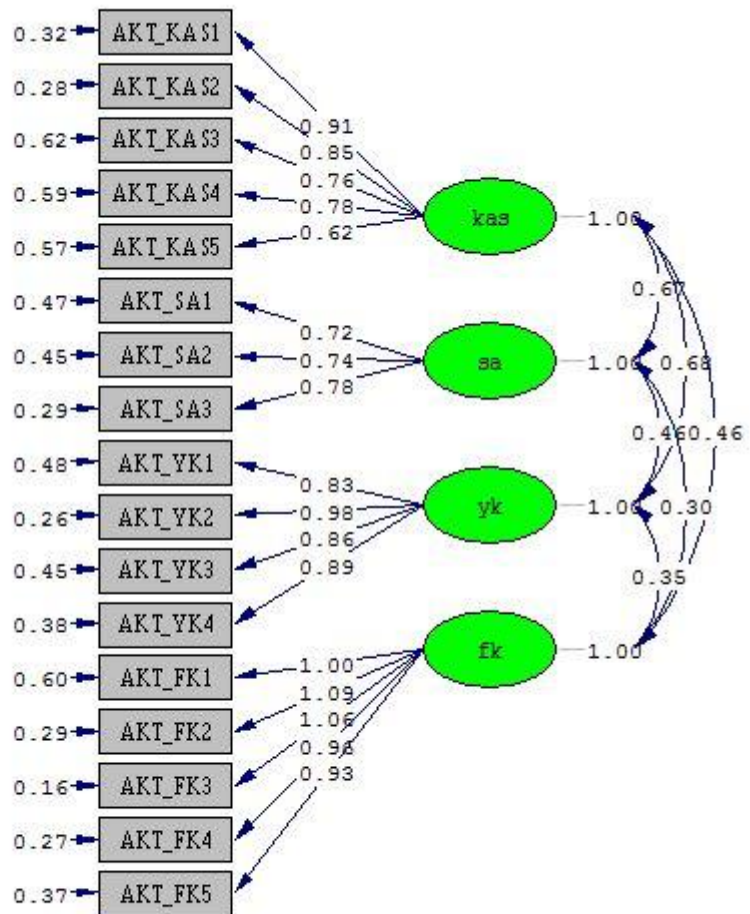
Televizyon Kaynaklı Korku Ölçeği (örnek maddeler) Television Induced Fright Scale (sample items)

Televizyon haberlerini izlerken çocuğunuzgörünce ne sıklıkla korkar?				
	Hiç	Çok Az	Bazen	Sık Sık
<i>Kişiler Arası Şiddet</i>				
Bıçaklarla dövüşen insanlar/Adam bıçaklama				
Kaçırılan çocuklar				
<i>Savaş ve Acı</i>				
Fakir ülkelerde açlık çeken çocuklar				
Başka ülkelerdeki savaşlar				
<i>Yangınlar ve Kazalar</i>				
Yanan evler ya da binalar				
Araba(otomobil kazaları)/Trafik kazaları				
<i>Fantezi Karakterler</i>				
Hayaletler				
Uzaylılar (Yaratıklar)				

APPENDIX B

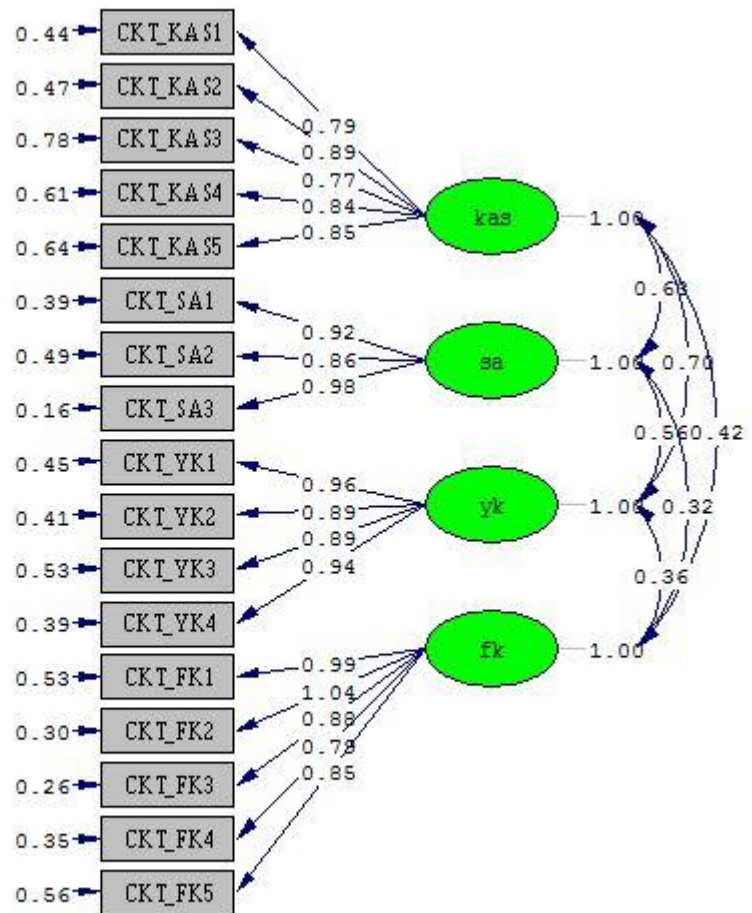
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Figures

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Television Induced Fright Scale
(mothers' responses of TIFS)



Chi-Square=161.71, df=113, P-value=0.00182, RMSEA=0.048

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Television Induced Fright Scale
(children's responses of TIFS)



Chi-Square=197.99, df=113, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.064

APPENDIX C

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü

Enformatik Enstitüsü

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü

YAZARIN

Soyadı :

Adı :

Bölümü :

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) :

TEZİN TÜRÜ :

Yüksek Lisans

Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.

2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.

3. Tezinden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: