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THE EXPERIMENTAL USE OF TELEVISION

IN A DEVELOPING COUNTRY:

WIDENING SOCIAL RECRUITMENT INTO

THE NURSING PROFESSION IN BAHRAIN

Thesis for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (Ph.D)

in the

LONDON SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND POLITICAL SCIENCE

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C O N T E N T S

A B S T R A C T

This research is concerned with the effects of mass media
campaigns. Specifically it explores the effects of a
specially designed persuasive campaign on television in
Bahrain, with the object of increasing the number of female
recruits into the nursing profession in that country. The
research also seeks to make theoretical and more general
contributions to the design of effective media campaigns.

The study was done at the instigation of the Ministry of
Health in Bahrain. After a preliminary review of the
literature, which showed up the many controversies in the
field of persuasion, the first stage of the study explored
the difficulties and resistances experienced by Bahraini
girls who might wish to enrol in the School of Nursing. A
series of television programmes was then designed specific-
ally to counteract these resistances. These programmes
were broadcast by Bahraini television at peak viewing times
on three successive weeks and their effects were assessed
among 3,226 pupils between the ages of 13 and 16 years,
comprising virtually all the potential candidates for the
Nursing School for the following year.

The design used was a before-and-after field experiment
in a naturalistic setting comprising:

      (a)   two experimental groups who had seen
             either some or all of the programmes,

and (b)   a control group who did not watch any
             of the special programmes.

The pupils were all given a number of scales and questionn-
aires both before and after the programmes were broadcast
and a special analysis was carried out between comparable
sub-samples.

The results showed, broadly speaking, that the pro-
grammes had been successful in overcoming the earlier
resistances, more so among the girls who had seen all
the programmes. These girls also showed a significant
increase in their knowledge about nursing and more fav-
ourable attitudes towards nursing as a profession.
Information from the School of Nursing indicated a rise
in the number of applicants and it was claimed that
applicants were of an improved academic standard.

Previous campaigns of this kind in Bahrain have been un-
successful. The present study shows that if the programmes
are carefully planned to counteract audience resistance
which had been previously determined, positive results can
be obtained. The study also shows that it is feasible even
in a developing country, to conduct a naturalistic yet well
controlled field experiment.

D E D I C A T I O N

TO MY FATHER AND MOTHER
WITH
GRATITUDE FOR EVERYTHING

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Mass communications have become an important concern of
several disciplines, which makes research in this field
very broad and diverse. The present study deals with
only one aspect of mass communication research: the area
of overlap between mass communications and information &
persuasion. Whilst most of the research in this field is
of an emperical nature, this study also attempts to exam-
ine some of the available theories dealing with the effects
and effectiveness of mass communication and to discuss the
research designs used to measure the effectiveness of par-
ticular programmes (campaigns).

Before discussing the objectives of this research, it is
essential to explain the setting in which it took place.

Bahrain is an archipelago of islands in the Arabian Gulf.
(The basic statistics can be found in Appendix Q). It is
a sovereign independent Arab state. Although its major
source of income is still petroleum, Bahrain's reserves
are extremely small compared to its neighbours, and there-
fore the government's policy has been working towards
diversification of economic sources.

Bahrain's strategic geographical position, its early wealth
(flourishing pearl industry before the discovery of oil in
the 1930's), and its settled society (no nomads) has made
it a centre of trade and influence from the outside world.
These influences made Bahraini society as a whole cosmop-
olitan and sophisticated relative to the area. Moreover,
as formal education had started in Bahrain as early as 1919
for men and 1928 for women, the majority of its middle aged
and younger generations are literate. Over the last two
decades, the government's political, social, economic and

cultural openness has helped create diverse job opportun-
ities for the young and educated people of the country.

Although the percentage of women in the country's work-
force is small, the Bahraini women have shown an active
interest and participation in the job opportunities avail-
able.

Since the beginning of education for women, they have been
participating in the teaching and education sphere. In
the late 1950's, the Bahraini women joined the medical
services and later the secretarial core of the major oil
companies. With the move of banks, foreign businesses,
large companies, hotels etc., to the Gulf during the past
decade, all those avenues have become open opportunities for
work for both men and women.

Although expatriates still account for a large percentage
of the island's work force in the private sector, the
government's planning over the past decade has been to
train Bahraini men and women eventually to replace the
expatriates in both the private and public sectors.

To achieve future employment stability, a transitional
period was allocated to facilitate this gradual replacement
process. Although the country was not short of Bahrainis
with general education, it was the technical and specialised
professional spheres which needed emphasis.

The Ministry of Interior and Social Services installed a
Vocational Guidance Department (advised by consultants from
the United Nations) to help facilitate this transition.
An abstract of some of the points in the directive of the
Vocational Guidance Programme, which was being applied in
its experimental stages, will help to clarify the setting
of the study.

The directive basically called for promoting general
awareness of the contributions made by the various
sectors of the economy, specifically those which trad-
itionally had enjoyed little prestige. Its aim was to
start by drawing the attention of young people to the
importance of general education, and more specifically
to vocational and technical education, as they reflect
the existing employment prospects with respect to on-
going economic development. Interest, the right of
freedom of choice, fair promotion opportunities and the
right to education were stressed. However, emphasis
was put on help in personal decision-making, especially
to those groups which need assistance in overcoming
traditional restrictions in their choice of education
and occupation. In this culture, some of the typical
traditionally resisted jobs are those involving service
or manual work versus, for example, a desk job. Full
use was to be made of all available facilities, specifi-
cally the mass media, to fulfil these objectives.
(Department of Vocational Guidance, Ministry of Work and
Social Services, Bahrain, 1975).

The present research started as an off-shoot of this
experimental programme. It aimed to study the problems
facing the nursing vocation which, at the time, was
short of new entrants. Although the Nursing School has
been entered by Bahraini pupils since 1959, the number
of applicants has always been relatively low, and there-
fore the number of expatriates working in this sector
quite high.

Pilot work indicated that this occupation traditionally
enjoyed low prestige when compared to some other jobs,
as it was perceived as a service job. Therefore, the
objective was to try and modify this image and, if
possible, raise the number of recruits wanting to join
it. Though the campaign was funded by several govern-
ment ministries, the procedure was basically planned

according to the directive of the vocational guidance
programmes.

More specifically, the study encompassed two aspects:
a practical objective and a theoretical one.

A. THE PRACTICAL OBJECTIVE

The Kanoo Nursing School, which belongs to the Ministry
of Health in Bahrain, instigated the need for this study.
They reported that ever since the School opened in 1959,
they did have a small number of Bahraini applicants who
chose nursing as a vocation and that the increase in
this level over the past years has been relatively slow.
They also claimed that there was quite a large number of
drop-outs each year. Moreover, the majority of those
who did apply were, as they put it, "low calibre pupils",
that is, of an academic background that was not good
enough. As a result of this situation, they wanted
thorough research to be undertaken to find out the reasons
for the resistances to this job in order to do something
to remedy the problem. In short, their objectives were
to promote a larger number of recruits for the coming
years, fewer drop-outs and, to a certain extent, a better
"calibre" of pupils.

The Nursing School has attempted at various intervals dur-
ing the past few years to get through to the potential
candidates and to persuade more of them to join this
occupation. They have sent several qualified nurses to
different schools to try to inform the pupils of the
prospects of this vocation. These role-model attempts
have not been very successful. (There were several
problems involved regarding those interpersonal communi-
cations, which will be carefully examined later in this
text.) Moreover, during the last couple of years, the
Nursing School, in collaboration with the local television

broadcasting station (which belongs to the Ministry of Information) has gone further in its attempt to draw recruits by putting on the air some documentary pro-grammes and interviews. However, it was claimed that these programmes were not very effective.

In most cases the designing of such television campaigns was done by a producer and some television technicians, without preliminary research into the problems involved. The true effectiveness of those programmes cannot be assessed, as no evaluation study was carried out. How-ever, as will be explained later in detail, a television programme intended to persuade which is preceded by thorough research and planning has a better chance of success than one that has not been based on a thorough examination of the true problem, the predispositions of audiences, and other social psychological factors involved. See for example, Belson (1967) and Mendelson (1973).

It was therefore decided to carry out such research, to find out the reasons for the resistances of the pupils to this vocation and to design a campaign (television was chosen in this case) to counteract those resistances. This time, the communication experts would work in collaboration with the researcher and base the programme on the findings of the study.

B. THE THEORETICAL OBJECTIVE

One of the most controversial fields in mass media
research is the design of specific television infor-
mation programmes (campaigns) and the evaluation of
their effectiveness. The basic question usually asked
is:

> "Are specifically designed television programmes
> actually effective in inducing modification of
> attitude or behaviour?"

Although much research has attempted to answer this
question, the findings are not all conclusive. This
research explores the problems, limitations - as well
as vast possibilities - available for designing and
evaluating television campaigns.

One of the main difficulties of this kind of evaluation
research is the problem of carrying it out in a natural-
istic yet controlled setting. The researcher, in this
case, found a perfect opportunity to look back over the
work done in this field, to do a critical review of the
situation and to apply the findings to the practical
side of the problem in designing a framework that would
best explain the problems involved, and their possible
solutions.

The theoretical aspect of the study thus involved an
attempt to review the published research on the effective-
ness of campaigns, with specific reference to television,
and to analyse the reasons for the failures, or misinter-
preted failures, as well as for the successes of a number
of those programmes. The subjects looked into were
mainly in the applied fields of advertising campaigns,
safety research campaigns, election campaigns, health
campaigns and recruitment campaigns. All were intended
to modify knowledge, attitudes and/or behaviour in some

specific way, but the ones chosen were those with pre-planned specific designs to evaluate the effectiveness of the campaigns or programmes produced.

The research also involved a general review of the psychological and sociological theories of mass communication effectiveness and tried to relate them to the understanding of the reasons for choosing specific information and persuasion techniques, models and strategies.

CHAPTER II

THE PROCESS AND EFFECTS OF MASS COMMUNICATIONS

A.   THE PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION

Mass communications, in general, can be argued to be an
extension of the basic communication process, (Francois,
1977; Schramm, 1971).

A brief description of the basic process itself, to start
with, will help portray the complexity of the variables
involved in designing, measuring and evaluating the effect-
iveness of television campaigns.

It has to be specified here that the broadness of the topic
precludes the examination in detail of all aspects of the
process of communication. The purpose of this section is
basically to introduce the variables involved, so as to
build up towards the forthcoming chapters; therefore, the
topic has been dealt with selectively.

1.   DEFINITIONS

Agreeing on a working definition is the first step towards
improving our understanding of this complex phenomenon.

The word 'communication' itself has very broad implications.
There are more than forty disciplines which are directly
interested in the study of communication and the number is
still growing, (Francois, 1977).

Communication, in a different context, might be referring
to a diversity of scientific processes or technological
promotions, so it is important to emphasize that we would
be referring to "human communication" whenever the term
is used. The definitions as such would cover the meaning

reflected in the social sciences, specifically the psycho-
logical and sociological literature.

Communication has been broadly defined as the sharing of
experience and, to some extent, all living organisms can
be said to share experience. What makes human communi-
cations unique is man's superior ability to create and use
symbols. (Tubbs & Moss, 1977).

Human communication can be verbal or non-verbal, but in
all cases it comprises the use of signs and symbols.
The meaning existing in a communication situation can be
exchanged directly or indirectly (mediated), and the flow
has been portrayed as one-way, two-way or multi-directional.
However, some researchers have argued that the meaning
actually existed in the medium itself - "the medium is the
message." (McLuhan, 1967).

The sociologist, C.R. Wright (1959), defined communication
as "the process of transmitting meaning between individuals."
He added that:

> "communication is fundamental so far as all
> human society - primitive to modern - is
> founded on man's capacity to transmit his
> intentions, desires, feelings, knowledge and
> experience from person to person." (p. 11)

Berelson & Steiner (1964) also referred to communication as:

> "the transmission of information, ideas, emotions
> and skills etc. by the use of symbols - words,
> pictures, figures, graphs etc." (p. 527)

Both those definitions pointed to the function of communi-
cation as that of transmitting meaning. Transmission, it
is argued, usually conveys the notion of a one-way process

and communication involves a more complex flow.

Bar n lunds' (1962) description of communication attempts to clarify this complex flow.

> "Communication as I conceive it, is a word that
> describes the process of creating a meaning.
> Two words in this sentence are critical. They
> are 'create' and 'meaning'. Messages may be
> generated from the outside - by a speaker, a
> television screen, a scolding parent - but mean-
> ings are generated from within. This position
> parallels that of Berlo when he writes, 'communi-
> cation does not consist of the transmission of
> meaning. Meanings are not transmitted, or trans-
> ferrable. Only messages are transmittable and
> meanings are not in the message, they are in the
> message users.' Communication is a man's attempt
> to cope with his experience, his current mood,
> his emerging needs. For every person is a unique
> act of creation, involving dissimilar materials.
> But it is, within broad limits, assumed to be pre-
> dictable, or there could be no theory of communi-
> cation." (Bar n lund, 1962, p. 199).

This definition emphasizes the fact that communication is never a one-way process, but it comprises a more complex flow than the simple uni-dimensional one inferred from the definitions of Wright, Berelson & Steiner. What the receiver brings to a communication situation is as important as what the communicator is trying to put forth. Although 'meaning' as stressed by Berlo (1960) is "not transferrable", messages can be exchanged and interchanged in a communication situation.

Besides the function of exchanging information, knowledge and skills, which is found in the majority of definitions,

such as the Oxford English Dictionary, Webster's New
Twentieth Century Dictionary and others , communication
is described to have other inherent functions. One
other function is persuasion, as it is described by
Peterson, Jensen and Rivers.

> "Communication is all the ways in which one
> person influences another and, in turn, is
> influenced." (Peterson, Jensen & Rivers, 1965, p.14)

However, the detailed definition presented by Schramm
(1973) covers every aspect of human communication and best
explains what a communication process is about:

> "Human communication is something people do.
> It has no life of its own. There is no magic
> about it. There is no meaning in the message
> except what people put in it. When we study
> communication, therefore, we study people -
> relating to each other and to their groups,
> organizations and societies, influencing each
> other and being influenced, informing and being
> informed, teaching and being taught, entertain-
> ing and being entertained. To understand comm-
> unication, we have to understand how humans
> relate to each other."   (p.3)

Therefore, the meaning of communication in this context
would be used to reflect a process of human relationships.
Inference would not be one involving a one-way flow or a
two-way flow, but one of multi-directions. Emphasis will
not be concentrated on the participants only in their
direct relationship, but also on their surroundings and
the indirect influences of group membership, social norms
and culture. Attention will be directed to the fact that
the function of a communication is not only that of trans-
mitting knowledge to inform and teach, but also to entertain
and persuade, plus many other things.

II. CHANNELS

In simplified terms, the channels in the communication process can be described as the distinguishing ingredient between communication and mass communication; however, the communication situation (as it will be explained in this Chapter) is much more complex than this.

The word 'channel' is borrowed from certain scientific and technological spheres. In reference to human communication, Schramm (1973)[1] defined a channel as: "the ways the signs in a message are made available to a receiver", (p. 116). Rogers (1973) added that channels can be thought of as: "the paths or the vehicles that carry messages from an originating point to a destination", (p. 290).

Broadly, communication channels can be categorized as interpersonal communication channels and mass communication channels. Interpersonal communications can be described as a face-to-face interaction between two or more individuals and within visual and auditory presence. Mass communications usually involve the use of a mass media channel in the interaction process, the channel being a "mechanism to reach a wide and usually non-contagious audience", (Rogers, 1973, p. 290).

This channel can cover both the electronic and broadcasting media: the radio, television (motion pictures); and the print media: the newspapers, magazines, books, posters, pamphlets, etc.

Under the above categorization, a church sermon or a theatre play, for example, would be referred to as interpersonal communications, although they reach a large audience. On the other hand, an ordinary telephone conversation - although it involves an interposed channel - cannot be

regarded as a mass communication situation because it usually involves only two individuals at a time.

These two examples portray the complexity of the problem involved in drawing a line between mass and non-mass communications' situations. In the first example, although there was no interposed channel, it involved a large audience. In the second case, an interposed channel was used, but the participants were limited.

Therefore, besides the size of the audience and the use of a channel, other elements have to be clarified in attempting to distinguish between interpersonal and mass communications. Some scholars argued that it is vital to specify the motivation and activity of the parties involved, plus the channel characteristics.

In an attempt to clarify this distinction, Deutschman (1957) and many others suggested several classifications. However, Francois (1977) explained that the vital differences between interpersonal and mass communications lie in their inherent characteristics and functions. He said:

> "Interpersonal communication can be contrasted
> with and distinguished from mass communications
> on the basis of the following differences:
> personal vs. impersonal communicator, face-to-
> face communications compared to unknown audiences,
> immediate vs. delayed feedback and, in the case
> of mass communications, the transmission of 'to
> whom it may concern' messages by various media."
>
> (Francois, 1977, p. 17).

It is important to portray the distinguishing characteristics between interpersonal and mass communication as they play a central role in audience analysis and the designing of effective campaigns.

A comprehensive classification has been suggested by
Schramm (1973). He pointed out eight distinguishing
characteristics between interpersonal and mass comm-
unication channels.

1.   The Senses affected:

Face-to-face communication provides the opportunity to
stimulate all the senses, if required. When something
is interposed in a communication situation, some re-
striction is put on the use of the senses. For instance,
television and movies reach the eye and the ear, while
the radio and telephone reach the ear and print reaches
the eye (although the tactile sensing of the object may
be relevant).

Some would argue that it is more advantageous to reach
as many senses as possible, for the more the senses, the
more "complex" the information delivered. Therefore, a
face-to-face setting would deliver a more complete comm-
unication than an audiovisual channel which is in turn
better than a radio or print channel.

Against this advantage of face-to-face communication, one
must consider the special advantage of skillfully presented
mass media programmes, particularly in developing countries
where fewer people have efficient personal information
resources.

Moreover, is the assumption that the "more the senses" the
better the understanding an accepted fact? Many researchers
(especially those who worked on human perception) argued
that their evidence pointed out that the human perception
operates through one channel only and the sense organs
to the brain are a one-lane-road, and either audio or
visual information can pass but not at the same instant.
(Broadbent, 1958; and others).

There is further evidence that interference may occur

between sense channels when two or more channels are
stimulated at the same time, and so it may sometimes be
more effective to concentrate on a single channel. In
addition, there are individual differences in the situation
where a single channel is being used, because individuals
differ in their responsiveness to the different senses.

2. The Opportunity for Feedback

Face-to-face communication makes it possible to exchange
information quickly and effectively. As the inter-
personal group grows from a two-way setting to a larger
one, attention becomes diffused and a smaller proportion
of the available feedback is used by any single person.
When something is interposed, the feedback is attenuated.
Furthermore, when a mass medium is interposed, both the
speed and amount of feedback is restricted, and in actual
fact, the impersonal characteristics of the media organi-
zation discourages it.

3. The Amount of Receiver Control

Face-to-face communication makes it possible for the
participant to ask questions and steer the conversation
in accordance with preferred pace. A person reading print
can also set his own pace, repeat a passage, pause to
think over a point, etc. However, a listener to radio or
a viewer of television or films has no such control
except that of avoiding the communication altogether. The
control over the pace of a communication for better under-
standing is almost non-existent in the television, movies
and radio channels and is regarded as a drawback. This is
why better learning is still associated with a reading
text and print advertising is used to supplement elec-
tronic advertising.

4.   The type of message coding

In a face-to-face communication situation, a high prop-
portion of all the available information is non-verbal.
This is only slightly less true of television and movies,
still less true of radio and silent movies, and least
true of print. Therefore, some communication channels
are better transmitters of the silent language of culture,
gesture and body movement than others. A user of print
can abstract, but with an audiovisual channel, he usually
concretizes.

5.   The Multiplicative Power

Face-to-face communication can only be multiplied with
great effort. Mass media, on the other hand, have the
enormous ability to multiply a message and make it
available in many places. Mass media can overcome distance
and time and in developing regions, the audiovisual media
can also overleap the barriers of illiteracy.

This advantage of the media has to be compared to the
advantages of feedback of face-to-face communications,
and priorities for campaigns have to be set. A large
number of campaigners use a combination of both channels
to make use of the advantages of each.

6.   The Power of Message Preservation

Face-to-face communications are evanescent, they fade in
seconds. The electronic media has the same character-
istic if the message is not recorded. On the other hand,
the print media have the great advantage of being able to
preserve facts, ideas, pictures etc.

7.   The Power to Overcome Selectivity

It is obvious that it is easier to command and monopo-
lize attention through face-to-face communication than
through media channels, if all other things are equal.
For example, it is easier to change a television channel
than to tune out when somebody is in conversation with
you. As the interpersonal group grows larger, the
ability to be selective (doze off) becomes easier. It
is also easier to avoid reading an advertisement or news
item in a newspaper than avoid it completely when con-
fronted with it on radio or television, although one can
be selective in what one receives from it.

8.   The Power to Meet Specialized Needs

The media possess   the unequalled power to serve "common"
needs of society quickly and efficiently, like chief news
bulletins, weather broadcasts and sports results, etc.

However, informed individuals, books and magazines,
play a more important role in serving "specialized" needs,
like house repairs, science, geography, etc. Still, the
day when video casettes will accommodate for those
specialized needs is not far off.

Rogers (1973) summarized some of those distinguishing
characteristics in the following table:

Characteristics of Communication
Channels

Characteristics	Interpersonal Channels	Mass-Media Channels
1. Message flow	tends to be 2-way	tends to be one way
2. Communication content	face-to-face	interposed
3. Amount of feedback readily available	high	low
4. Ability to overcome selective processes (primarily selective exposure)	high	low
5. Speed to large audiences	relatively slow	relatively rapid
6. Possible effects	attitude formation & change	knowledge change

Taken from Rogers (1973) Table 1, p. 291

In discussing the effectiveness of an interpersonal versus mass mediated communication, one has to be cautious not to judge one to be better than the other, as the boundaries between them are not clear cut and their characteristics are, in many cases, complementary. The most important thing to note is that, with the knowledge of those characteristics, and clearly set objectives and priorities of a specific study, one can choose either channel or a combination of channel systems, weighing the advantages, disadvantages and role each can play in shaping a desired effect. Most campaigns aimed at teaching or persuading use a combination of media and personal channels to supplement and reinforce each other. (The theoretical conceptualizations of how those delivery systems work together to produce the final effect is discussed later in the text).

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bination of media and personal channels to supplement and
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final effect is discussed later in the text).

III. THE PROCESS AND THE COMMUNICATION SITUATION

Whether interpersonal or through the mass media, in its simplest form, the three principal ingredients in a communication process are a source, a message and a receiver. This can be represented as:-

$$S \xrightarrow{\hspace{2em} M \hspace{2em}} R$$

(where S stands for source, M for the message and R for the receiver).

Whitney (1975) added that as a communication act is never really without purpose, the source usually has an intention which, in turn, has an effect on the receiver, who responds or reacts if the communication process actually took place. This response posits another principal ingredient in the communication process called "feedback".

(purpose) S $\underset{\substack{\\ \text{Ch} \\ \text{f (reaction)}}}{\overset{M}{\longrightarrow}}$ R (effect)
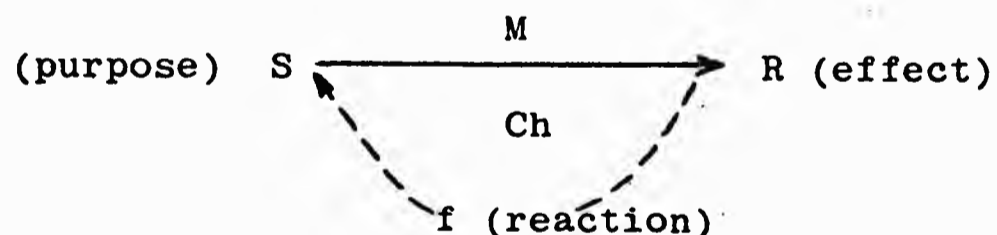
(Here, f stands for feedback and Ch for channel) Figure from Whitney (1975), p. 4.

As explained earlier, in the case of interpersonal communication, feedback is usually direct and sometimes immediate, while in mass communications the feedback is indirect, usually delayed.

Schramm (1971) explained the process further by stating that there is another kind of feedback that goes on in the process and that is the feedback from the message itself to the source, " the kind of information that comes back to the sender from seeing or hearing his own message is one kind

of feedback by means of which he can guide his further
communication and try to repair the damage, if any." (p.26)
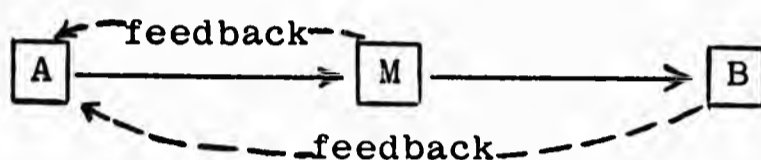
Figure from Schramm (1971), p. 26.
(Here A stands for the source and B for the recipient)

It has to be emphasized that these are extremely simplified
models of the communication process. The message in itself
is nothing but a set of symbols or signs that both evokes
and receives 'meaning' between the source and the receiver.
The 'meaning' of the message exists within the participant.
"It is both cognitive and emotional, connative as well as
denotative." (Schramm, 1971, p. 30). It represents the
response of a whole personality, cultural background and
resources to a message.

What the source tries to convey in a message may be far
different from what the receiver understands it to be. Those
differences are known as the "manifest content" of the
message; i.e. what the source intended it to be, and the
'latent content' of the message, i.e. what the receiver
understood it to be. (Francois, 1977)

The source attempts to encode meaning into the message which
is formulated according to his own background, experience
and orientation. On the other side, the receiver would
select, perceive and comprehend specific aspects of the
message according to his own background, experience and
orientation. Each participant relies on his own "frame of
reference" as put by Schramm, on which he perceives the
meaning in the message he is trying to encode or decode.
Schramm (1971) described this "frame of reference" as the
store of usable experience which the organism has proc-

cessed and organized and is the reality to which it responds.

It has to be further emphasized that the framework within which each participant is responding, is additionally influenced by "relevant" groups, whose beliefs and role patterns are internalized, as well as societal norms and restraints, which in themselves govern the acceptability of a specific response.

Moreover, there is the overall communication situation reflecting the physical surroundings of the communication and its type, i.e. whether it is a face-to-face situation or interposed, and whether it is a loving atmosphere or one of challenge and anger.

In the process of transmitting the message, there is another kind of obstacle that could occur, which is technically known as "noise". This noise has been categorized as mechanical or channel noise and semantic noise. Channel noise has been defined as any obstruction that occurs outside the message itself, either in the channel or the surroundings. Semantic noise has been regarded as a more serious kind of interference as it usually involves ambiguity in the message itself, which is one of the important ingredients in the communication process. A common example of semantic noise is language - for instance, when a Russian with very little grasp of the English language is trying to communicate with an Englishman. There are other categories of semantic noise, and they usually reflect problems in communication as a result of differences in education, socio-economic status, residency, occupation, age, interest etc. (Whitney, 1975). Another type of semantic noise, as described by Francois (1977), is the one generated by the "emotional charge that may be attached to words or gestures," (p. 42). This might reflect what is known as 'unacceptable' words that cannot be used in any medium. Francois added that over time, noise level may subside. Some words that were immediately excluded from a

message at some time are more tolerated nowadays.

The reason for discussing this noise problem in detail is
because it is regarded as one of the reasons why campaigns
may fail. Ways of avoiding those obstructions have been
developed. Briefly, regarding channel noise, besides
applying all the technological experience and facilities
to minimize interference in the channel, repetition (with
discretion) was generally considered as the most useful
solution. As for semantic noise, simplicity and common-
ality were quoted to be the most effective. (Whitney, 1975).

To overcome channel and semantic noise, the source of the
message has to clear up the atmosphere of the communication
situation and attempt to convey the message at the level
of understanding of the receiver. For example, a common
policy of commercial television (in order to hold the
largest number of viewers) is to present programmes struc-
tured in accordance with "the lowest common denominator" of
audience understanding intelligence and common interests.
In addition, some researchers further noted that the majority
of programmes are designed to be non-controversial and on
the neutral side.

To summarize the communication process, a simple model has been
developed that covers the ingredients and obstacles discussed.
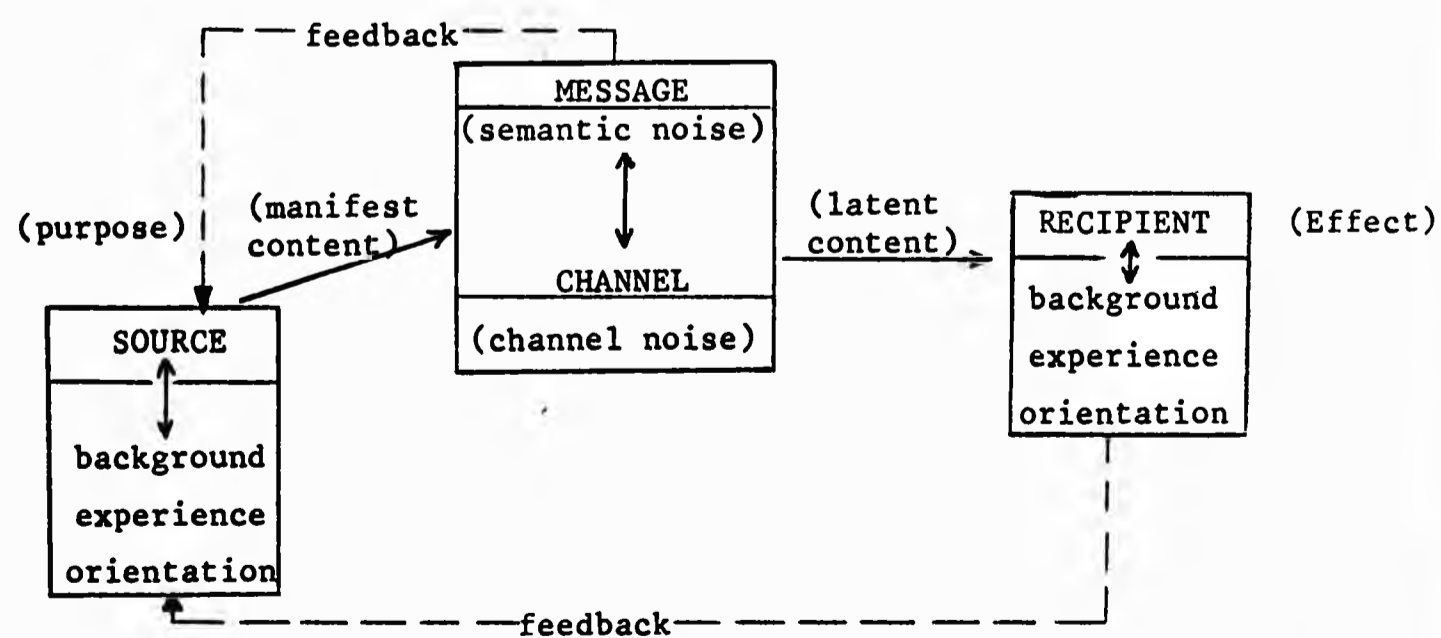
These four ingredients - source, message, channel and
recipient - are present in every communication situation.
As the situations become more and more complex, those
basic elements remain, although one might encounter more
than one source, more than one receiver (the first one
not necessarily being the intended target) , many messages
spread out over   time, and different, sometimes multiple,
channels being used. As the communication situations be-
come more complex, the models derived to explain those
situations become more complex.   It is not the intention
of this Chapter to go into details regarding those models,
more thorough analysis can be found in Berlo (1960);
Schramm (1971), Poole (1973), plus others.

Lasswell (1948) best described the communication process
in his famous formula:

"Who says what in which channel to whom with
what effect." (p. 37).

Widespread research has developed into fields of analyses
investigating each of those dimensions. As the emphasis
in this text is on "effects", it will become obvious in
the forthcoming Chapters how the interaction of all those
dimensions is an essential aspect of a communication sit-
uation.

Before discussing the elements of mass communication effects,
it is of importance to clarify our position regarding the
audience in a communication situation whose response
determines this effect.

IV. THE AUDIENCE

Nowadays, when attempting to design effective mass media campaigns, the greatest amount of concentration is put on the "to whom" category: the audiences of a mass communication process. This is not a long-lived tradition but has developed only within the last thirty years.

Between the two World Wars, the concept of the audience was quite different from that of today. Communication research then was known as "propaganda analysis" (Doob, 1935). The stress was put on the message, more specifically the "tricks of the trade" of the propagandist. The assumption then was that propaganda could be made very persuasive with clever use of "gimmicks" in the context of the communication. Such gimmicks as "name calling", "testimonial", "glittering generality", "plain folks", "card stacking", "band wagon", and others (Sears & Whitney, 1973).

This concept has changed, and as it will be explained, this change weighs heavily on our understanding of the communication process.

> "Whereas the relationship between a power source
> and the filament of a light bulb might be described
> adequately in terms of a connection channel to a
> passive receiver, the relationship between sender
> and receiver has proved to be immensely more
> complex." (Schramm 1973[1], p. 117).

This analogy helps explain why only until three decades ago the concept of the "recipient" in a communication process has been an inaccurate one. Social scientists in their attempts to make the study of man more objective by borrowing scientific concepts to explain behaviour, have sometimes overlooked the complexity of human behaviour.

The audience (which would be used here as the recipients of
a mass mediated communication) have been regarded as passive
"targets" to communication messages. They have been visual-
ized as inactive and defenceless, moulded by the messages
from the media that constantly impinged upon them. Schramm
(1973)[1] presented another analogy to describe this situation,
that of a marksman shooting a bullet from a gun into a
target which, if hit, would be knocked out. This theory
of communication effect, he claimed, has been called the
"bullet theory". This concept of the gullible masses has
probably evoked the frantic fears and skepticism of prop-
aganda between the wars.

It was only around the 1940's that this concept has been
questioned and the image of a passive audience began to be
gradually disproved, while that of an active audience,
deciding what to pay attention to and reacting differently
to the same communication, materialized. Bauer & Bauer
(1960) presented a detailed analysis of this transformation.
Moreover, Friedson (1953) criticized the notion of a "mass
society" responding to communications as "social atoms"
and brought forward the increasing awareness of the concept
of the people reacting to communications as members of social
groups.

At this point, the limitations of mass communications began
to be taken into account. To try and explain the reasons
behind the failure of the notion of a passive audience,
another hypothesis was developed: the category theory of
communication[*] This stated that the audiences could be
divided into categories in relation, for instance, to their
age, sex, socio-economic status, education, etc. These
categories composed clusters of people who held similar
attitudes, beliefs etc, and would thus respond to a comm-
unication in a certain way, as compared to another category
of people.

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* Schramm (1971)

The limitations of the direct effect of mass communications gave way further to concentration on the effects of inter-personal (informal) communications. A study in Ohio during the 1940's U.S. Presidential Election directed by Lazarsfeld found that people not only reacted according to their category classification, but to a reference group norm which dictated their behaviour. This showed that the influence from the media was not one-way but was mediated by "opinion leaders" and reference groups. The two-step flow of communication came into existence. (Lazarsfeld & Merton, 1948; Berelson, Lazarsfeld & McPhee, 1954; Katz & Lazarsfeld, 1955; Katz, 1957).

The two-step flow further gave way to a more complex multi-step model positing a more extensive interaction process among individuals, some of whom act as opinion leaders at some times, and as information processors at others. Sub-sequently, the return to the direct effect model of mass communications regained status with respect only to the processing of information. (Rogers, 1973).

Therefore, the role of the audience in the communication process has changed drastically over the last thirty years. No matter what model is adopted, what almost everybody agrees upon is that the audience can no longer be regarded as completely passive, but basically they are seen as "exercising a mediating role in which it can stop, deflect or modify the intent of the communicator." (Bauer, 1973, p. 143).

It is with this concept in mind that the effects of mass communications will be explained.

B.   EFFECTS OF MASS COMMUNICATIONS

The term 'effects', in a general sense, will be used to
describe all the possible consequences of a communication
process.

The assumption that most communications are produced with
the intent to have an effect (of some type) is implicit
in most approaches to communication studies. (McGuire,
1973; Robert, 1971; Martin, 1971).

When the question is asked: What are the effects of mass
communications?. several points have to be re-emphasized
before attempting to present an answer.

1.   The audiences of a communication process are not
     passive targets, but are active participants in the
     communication situation.

2.   The communication situation is not one-way, but
     involves besides what the message brings to the
     audience, also what the audience bring to a communi-
     cation situation.

3.   The characteristics of a mass communication situation
     have to be kept in mind, especially when compared to
     interpersonal communications. In a mass communication
     situation:
     (a)   the source receives very little feedback,
             if any, from his recipients;
     (b)   the heterogeneity and size of the mass
             audience presents the problem of a diversity
             of frames-of-reference, values, needs,
             habits, capabilities, etc., which is reflected
             by the enormous possibilities of reponses
             and interpretations of the mass communicated
             message;

(c)   there exists the problem of selection due
         to the inability to enforce attention when
         compared to a face-to-face situation.

(For the purposes of this study, the term 'mass communication'
will be used to refer to the process of a communication
utilizing a mass media channel. These channels will include:
the print media of newspapers, magazines and books, the
broadcast media of radio and television, plus the movies.)

I.   DIMENSIONS OF MASS COMMUNICATION EFFECTS

There are a number of ways and approaches in which mass
communication effects can be studied. Different scholars
use different terminology in categorizing those approaches
or perspectives; however, they are all, more or less, the
same. It is vital to examine briefly the different
approaches so as to clarify where the stress of this study
has been placed.

a)   The Methodological Dimension of Effects

         Some mass communication effects are studied on the
         basis of experimental studies, others reflect non-
         experimental approaches. In experimental studies,
         the investigator is able to manipulate some variables
         which he is studying as mediators of communication
         effects, while controlling for all other variables.
         For example, the investigator might manipulate
         message content by presenting one group of people
         with a one-sided argued message, and another group
         with a two-sided argued message. Besides making sure
         that the groups are selected on a random basis, the
         investigator would control all the other variables
         that might affect the communication situation for

both groups. Examples of studies using this approach
are Carl Hovland and his colleagues' (1948) work on
persuasive communications; Albert Siegel's (1956,
1958) work on child development and television.

In non-experimental studies, the investigator would
not be concerned with how a particular variable in-
fluences a specific effect, but, given all the possible
factors varying freely, how would they - or could they -
produce a given effect? Measuring the audiences'
characteristics, their response to a particular message
and the communication situation in which the message
could have been received, the investigator attempts to
infer the impact of a communication by relating the
various audience and situational characteristics to the
effects which occur after the communication. Examples
of studies using this approach are information and
persuasion campaigns in the different political, adver-
tising and social development spheres, as well as the
research on long-range effects of television on children
etc.

b)   The Source Dimension of Effects

Another important dimension, or approach, in which
mass communication effects are studied is related to
the source of the stimulus, or - as put by Weiss (1969)-
"the agent of the effect". The question that can be
asked with respect to this dimension is: What is the
source of the effect we are talking about? This source
can vary from the global to the very specific. For
example, we can talk about the effects of the media in
relation to their societal functions or the effects of
a specific persuasive message put in a specific medium.
It is confusing to discuss the effects of mass communi-
cations without specifying the level of analysis one

is concerned with. Diverse theories, formulations,
experimental validations, etc., have developed around
each level of analysis. Although in some respects,
the generalizations from those empirical validations
are wholly inclusive, there are variations of effects
related to each level. The investigator, by specifying
the explicit intention of a communication, makes
generalizations and predictions about the effects more
clear and useful for other researchers.

In general, the source dimension of effects can cover
two categories which, in themselves, involve several
levels of analysis:

i)   The Medium Category:

Effect here is attributed to the simple existence and
availability of the medium as a whole. Basically,
the majority of work in this area is carried in some
developing countries, where the media are just being
introduced. Studies about the relationship of the
availability of the media to national development,
etc., form the basis of this analysis. (UNESCO, 1970;
Schramm 1954, 1964). Research in industrial countries
in relation to this dimension is more specific. Some
investigators concentrate upon the change of time
allocated to other behaviour characteristics as more
time is being consumed by media attention. Examples
of such work include (Himmelweit, Oppenheim & Vince,
1958; Schramm,Lyle & Parker , 1961). Another type
of research revolves around the study of intermedia
differences and characteristics, whether in relation
to content (Knower, 1935; Lerner, 1958); or trust,
(Carter & Sepulveda, 1964; Schramm 1964), or method-
ological difficulties (Lazarsfeld, 1940).

ii)   The Output Category

Those effects are related to a more specific aspect

of the whole agent dimension: the contents. From
the general to the particular, levels of effects
studies on the content of mass communications may
involve:-

1.   Effects of the output of all programmes as a
        whole (including commercials).

2.   Effects of a group (set) of programmes
        (cumulative effect).

3.   Effects of a specific designed programme
        like an information or persuasion campaign
        or commercial.

4.   Effects of a specific ingredient of contents
        like violence, news, etc.

Although this classification of the output category of
the source dimension brings down the study of effects to
a more particular and defined state of analysis, it has
to be stressed that there are several further constit-
uent factors involved at each level. For instance,
researchers might concentrate on content analysis of
the output by simply describing what the media are
making available to the public. The rules for such
a description, in themselves, involve several dimen-
sions (see Lindzey & Aronson, 1968). On the other
hand, some researchers might be more concerned with
the relationship of the contents to the audiences.
Another constituent factor might be the study of the
relationship of content to intermedia differences.
And so on.....

c)   The Audience Dimension of Effects

Specifying the audience unit under study is another
necessity in the analysis of mass communication effects.

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This dimension can be found under several other
headings in the literature, like "the human organization
dimension",   (Roberts, 1971), and "the social
dimension" (Weiss, 1969). Basically, it involves two
aspects:

1.   the identification of the size and nature
         of the unit under study;

2.   the specification of the context of recep-
         tion in relation to the unit under study.
         (Weiss, 1969).

For instance, the investigator might be interested in
the study of the effects of mass communications on
idividuals as exemplified in some of the experimental
studies of the Yale School. On the other hand, the
stress might be on groups (Lewin, 1953; Katz, Levin
& Hamilton, 1963), or on societal functions.

Frederick T.C. Yu's study of campaigns and communication
development in communist China exemplifies the stress on
the cultural unit of analysis. (Yu, 1967).

Examples of the effects of the social context of recep-
tion include such studies as Friedson (1953), who
analysed the different media use contexts of children
from the kindergarten to sixth graders.

d)   The Time Dimension of Effects

This category is sometimes considered as the most
important for almost all types of effects are related
in some way to time span.

Some studies in connection with this dimension investigate
the difference between specific individual directed
response effects, which might require a shorter time to

materialize as compared to societal change responses,
which might require longer periods, e.g. Hovland,
(1954). Nevertheless, the opposite case can be argued,
especially in developing countries where, because of
the widespread use of the media, social change can be
hoped to take less time to materialize than when the
media did not exist, e.g. Schramm (1964).

The study of change as related to low involvement vs.
high involvement topics is also dependent on the dimen-
sion of time. It has been argued that information
increase, and the change of weakly-held attitudes,
beliefs and values, take a shorter period of time
than that of the change of deeply-held values or those
with societal consequences.

Some methodological problems of measuring mass media
effects are also related to this time dimension. It
is easier to measure direct effects of communications
over shorter period of time, as long-term effects get
entangled with additional unidentified intervening
variables. (Emmett, 1975; Belson, 1967).

Finally, there are several types of mass communication
effects that can be studied. Besides the work on long-
range cultural and societal effects, an investigator
might be interested in how mass communications can
influence political behaviour, or economic behaviour,
social attitudes, popular tastes, or other behavioural
activities. More specifically, the investigator
might be interested in how mass communications influence
emotions, attitudes, cognitions, connations, or
some specific overt behaviour.

Therefore, there are several dimensions upon which mass
communication effects can be conceptualized. Specifying
the perspectives is essential in order to identify the
methodologies, formulations and theories related to the
category under study.

II. SPECIFIC COMMUNICATION EFFECTS

The emphasis in this study is not on effects of mass
communications as a whole, but on specific effects of
specific mass communications. The latter is usually
referred to as studies of communication "effectiveness".
While the term 'effects of mass communications' is used
to point to all the possible consequences of exposure
to mass communications (direct or indirect), effective-
ness will refer to the study of specific consequences
designed and planned for by the investigator. Communi-
cations effectiveness covers the situation when there
is a specific intention, objective or goal set to be
realized as a result of exposure to a communication.
(Gerbner, 1967; Roberts, 1971).

The majority of researchers on mass communication effects
have stressed that enough research has been carried out on the
effectiveness of specific communications and that more
attention should be directed towards more complex long-
range societal effects of mass communications (McGuire, 1969;
Schramm, 1973[2]; UNESCO, 1970; Weiss, 1971; Davison,
Boylan & Yu, 1977), plus several others.

Still the effectiveness of specific mass communications
is dwelt upon as the principal topic of this thesis.
Besides the obvious reason for this choice, in that an
attempt is made to modify female pupils' attitudes and
behaviour towards nursing, there is a deeper theoretical
basis involved. The thesis attempts to re-examine the
assumption of the negligible ability of mass communications
to change attitudes in information and persuasion campaigns.
Adding to this is the fact that the research has been
carried out in a developing country, where the role of the
media differs greatly from that of the industrialized
nations. It is more vital in an underdeveloped country
to direct the research where it is most needed and that

is in national development. The practical application of
mass communication research for educating, informing, and
modifying behaviour is more compelling.

The report presented by UNESCO (1970) in Paris on mass
media and society: the need for research,supports this
view. I quote:

> "In developing countries the mass media are
> an integral part of national development,
> inedeed they have a leadership role to play
> in this field. Therefore, the primary concern
> of the researcher for some time to come will be
> to relate communication to nation-building.
> Subjects to be taken for continuing study will
> include: the promotion of national unity,
> the role of communication in developmental
> campaigns relating to agriculture, health,
> education, family planning, adult literacy, etc."
>
> (UNESCO, 1970)

In retrospect, a summary is presented of how this research
is structuredin relation to the dimensions of effects dis-
cussed earlier.

1. METHODOLOGICAL DIMENSION: Controlled field study

2. AUDIENCE DIMENSION: Individual adolescent female
                        pupils in a family group context.

3. TIME DIMENSION: Short span programme

4. TYPE OF EFFECT DESIRED: Information/persuasion.

CHAPTER III

COMPONENTS OF EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNICATIONS

A.   PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATIONS AND ATTITUDES

Persuasion always involves a communication process. The
difference between a communication situation and a per-
suasive communication situation depends on the variable
of the "intent" of the communicator.

The Random House dictionary (1967) stressed that persuasion
always implies   "... influencing someone's thoughts or
actions", (p. 1076). Andersen (1971) further added that
"persuasion is a communication process in which the commun-
icator seeks to elicit a desired response." (p.6).

Bettinghaus (1973) maintained that, for a communication
situation to be persuasive, it must involve, as a minimal
condition, "a conscious attempt by one individual to change
the attitudes, beliefs, or the behaviour of another indi-
vidual or group of individuals through the transmission of
some message." (p. 10).

It has to be emphasized that t ˎ source of the persuasive
communication does not necessarily have to be one individual
but ₐmay be several, and the flow of the message usually involves
all the participants. In fact, all the variables that have
been argued to be of significance in a communication process
apply to a persuasive communication situation. The only
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distinction is in the characteristic that a persuasive
communication involves a conscious attempt to change (besides
other things) beliefs, attitudes or behaviour.

It is the ability of the mass media to make this change
in beliefs, attitudes or behaviour which is the main
concern of this study. Before studying the controversy
around this problem, it is vital to examine the components
of effectiveness we are dealing with. The voluminous
literature preclude the examination of all aspects related
to the effectiveness of specific communications. The
research literature will be studied from the perspective
of three components of effectiveness: the cognitive, affect-
ive and connative dimensions of attitudes.

Why attitudes? The argument might arise, Why should we
consider beliefs and attitudes when it seems more efficient
to talk solely in terms of the observable action effects
of persuasion? There are basically three reasons for con-
sidering attitudes in this text.

First of all, for a social scientist it is both interesting
and useful to have a "conceptual bridge" between what an
individual does and the cognitive and affective processes
that lead him to do so.

Secondly, the assumption that the effects of a persuasive
communication are always observable to an onlooker or
researcher studying the situation does not, in fact, reflect
a real-life persuasive communication situation. Let us
consider an example presented by Bettinghaus (1973).

> "Imagine an individual listening to a Black Power
> advocate. Before the speech, the listener declares
> flatly that he is opposed to the black power move-
> ment. After hearing the speech, the listener says
> that he still cannot support the movement, but that
> the speaker ...is certainly dynamic, and a good
> spokesman for his cause. There was an effect, but
> it was not as positive as the speaker desired.
> Nevertheless, the change in the listener's statement

is an effect that can be traced to the speech,
and is an effect in the direction of the speaker's
original intention. Such a change may not result
in immediate differences in the way the listener
acts toward black power movement, or towards blacks,
but this initial effect could lead in future to
positive behaviours on the part of the individual".

(p.14)

This illustrates the reasons why the effects of a persuasive
communication cannot be assessed merely in terms of changes
in observable behavioural action only, especially not
immediate observable behaviour. Other cognitive processes
of change might have occurred and might be more relevant.

Finally, in the evaluation of a communication, it has to be
accepted that the availability of data measuring overt behav-
ioural action, although ideal, is not always possible. In
a natural field setting, difficulties in collecting this
data and the expenses involved, are apparent.

However, although attitudes will be used, we will be very
careful not to assume that attitude change can be substituted
for, or is the cause of, behaviour change. The whole of
this Chapter will be allocated to discussing this reservation.

Attitudes

Several definitions of the attitude construct exists reflect-
ing diverse, sometimes conflicting, viewpoints about its
conceptualization.

Gordon Allport described the concept of attitude as "the
primary building stone in the edifice of social psychology",
and defined it as "a mental and neural state of readiness,
organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic

influence upon the individual's response to all objects and
situations with which it is related". (Allport, 1954, p.43).
Rokeach (1966) added that an attitude is "a relatively
enduring organization of beliefs about an object or situa-
tion predisposing one to respond in some preferrential
manner." (p.529)

Whether attitudes are described as mental states or endur-
ing beliefs, it should be emphasized that they have to be
inferred from some overt response. They are, as put by
Schramm (1973), "hypothetical constructs" devised to
clarify what happens in the "black box" between the communi-
cation and the response.

As attitudes are inferred, whether from physiological, verbal
or behavioural responses, concepts have been developed to
explain the existence of those inferred hypothetical
constructs. De Fleur & Westie (1963) suggested two of those
concepts known as "the probability" and "the latent process"
constructs.

The probability construct basically maintained that atti-
tude responses are more or less consistent.

> "The attitude is an inferred property of the
> responses, namely their consistency. Stated
> in another way, attitude is equated with the
> probability of recurrence of behaviour forms
> of a given type or direction." (De Fleur & Westie,1963,p.21)

Controversy has arisen as the result of describing attitudes
as consistent responses in a specific direction. Fishbein
(1975) argued that such a definition is ambiguous because
the consistency of responses can be interpreted in a number
of ways. He stressed that an attitude should be visualised
in a more evaluative sense, concentrating on affective

consistency instead of response consistency, as the
affective component is the one that best distinguishes
between an attitude and another concept.

The second construct referred to by De Fleur & Westie,
the latent process construct, postulated "the operation
of some hidden or hypothetical variable, functioning within
the behaving individual, which shapes, acts upon, or
'mediates' the observable behaviour. That is, the observ-
able organisation of behaviour is said to be 'due to', or
can be 'explained by', the action of some mediating latent
variable." In this sense, an attitude is regarded not as
the response itself, nor the probability of the occurrence
of the response, but "an intervening variable operating
between the stimulus and response, and inferred from the
overt behaviour". (De Fleur & Westie, 1963, p.21)

While the probability concept makes no assumption regarding the
nature of attitude-behaviour consistency, the latent process construct,
also known as the 'predispositions' construct, does imply
an attitude-behaviour consistency. De Fleur & Westie
explained that since both verbal and overt behavioural
responses are supposedly mediated by the same underlying
latent variable, attitude, responses of a specific kind, like
verbal, should both show consistency over time and co-vary
with other kinds of responses, like overt behaviour. It
is this underlying assumption that brought up the criticism
of this construct and added to the controversy around
attitude-behaviour consistency. (This will be further
discussed later in the text).

Nevertheless, this conceptualization of attitude is the most
popular and is regarded as the main form in which attitudes
are discussed in communication research.

Despite the diverse views, most investigators would probably
accept the conceptualization of attitude as:

> "either mental readiness or implicit predispo-
> sitions which exert some general and consistent
> influence on a fairly large class of evaluative
> responses. These responses are usually directed
> towards some object, person or group. In addi-
> tion, attitudes are seen as enduring predispos-
> itions but ones that are learned, rather than
> innate. Thus, momentarily transient, they are
> susceptible to change." (Zimbardo, Ebbesen, 1970, p.6)

To evaluate attitude change, a measurable entity of attitudes
has to be identified. Therefore, the practical implications
of the definition of attitudes are pointed out by them:

i Attitudes are learned, therefore all that is known about
   learning theory can be applied to the understanding of
   attitude formation and change. Investigations into past
   experiences, which determine the learning process, are
   consequentially reflected in the study of attitudes.

ii Attitudes are enduring predispositions, therefore it
    may be possible to produce long-lasting, rather than
    momentary, change in the various behavioural responses
    from which attitudes are inferred.

iii Attitudes are highly generalized predispositions,
     which implies that, by changing attitudes, it is
     possible to produce 'many' specific changes in overt
     behaviour.

In a further attempt to produce a practical solution to a
highly theoretical concept, attitudes have generally been
divided into three components:-

THE COGNITIVE COMPONENT: This refers to the intellectual
content of the attitude dealing with factual knowledge,
information and beliefs about an object, person, group of

persons, or situation. It will be used in this study as the component measuring information acquisition.

THE AFFECTIVE COMPONENT: This reflects the aspect of attitude dealing with emotions, likes or dislikes and specifies the evaluative category regarding an object, person, group or situation.

THE BEHAVIOURAL or CONNATIVE COMPONENT: This reflects the actual overt action directed towards an object, person, group or situation, or the predisposition to action, ie. the behavioural intentions.

There are several variations to those three components, but whatever the distinctions in terminology, basically they all refer to the same perspectives.

Utilizing this practical approach to the definition, if it is assumed that attitudes are based on the three theoretical components of cognition, affection and connation, then the objective of a persuasive communication would be to modify or change one, two, or all, those components in a predetermined direction by the transmission of a designed message.

However, the situation is not that straightforward. In measuring the effectiveness of persuasive communications, conflicting viewpoints emerged as to the necessity of using all those components in evaluation. Some researchers argued that, as evidence points out that very little association (if any) can be found among those components, evaluation should be directed strictly to overt behavioural measures. McGuire (1973), maintained that those components are basically a sequence of hypothetical mental stages which, it is assumed, a recipient passes through when being exposed to a persuasive communication. They are applied to "facilitate" the understanding of a persuasion model.

Therefore, the question is not whether to use them in
evaluating the effectiveness of a persuasive communication,
but to find out at what level can the communication be
regarded as effective. Further argument   revolved
around the treatment of those components in a specific
hierarchical fashion.

Therefore, if the three components of a persuasive commun-
ication: information acquisition, attitude change and
behavioural change, are to be employed in the evaluation
of a persuasive mass communication, several questions
have to be examined.

a)   How are the components related to each other, or
     more precisely, are they related?

b)   How do the different levels reflecting those
     components measure the effectiveness of a communi-
     cation?

Furthermore, when discussing the theoretical basis for
persuasive communications, the question of the hierarchy-
of-effects in relation to those components will be consid-
ered.

B. **ASSOCIATION OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF MASS COMMUNI-
CATIONS**

*How are the components of effectiveness of mass communica-
tions related to each other?*

I. INFORMATION VS. ATTITUDE AND BEHAVIOUR CONSISTENCY

Information and acquired knowledge, as measured by recall
tests, have not always been found related to attitudes or
behaviour. A large number of studies question the ability
of cognitive measures to predict affect or behaviour
towards an object, person or situation.

Haskins (1964), carried out thorough research to examine
the problem. He first critically analysed some published
advertising campaigns whose research techniques were
sufficiently rigorous. For those studies which used sales
as their criterion, one proved that awareness was related
to increase in sales, but increase in knowledge was not.
As for the second one (the well-publicised ANPA-Harvard
study, Bureau of Advertising, 1963) Haskins found that:

> "product awareness was followd by changes in
> information and attitudes, but at any specific
> moment, none of these measures was related to
> sales."   (p.4)

The other campaigns which had either attitudes, brand pref-
erence or intended purchase as their criteria, the results
showed that awareness was always a necessary condition for
effectiveness but learning of facts proved either to have
no relationship to attitude changes, brand preference and
intention to purchase, or - in one case - it produced a
negative relationship to the criteria.

Haskins also searched into 21 communication research
studies. This search covered the 1954-1963 editions of
Psychological Abstracts and other pertinant sources. Almost
all of the related examples were controlled experiments.

Four of those studies dealt with the effectiveness of
rational factual appeals vs. emotional affective appeals,
and all showed emotional affective appeals to be more
persuasive. (Hartman, 1936; Menfee & Gravenberg, 1940;
Crockett, 1953; and McLeod, 1958).

The other seventeen studies compared changes in knowledge
or factual recall with concurrent changes in attitudes,
behaviour or other indicators assumed to be valid criteria
of message effectiveness. Of those seventeen, two studies
showed a positive relationship between changes in knowledge
(recall) and the criterion. (Leslie & Berry, 1953; Green,
1954). Two showed a negative relationship between know-
ledge (recall) and the criterion. (Cooper & Dinerman, 1951;
Belson, 1956).

The other thirteen studies, Haskins quoted, showed little
or no relationship. He explained that, although they varied
in subject matter, methodology and communication techniques,
they all had one thing in common; "they showed no relation-
ship between what a person learned, knew or recalled on one
hand, and what he did or how he felt on the other". He
concluded that "the teaching and learning of factual infor-
mation was not related to attitudes or behaviour", (p.6).
Some examples of those studies include Hovland (1949);
Lawton & Goldman(1961).

These examples can be found in Haskins analysed in detail.
Similar conclusions to Haskins have been advocated by
Greenwald (1968) and Wright (1972).

However, although research in the majority of cases indicates
that factual information is not necessarily related to
influence in attitudes or behaviour, the cognitive measure
is still used in the evaluation of most persuasive communi-
cations.

Some researchers argue that the inconsistency in find-
ings may probably be due to methodological shortcomings.
Recall tests, which are usually used by advertisers to
measure comprehension, may not necessarily reflect the
understanding of the recipients to the message. They
concentrate more on specific details than overall con-
clusions and basic arguments. Other possibilities are
that factual information may be relevant depending on
familiarity of the recipient with the object of infor-
mation (facts may be more effective with new concepts.)

There are several other variables related to the persua-
sive communication process that could account for this
inconsistency. For instance, the manner of presentation
of the issue has been found to create some difficulties
in the understanding and comprehension of the objectives
being propagated as exemplified by studies carried by
Belson (1956), Lazarsfeld (1948), and Bogart (1957).

Another highly plausible rationale for the apparent con-
tradictory findings could be due to the relationship of
the content to peoples pre-existing attitudes and values
and their ego defensiveness. People have been found to
misunderstand the conclusions of a message if their pre-
existing attitudes were unfavourable to it. (Cooper &
Jahoda, 1947; Vidmar & Rokeach, 1974). This creates
inconcisistency between the elements.

Moreover, in rural sociology, Sizer & Porter (1960) and
Hobbs (1960) showed that the greater the amount of know-
ledge about an innovation, the more likely was its adop-
tion. Kivlin & Fliegel (1967) further proved that the
way the innovation is perceived, its cost, convenience
and risk are directly related to adoption.

Therefore, in conclusion, caution has to be taken not
to generalize the results of information change to

attitude and behaviour change. However, this does not
mean that the cognitive measure should not be used in
its own right as a measure of effectiveness of a communi-
cation.

II. ATTITUDE - BEHAVIOUR CONSISTENCY

To what extent does affect (feelings, emotions, likes
and dislikes, towards an object, person or situation)
show consistency with how an individual actually behaves?

Research points to a controversy regarding the relationship
between attitudes, as they have been traditionally measured,
and actual behaviour. The majority of research points
towards a non-relationship, or a very weak one.

The widely quoted study of La Pierre (1934) which concluded
that no relationship of any kind was observed, could be
regarded as the starting basis for this controversy. In the
early 1930's, when there existed considerable hostile feelings
towards Orientals, La Pierre travelled in a car with a
Chinese couple around some of the States in America. They
stopped at 66 hotels and motor inns and 184 restaurants, and
were refused service only once. Six months later, La Pierre
sent letters to each of the hotels, inns and restaurants
they visited, as well as to a control group of similar
establishments which they have not visited. The question
was whether they would provide service for Chinese guests.
Only 128 of those he wrote to answered, and of those 92%
indicated that they do not and would not accept Chinese as
guests (some of them did so only a few months ago).

Other studies found similar results. Kutner, Wilkins &
Yarrow (1952) carried their research on negroes as subjects
visiting restaurants, while Minard (1952) analysed the
relationship of white and black workers in the Pocahontas
coalfields.

As early as 1946, the statistician McNemar questioned the
validity of attitude measurements. He pointed out that the
degree of relationship between overt non-verbal and verbal

behaviour is not known and is of little interest to most
investigators.

Festinger (1964) carried out thorough research to investi-
gate this relationship and concluded that he could find
only three controlled studies in which attitude change had
been shown to predict behaviour.

More recently, Wicker (1969) made a review of studies re-
garding minority groups and found little correspondence
between the variables measuring attitudes and those measur-
ing behaviour; he added that in fact several cases showed
reversals of the expected relationships. As a conclusion
to his search of the entire literature on attitude change
and overt action, he stated:

> "the present review provides little evidence of
> the postulated existence of stable underlying
> attitudes within the individual which influences
> both his verbal expression and his actions." (p.6)

In a more applied sphere, Vroom (1964) pointed out that
"job attitudes have only a slight and often insignificant
relationship" with job performance and absences from work.
And in family planning surveys, Schramm (1973)[2] reported
that it was found that while 70 percent of the respondents
expressed favourable attitudes towards family planning
and contraception, just below 15 percent of them eventually
did go to the clinics for treatment or materials.

If so much research points to the insignificance of attit-
udes as predictors of behaviour, what can be said about the
validity of the thousands of studies using attitudes as
their criteria of effectiveness?

There are several ways of answering this question.

One way is by reviewing the studies that showed inconsis-
tencies and critically analysing them. For instance,
Campbell (1963) argued that La Pierre's study involved
two different situations with differing "thresholds";
mainly that it is far more difficult to refuse to accom-
odate, or serve, a well-dressed Chinese couple who speak
fluent English in a face-to-face setting than to state a
refusal of accommodation or service in a letter for the
Chinese as a people. Campbell stressed that La Pierre's
study has no relevance as far as the problem of inconsist-
ency is concerned. He pointed out that inconsistency would
be a valid observation if those who had refused in a face-
to-face setting accepted by questionnaire, or those who
accepted by questionnaire refused in a face-to-face setting.

Studies that support Campbell's arguments include Leventhal,
Singer & Jones, (1965); Naidoo (1966).

Another way of attempting to explain the problem is by
analysing the factors that could be contributing to this
inconsistency.

Some researchers argued that there are many attitudes rele-
vant to any given behaviour, and a single attitude may appear
inconsistent because other attitudes (maybe more pertinent)
have not been considered. (Cook & Sellitz, 1964; Insko
& Schopler, 1967).

Insko & Schopler (1967) also added that some attitudes may
not show corresponding behaviour because opportunities for
the behaviour do not arise.

Moreover, a large number of writers maintained that many
instances of inconsistency may have been due to the fact
that the stimulus in verbal response situations tends to be
general, while the stimulus in overt behavioural response

tends to be specific. (Chein, 1948; Dollard, 1949; Cook & Sellitz, 1964; Fishbein, 1975).

Social pressures in situational contexts have also been quoted as pertinent factors in the explanation of inconsistencies.

Hyman (1949) suggested that the inconsistencies could be due to two factors:

(1) when the verbal responses are obtained anonymously and the subject does not have to stand up for them;

(2) when the behavioural responses are taken in a situation where the subject is under the influence of group pressures.

Hovland (1959) seemed to confirm the above suggestion when attempting to explain why it is easier to achieve a communication effect in the laboratory than in the field. He stressed that in the field there are social pressures, competing messages and actions, and other constraints that are not present in the private laboratory. Schramm (1973)[1] also emphasizes the difficulty of constraints on social actions in contrast to private answers to questions.

Kiesler et al (1969) examined the inconsistency by pointing to the problem of norms and expectations in the social context. They explained that, when behaving in a self response manner, some attitudes are salient, but when one is in a different social situation other attitudes might be salient. They wrote:

> "normative differences from one environment to another are so large that behaviours are not always correlated with behaviours, and attitudes are not always correlated with attitudes. We will not find a high correlation between attitude and behaviour if situational pressures

> substantially contribute to the observed
> behaviour - and they always do." (pps. 29 - 30)

Another point of relevance is that quite a large number of
the studies that show inconsistencies reflect situations
where there exists conflicts between the attitude and the
consequences of a specific act, like labourer's fear of his
employer (Dollard, 1949), or restaurant owners' fear of
prosecution for racial discrimination (Kutner et al. 1952). How-
ever, when conflicts between attitude and norms are not
present, attitudes could be argued to be fair predictors
of behaviour. Examples include work on consumer behaviour
(NBC Hofstra television study, 1950; Katona 1960).

Gross & Niman (1975) who presented a critical review of the
attitude-behaviour consistency problem suggested that the
factors contributing to this inconsistency can be categorized
under personal, situational and methodological ones. More-
over, most studies indicate that the variance from situations
is greater than the variance from individual differences.
Knowledge of situational differences tended to produce better
predictions of individual's behaviour than knowledge of
individual differences. They presented a general postulate
regarding situational influences on attitude-behaviour
relationships as follows:

> "The more similar the situations in which verbal
> and overt behavioural responses are obtained, the
> stronger will be the attitude behaviour relation-
> ship. Situational factors may be thought of as
> potentially significant dimensions along which
> environment can vary from the highly similar
> to the highly dissimilar." (p. 366).

In addition to the situational factors, obviously, there are
a number of methodological factors that may be regarded as

contributors to this inconsistency. Tittle & Hill (1967)
found that results of this inconsistency vary on the basis
of the attitude measure used, the behaviour criterion
chosen, and the circumstances surrounding the behaviour
criterion. Upon the review of fiteen studies, they
reported that when the attitude measure was a "multi-item
instrument" and the behavioural criterion chosen consisted
of "patterned behaviour occurring under usual circumstances",
the correspondence between attitude and behaviour was
relatively high (.60 and above) in three out of four studies.
However, when the attitude measure was a single question
(hypothetical or stereotyped), and the behavioural criterion
was a single act or series of acts, but occurring under
unnatural circumstances, the consistency was low (.35 and
below). Moderate correspondence (.35 to .59) was reported
in two of the studies analysed where the attitude measure
of a multi-dimension type, but the behavioural criterion
was that of a single act occurring under unusual circumstances.
Tittle & Hill concluded that numerous applications are needed
to build up additional evidence for those findings, as
measurement instruments are subject to various random errors.

Kiesler et al (1969) also outlined a number of methodological
problems related to this problem of inconsistency. They are
as follows:

1. Reliability:
   The predictive validity of a measuring instrument
   will be lowered if it includes ambiguous test items.

2. Item Difficulty:
   Even if the measuring instruments do produce reliable
   measurements for both attitudes and behaviour, they
   may fail to correlate because they make discriminations
   at different extremes of the attitude-behaviour
   continuum.

3. Category width:
   Behavioural measures of attitude usually have few
   discriminations along the attitude continuum, while
   on the other hand, most written measures make
   numerous discriminations along the attitude continuum.
   A small difference in attitude detected by the written
   measure would become obscured by the broad categor-
   ization of the behavioural measure.

4. Factor Structure of Attitude & Behaviour Syndrome:
   Referring to a study carried by Triandis (1964),
   Kiesler et al maintained that factor analysis of
   attitudes, personality traits and mental abilities
   did not succeed in confirming intuitive notions,
   of which items should "hang together" in a single
   syndrome. Still, although intuition may be in-
   correct, this does not necessarily mean that there
   is a general failure of attitudes to have any
   relationship to behaviour.

Another way of examining the inconsistency problem is to
look at non-attitudinal aspects of response. Triandis
(1971), in an attempt to contribute a practical application
to the problem, suggested that behaviour is a function of:

        (a)   attitudes;
        (b)   norms;
        (c)   habits, and
        (d)   expectancies about reinforcement.

He argued that, when all four factors are consistent, there
should be a higher consistency between attitude and behaviour
than when they are inconsistent. He maintained:

"behaviour is not only determined by what people
would like to do, but also what they think they

should do; that is social norms, by what they
usually have done - that is, habits - and by the
expected consequences of the behaviour." (p. 14).

This suggestion was tested by Sugar (1967), who found that
attitude alone did not predict behaviour (in this case,
smoking), but attitudes together with norms and habits did.

Another practical way of going around the problem is to
attempt to measure not only the person's attitude towards
an object, but also his attitudes towards the situation
in which the object is likely to be encountered (Rockeach,
1966; Fishbein, 1969).

Some researchers, who have shown pessimism about the
ability of verbal attitude measures to predict behaviour,
have argued for the use of unobtrusive measures(Green, 1954).

However, the controversy about attitude behaviour consistency
is not yet settled. There are still some analysts who argue
that there are several methodological and measurement devices
which might present a better predictive ability which have
not yet been used and tested   (Tittle & Hill, 1967).
Gross & Niman (1975) added that all the studies they have
reviewed did not utilize repeated measures of an attitude
toward a situation,and repeated measures of an overt non-
verbal behaviour in that situation. Methodological strategies
of this type might aid in a better predictive ability of
attitude and behaviour.

Attitudes are still widely used by social scientists as a
measure of effectiveness of communication. Perhaps, it
is wise to use them, like the social learning theorists,
as a class of behaviour on their own - specifying the
verbal dimension. This way, one would avoid the problem

of generalizing the verbal to the non-verbal classes of
behaviour.

Schramm   (1973)[2] word of warning in this context, argued
that although attitudes are used and will always be used:

> "we must be very cautious about assuming that
> any given communication effect measured in
> verbal attitudes is necessarily a predictor
> of action, or that any attitude changes are
> necessarily socially significant." (p. 220).

C.   LEVELS OF EFFECTIVENESS OF MASS COMMUNICATIONS

> *How can the different levels of the components be used*
> *to evaluate the effectiveness of a communication?*

Some researchers argue that the most efficient way of
evaluating a communication is to measure overt behavioural
change only;   however, this is not always regarded as
the ideal way in all situations.   If no overt behavioural
change occurred, it cannot be assumed that the communication
was not effective.

All communications, no matter how insignificant, will leave
some sort of mark on the receiver.   Schramm (1973)[2] likened
the effect to calcareous water dripping on a stalagmite.
Occasionally a drop leaves an especially large deposit,
but generally it merely contributes to the imperceptible
growth of the spur.   Almost all investigators would agree
that a large part of the effect of any communication is
hidden inside the human brain.   Schramm wrote:

> "the main effect communication has on us is
> in the pictures in our head, our cognitive
> maps of the environment, our images of ourselves,
> the beliefs and values we have accepted and are
> prepared to defend, the evaluations we have made
> of our relationships to individuals and groups -
> in other words, the translation of experience
> we have stored away in central nervous system."   (p. 194).

Therefore, the approach of simply looking for change in overt
behavioural action when evaluating communications is very
limited.   There are several levels at which effectiveness
can be measured, and considering them all gives a more
thorough understanding of the process.

McGuire (1973) suggested six behavioural steps that he maintained were necessary in attempting to understand how a persuasive communication could be evaluated. These steps, he contended, were the "dependent variables" of a communication intended to persuade; they were all measurable and represented stages in the development of the message. They are:

presentation,   attention,   comprehension,
yielding,   retention   overt behaviour.

In this section, three main levels of effects will be considered, each involving a number of steps in itself, the attention level, the intermediary level and the action level. A brief description of their importance in relation to the evaluation of the effectiveness of a persuasive communication is presented here.

It is important to stress here that the levels which will be described do not necessarily portray the way influence occurs. Attention does not necessarily precede learning and attitude change. One level is not strictly necessary for the other to occur, and there is no correct number of levels required.

A more thorough analysis, specifically in relation to the theoretical background of each level and the hierarchy of effects is examined in the following Chapters. All this Section does is present an exposition of those levels as to whether they are necessary, sufficient and useful for measuring the effectiveness of mass communications.

I.   THE ATTENTION LEVEL

The most elementary criterion in the evaluation of
communications is that of general awareness. This
effect refers to cognition in its broadest sense.
Although this effect is sometimes regarded as one
of the simplest criteria set forth, it is still
regarded as important, as is reflected by the con-
siderable emphasis in advertising strategy on
fostering brand awareness, and in politics where
emphasis is put on the value to a candidate of
being familiar as a name and person to the public.

However, presentation and awareness are not always
directly related to attention, which some regard
as the next logical step in the evaluation of a comm-
unication process. Considering the complexity of the
principles involved for an individual to turn and
sustain his attention to a set of stimuli, this action
in itself, if it occurs, has to be regarded as a vital
criterion of communication effectiveness.

Cartwright (1949) stressed that the first prerequisite
for influencing behaviour is that the message should
reach the sense organs of the individual to be per-
suaded. Schramm (1973)^2 added that, if attention is
sustained over a certain period of time, some sort
of effect is inevitable. Two of McGuire's six behav-
ioural steps fall under this level: presentation and
attention.

i.   Presentation

The first necessary step in any persuasive communication
situation. There are a number of scholars who consider
this early step as sufficient in itself as a measure
of communication effectiveness. Some advertisers
allocate large sums of money simply to buy advertising

time or space. Another example are scholars who
regard content analysis of programmes as a sufficient
means of explaining how the programmes could be effect-
ive. Some studies on violence in the media and its
relationship to potential aggressive behaviour depend
on this type of analysis.

Still, the majority of researchers agree that present-
ation of a message is a necessary, but not sufficient,
means of measuring the effectiveness of a communication.
Other measures are necessary.

ii.   Attention

Some evaluators argue that, in order to be influenced
by a message, the recipient must have attended to it.
Other analysts strongly contend that this is not nec-
essarily true. Believers in subception and the effect-
iveness of subliminal presentation stress that there
are marginal cases in which a person might be persuaded
by a communication or aspects of it which he is not
aware of, or has not carefully attended to. The point
is not whether attention is a prerequisite for influence,
but whether it is a useful and necessary step for
measuring the communication effectiveness.

Some advertisers would go as far as considering this
step as sufficient in itself. 'Recognition tests',
which are used by them to measure this level, have
been regarded by some as effective means of evaluating
a communication.

However, not all evaluators would stop at this level.
It can be argued that even if a communication is
physically available, this does not necessarily mean
that the individual involved is aware of its presence.
If one assumes that the individual is generally aware

time or space. Another example are scholars who
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However, not all evaluators would stop at this level.
It can be argued that even if a communication is
physically available, this does not necessarily mean
that the individual involved is aware of its presence.
If one assumes that the individual is generally aware

of the presence of the communication, again this does not necessarily mean that he paid sufficient attention to it.

If the individual did pay considerable attention to the communication, all that the investigator can conclude is that attention has been sustained for a certain period of time.

Therefore, although the attention level is necessary and useful, it is not sufficient in itself. The majority of researchers emphasize the importance of the use of other measures to evaluate the effectiveness of a persuasive communication.

II. THE INTERMEDIARY LEVEL

The steps related to the attention level cannot be regarded as the sole criteria for evaluating communication effectiveness. The increment in information, the change in attitudes and the retention of this increment and change are also vital elements.

Three behavioural steps can be included in this level: comprehension, acceptance (yielding) and retention.

i.   Comprehension

A cognitive approach would contend that the recipient is more likely to be influenced if he (she) comprehends the contents of the communication put forward, specifically the conclusions being urged and the arguments for those conclusions. However, experimental evidence does not always support this assumption. In fact,

some researchers even stress that attention and
comprehension of specific details of the message
are counterproductive to the persuasive objective
of communication as a whole. (McGuire, 1969).
Experiments on fear arousing communications point
to this phenomenon as well. (Janis & Terwilleger
1962). Comprehension does not stand only for the
understanding of the message (in the literal sense)
but also the interpretation of the contents as it
fits the recipients frame-of-reference. Therefore,
it is not surprising to find conflicting results
regarding comprehension and conviction.

To enhance the comprehensibility of a message, Triandis
(1971) presented a number of suggestions. He argued,
if the source knows the audience he is addressing,
and if the message is clear, understandable to that
particular audience, fits into their frame-of-reference
and doesn't bring up their defences; if the channel
allows the audience to proceed at their own pace and
obtain further clarification, the effectiveness of the
communication will be greatly enhanced.

Comprehension, on its own, is considered as a vital step
in the evaluation of effectiveness of communications,
but, the only generalization that can be made from this
level is that the individual involved understood the
message. Comprehension does not necessarily mean con-
viction, and therefore, for an overall evaluation of a
persuasive communication, further steps would be nece-
ssary.

ii.   Acceptance and conviction - "yielding"

This step is the one at which most evaluations of
effectiveness stop. It is usually measured by a self-
reported questionnaire about the recipient's verbal

opinion, agreement or disagreement with the message
propagated. It is usually conducted directly after
exposure and is compared in conjunction with a control
group or the recipients' previous position before
exposure. The majority of researchers conclude the
effectiveness of the programme at this level, as it
is the most practical and convenient to measure and
obtain.

However, there is still a lot of conflicting view-
points regarding the use of this level as the measure
of effectiveness of a communication.

McGuire (1973) argued that, although this is a very
crucial aspect of the persuasion process, it should
not be regarded as the final. It is an oversimpli-
fication as variables positively correlated to yielding
might be negatively correlated to other steps in the
persuasion process. He maintained that usually an
obvious and blatant message is better for comprehension
but might be counterproductive to conviction and accept-
ance. On the other hand, a subtle and disguised message
could be better for yielding while obliterating compre-
hension.

Most researchers argue that it is vital at this stage
to set down the criteria required for effectiveness:
comprehension or yielding?

Again, acceptance of a message can only be used in its
literal sense. It is very difficult to generalize from
this step to overt action without getting into serious
problems, as explained in the section on attitude-
behaviour consistency, discussed earlier. This is the
main reason why evaluators who stop at this level are
often criticized.

iii.   Retention

This step reflects the situation where, if increment in knowledge or change in attitude has occurred, it persists over a longer period of time than simply at the point in time directly after exposure. It overcomes the limitation associated to the measure of opinion directly after exposure in relation to the generalization of results. If the objective of a persuasive message is for a lasting increment or change, then the measure of retention over an extended period of time is vital.

Some advertisers employ this step as the final step of evaluation and use it as a measure of connation. For example, the intention to purchase a product is measured not only directly after an advertisement is exhibited, but in a supermarket situation at a later stage.

The measurement of persistance of change over a period of time has been backed with varied results. Some experimenters have found resistance to decay to range over a period of months, Hall (1938); some as little as one week, McGuire (1969). Of course, temporal decay of change depends very much on the communication situation and the target audience.

Still, it can be argued that, if increment in knowledge and change in attitude lasts over a period of time, this measure of retention is one valid step further in evaluating the effectiveness of the communication.

Before referring to the final level of analysis, it is vital to put the measurement of effects at the attention level and intermediary level into a clearer perspective.

The effects at those levels are not directly observable but inferred from written responses. Roberts (1971)

called them "primary effects" and explained that:

> "they occur at the level of the image
> a receiver has organised inside the
> 'black box', so to speak, while we make
> inferences about communication effects
> based on the receiver's behaviour, the
> true effect of a message may be more or
> less subtle, far-reaching and more complex
> than any observable measure can indicate."
>
> (p. 363)

Therefore the study of effects at the levels of selection, comprehension, inner confirmation and change are vital in that they help the evaluator to comprehend, as clearly as possible, what could have happened as a result of the communication. However, one prerequisite and necessity for measurement at those levels is the use of "multiple indicators", to enhance validity. This, however, should not blind the evaluator from assessing the overall effect or overlooking some other possible effects not measured, and not accounted for. Moreover, caution should be taken when generalizations are made of the effects at those levels.

III. THE ACTION LEVEL

In any applied research, the effectiveness of a persuasive communication is measured in terms of overt behavioural action. Advertising campaigns, public health campaigns, political campaigns, rural innovation campaigns, social reform campaigns - all have change in overt behaviour as their goal. However, it is not always possible or easy to reach this goal directly after exposure to a communication.

Some responses may not be activated at once, but
after the lapse of a considerable period of time
from the instance of exposure. This phenomenon of
"delayed action effect" has been verified by several
experiments. (Hovland, Lumsdaine & Sheffield, 1949;
Hovland & Weiss, 1951; McGuire, 1960; Papgeorgis,
1963).

Another possibility is that the overt action response
may occur in the opposite direction of the one prop-
agated by the communicator.

A further possibility is that the overt action response
was imminent, but waiting for the right circumstances
to occur, or it has been retarded by a number of temp-
orary obstacles.

Those, and many other possibilities, have to be consid-
ered before a "no effect" is branded upon a communication
if no overt action response followed it immediately.

Conclusion

The most important point to note in the evaluation of the
effectiveness of a persuasive communication is the delinea-
tion of the objectives. If the sole objective of a persuasive
campaign is some specific overt behavioural action, then
probably it would not be necessary to study any other element
at the prelinary steps of effectiveness.

However, most researches are not only interested in the
practical aspect of a campaign but also the theoretical one.
This is probably the reason why a large number of campaigns
study preliminary steps of effectiveness of a communication.

Still, the limitations of those preliminary steps in predicting the final ones, and the importance of the use of multiple indicators to ensure validity of measurement are widely accepted in the evaluation process.

To emphasize the importance of the setting up of clear objectives, an example is presented from the study of Martin (1971) regarding the effectiveness of international propaganda. Martin maintained that, in the above context, there are two basic processes involved in communications: facilitative and persuasive communication. He explained:

> "facilitative communication begins with input and ends with exposure. With exposure, the process has been completed. The line of communication is open and that is its sole purpose." (p. 165)

Effectiveness in this case is achieved once a single contact is made. On the other hand, the second process, which involves persuasive communication BEGINS with awareness. In this context, awareness which is crucial for persuasive communication is not necessary for facilitative communication. Martin emphasized that it has to be realized that the jump from simple exposure to awareness is a big step, because it moves from "the physical plane to the intellectual".

The following Chapters are allocated to analysing the complexity of the psychological factors involved, as this " jump" from the physical availability of a communication to awareness, sustained attention, comprehension, conviction, and behavioural actions takes place. The theoretical conceptualizations are discussed, building up to a model of communication effects.

CHAPTER IV

THEORIES AND MODELS OF MASS COMMUNICATION EFFECTS

A. THE ATTENTION EFFECT

What are the variables that determine the jump from the
physical availability of a communication to exposure and
awareness? Why do these variables exist, and what is
the motivation behind them? The answer mainly lies in
the understanding of the characteristics of the audience
of a communication situation.

Selective exposure and attention, selective perception,
selective retention and recall are all concepts based
on the principle of regarding the role of an audience
as active and 'mediating' in a communication process.
Sustained attention to a communication is regarded as
one of the most important variables in the designing of
effective media campaigns (if not 'the' most important).

This chapter will trace the steps of the selectivity
aspect of attention, perception and retention, and discuss
the motivation behind it. We shall present the evidence
supporting the existence of perhaps the foremost 'obstacle'
in the way of a successful media campaign: selectivity.

1. SELECTIVITY

(a) Selective Exposure (Attention)

    Sears & Freedman (1971) defined selective exposure
    as "any systematic bias in audience composition"
    (p. 211).

Social science researchers have thoroughly explored
the fact that some people pay attention to certain
communications and ignore others, and vice versa.

Hyman & Sheatsley (1947) maintained that one of the
reasons for the failure of information campaigns is
selective exposure. Lazarsfeld, Berelson & Gaudet
(1948) reported that the only possible explanations
to their findings that a political campaign mainly
activates and reinforces the predispositions and
pre-existing preferences of the population is the
principle of selective exposure. To reduce disson-
ance, according to Festinger's cognitive dissonance
theory, selective exposure is regarded as a prime
mechanism and plays a vital role (Festinger, 1957).
Schramm and Carter (1959) found that a twenty four
hour appeal for votes staged by a Republican
Senatorial Candidate drew twice as much Republican
viewers as Democrats.

Hovland (1959) stated that experimental psychologists
and survey researches alike agree that laboratory and
field studies of mass communications often come to
quite different conclusions, mostly because of
selective exposure. McGuire (1964) based an
extensive programme of research on immunization
against persuasion on the assumption that people
are often unacquainted with counter propaganda because
of selective exposure.

Davidson, Boylan & Yu (1976) explained that selective
exposure could involve both active information seek-
ing and avoidance of information. This suggestion
posits a motivational basis for selective exposure.
Several hypotheses and conceptualizations have been
brought up to explain the possible motivational

drive behind selective exposure. Those same moti-
vations (which will be examined fully later) have
also been referred to when describing the reasons
behind the next logical step in the attention
process: selective perception.

(b) Selective Perception.

Travers (1964), Hsia (1968) and others have empha-
sized that the central nervous system can apparently
handle only a small part of the information that
the sense receptors and the peripheral nervous
system are capable of receiving.

Jacobson (1951), Travers & Bosco (1967) and others
have measured the human capacity to process sensory
information in various ways and produced diverse
results. However, they all agreed that this human
capacity is much less than the amount of information
available to the channel. For example, Jacobson (1951)
estimated that the input channel can handle only one
percent of the information taken in by the ear. This
points to the fact that some mechanism of selection
has to exist beyond selective exposure.

After an individual has directed his attention to a
set of incoming stimuli, he organizes what appears
to him to be the meaning of this communication in
accordance to his own background, experience and
expectations.

Selective perception has usually been used to mean
that "some elements in the available information are
emphasized more than others, some are rejected
entirely and some or all are reinterpreted to fit into
the frame-of-reference of the receiver" (Schramm
1973, P. 122).

The human need to organize information is a character-
istic widely studied,whether the individual is trying
to see a figure from a pattern of dots, or visualize
a picture from an inkblot or classify a person from
first impressions, or understand a new idea by
referring it to existing knowledge; he is always
attempting to interpret the cues impinging upon him
in an understandable way.

Some researches would further argue that individuals
do not see only what they expect to see, depending
on their background, experience, values and expect-
ations, but also what they "want" to see. This claim
which argues that selective perception is, in fact,
motivated perception, has been supported by a wealth
of evidence. What this claim suggests is that
perception - in particular, ease of perception, but
also the interpretation of ambiguous percepts - may
be influenced by needs and values of the perceiver in
such a way that perception of related stimuli is
enhanced; also, when threatening stimuli are present,
their perception may be "warded off" - a phenomenon
commonly termed "perceptual defense or closure."

Although this claim does not go without criticism
(see Howes & Solomon, 1950), in mass communication
research, it is an accepted possible explanation for
selective perception. Davison, Bowlan & Yu (1976)
defined selective perception as the "ability to
avoid perceiving dissonant information while absorb-
ing ideas that we agree with" (p. 135).

Schramm (1973)[1] summarized the selective perception
process by his statement: "we select against a back-
ground of our needs, we perceive personal character-
istics, relevant group relationships, values and
beliefs. We interpret cues, once they are selected,

to fit as comfortably and usefully as possible" (p. 122).

The experimental evidence backing those propositions is enormous.

In the famous Mr. Biggot study, Kendall & Wolf (1949) found that prejudiced people completely missed the point of the anti-prejudice cartoons by reporting that the car- toons actually supported "their point of view".

In the political sphere, Berelson,Lazarsfeld & McPhee(1954) found that people who are in disagreement with the stand of their own candidate on an issue are more likely to claim that they do not know what their candidate's position is, as compared to those people who are in actual agreement with the position. Furthermore, they added that although the evidence is not strong, they have found that, when both candidates' views are unclear, people tend to see their preferred candidate's views on an issue as similar, and the nonpreferred one as dissimilar to themselves.

Researchers studying the 1970 Gubernatorial races in Wisconsin and Colorado found that most voters saw the televised spots of both candidates, but they gave closer attention to the publicity of the candidate they favoured and, as a result, learned more about this candidate than about the other one. (Atkin et al, 1973).

Many communication theorists have argued that people love redundancy and like to expose themselves to arguments with which they already agree and avoid discrepant information (Allport & Postman, 1954; Cooper & Jahoda, 1947; Hastrof & Cantil 1954; and others). Still, there seems to be an equal amount

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of evidence arguing that people do seek out surprising
and discrepant information (McGuire, 1969; Mills, 1968;
Sears, 1968). (This controversy will be discussed
further when examining the motivations for selection.)

However, the point that has to be stressed here is
that selective perception is an intervening variable
in the communication process and some regard it as an
"obstacle" in the way of effective mass communications
(Klapper, 1949).

(c)   Selective retention and recall

As time passes, what was originally perceived and
learned from a communication may be forgotten in
part, or even whole, or undergo change in memory.
It is further argued that selectivity in retention
and recall may also occur so that information dis-
cordant with the receiver's predispositions or needs
may be more readily forgotten or eliminated than
that which is congruent. (Hovland, Lumsdaine &
Sheffield, 1949; Zimmerman & Bauer, 1956).

During the first Kennedy-Nixon debates, Carter (1962),
using a true-false test, found that those who have
claimed to have been interested in, and attentive to,
the debate remembered both candidates' arguments
equally well; however, among the less interested
and attentive, correct recall was higher for the
arguments of their own candidate than of the other.
Correct recall was greater for those subjects who
stated that both candidates presented effective
arguments, next for those who said only their
preferred candidate did, and least for those who
said neither did. In fact, Carter pointed out
that the latter group, not the preceding two,

showed biased recall in favour of their own candidate's arguments.

Sebald (cited in Katz & Feldman, 1962) found that college students were more likely to attribute political statements they disagreed with to the candidate they did not prefer, whereas statements they agreed with were more accurately assigned to the candidate who made them. In addition, when spontaneous recall was asked for, the students tended to remember their own candidate's statements with which they agreed, and the opposing candidate's statements with which they disagreed.

In presenting evidence for the existence of selectivity: whether exposure, perception, retention or recall, the mass media literature does not present clear-cut experimental findings for each exclusively. An experiment which is designed to measure selective perception, for instance, might inherently be measuring selective exposure, retention and recall, as it is the verbal behaviour of the subject under study which determines the final measurement. Of course, there are studies which, being thoroughly controlled, account exclusively for one selectivity process. However, in the majority of cases, all the selectivity processes operate together.

The argument, then, should continue from whether selectivity occurs, to why, and for what reasons.

II. MOTIVATION FOR SELECTIVITY

Various theories have been advanced to explain the causes behind the selection process. It is assumed that a better understanding of the motivations involved would help in designing more effective campaigns by breaking through the defenses. It is important to express strongly that what will be described henceforth are suggested concept-ualizations: much of what happens during a selection process depends very much on the individual involved, the context, the surroundings and several other variables.

A plausible explanation for the selection process could be Freud's "pleasure principle", but a more practical rule-of-thumb was put forth by Schramm (1973)[2]. It is what he called "the fraction of selection":

$$\text{probability of selection} = \frac{\text{expectation of reward}}{\text{effort required}}$$

He explained that, "at the time this was formulated, I was probably influenced by George K. Zipf's 'principle of least effort' which helps explain the wording of the bottom term. I could just as easily have said something about availability. But like Zipf, I was impressed by the tendency of human behaviour, other things being equal, to flow into a path of minimum effort....Consequently, one can raise the probability of selection of a given communication, either by decreasing the lower term (the expected difficulty) or by increasing the upper term (expected reward). These are the individual assessments". (Schramm 1973[2], p. 107). As Schramm pointed out, this equation depends on individual assessment with differing rewards and effort levels involved. A more comprehensive explanation is necessary.

(a) Consistency Theories*

These theories are dominated by the notion of

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*This title is taken from Davison, Boylan & Yu, 1976.

"homeostasis" developed by Heider (1958). They cover
such cognitive psychological aspects as Festinger's
dissonance theory, Heider's balance theory, Osgood
& Tannenbaum's cogruity theory and others. Accord-
ing to this group of theories, people tend to
consciously or subconsciously choose and select from
the endless amount of information hammered upon them
those aspects, ideas and notions that are congruent
and in harmony with their existing beliefs, values,
attitudes and the way they have mapped the world.
For example, Barlett, et al (1974) reported that,
during the Presidential campaign of 1972, researchers
at the University of California designed an experiment
to test whether Republicans and Democrats would each
be more likely to open and read mailed material
supporting their respective political opinions than
to expose themselves to the opinions of the other party.
The results strongly supported the "congruity hypothesis".
Twice as many people who presumably expected to agree
with what they found in the envelopes returned their
postcards as those who did not expect to agree.

The theories also contend that people tend to ignore,
dismiss and discharge, misunderstand and misinterpret
- even forget - the communications that seem to be in
conflict, "dissonant", with their existing outlook.
Examples include Cooper & Jahnda (1947); Vidmar &
Rokeach (1974); Bartlett (1954); Kirkpatrick (1970);
and Sherrod(1971-72).

People also tend to seek other alternatives if they
happened to be in contact with some communication that
was "dissonant" but which did not yet produce change
in their outlook. They might seek reassurance by
discussing their problem with other people who share
their own beliefs and attitudes, or they might argue
it out with themselves that the information is incorrect,

insignificant and attach less weight to it. Examples
include Lazarsfeld, Berelson & Gaudet (1948); Kriesberg
(1949).

Therefore, in summary, "people choose to expose them-
selves to information which is in accord with their
existing ideas; they selectively give their attention
to communications with which they expect to agree; and
if they learn something which conflicts with their
attitudes or values, they forget it, dismiss it as
unimportant, or reinterpret it so as to minimize
dissonance" (Davison, Boylan & Yu, 1976, p. 138).

There are several experimental studies that validate
those theories, a more detailed analysis is found in
Zajonc (1960).

However, those groups of theories did not always present
sufficient explanation for the selection process.
There were instances when the principle of congruity
did not hold.

In one laboratory experiment, a group of cigarette
smokers were divided into those who believed there was
a convincing link between smoking and lung cancer, and
those who did not. They were then presented with two
articles to read, one supporting smoking-cancer evidence,
the other defying it, and were asked to choose to read one
of them. It was found that most of them chose the
article opposed to their existing standing and thus
chose to expose themselves to dissonant information.
In another experiment, subjects were asked to put down
an evaluation of a candidate (whom they knew about) and
who was standing for some overseas assignment. They
were presented with two evaluations, one in favour of
the candidate and the other against, and were asked
to choose one. In most cases, the subjects chose the
article conflicting with their own standing (Sears &

Freedman, 1967).

It is obvious that the existence of selectivity was agreed upon, but the explanation of the motivation behind it is still arguable. Sears and Freedman carried out a thorough study questioning the applicability of the congruity principle in explaining selectivity. They reported that the literature on selective exposure has been unsatisfying partly because the term has been used in a confusing way. The correlation between attitudes and exposure have rarely been distinguished from an "active psychological preference for supportive information", although they may be referring to quite different aspects. They argued that, for attitudes to be an important cause of selective exposure, two criteria must be met in correlation studies:-

> "1. The correlation must be well documented.
> It should hold fairly unequivocally in most cases.
> 2. Attitudes should be better predictors of (i.e. correlate more highly with exposure than other variables."   (p. 213).

Depending on those criteria, Sears & Freedman concluded that:-

1. The available evidence fails to indicate the presence of a general preference for supportive information. Five studies showed some preference for supportive information, eight showed no preference and five showed preference for non-supportive information.

2. Cognitive consistency theory, which poses to be the only systematic effort to explain the conditions under which supportive information might be preferred, has failed to specify particular

circumstances under which selectivity would occur.

3. Another approach should be used, choosing other factors that might effect selectivity, like education and social class, utility of information, past history of exposure to the issue.

4. Research has to turn away from questions regarding selective exposure to studying the factors which chiefly determine voluntary exposure to information and resistance to persuasive messages. (. Sears & Freedman,1967).

Therefore, as consistency theories do not present the sole explanation for selectivity, what other causes are involved?

Schramm (1973)[1] suggested that other causes involved might be:-

a. The availability of the stimulus. Another example that supports this view is Schiller (1973).

b. The contrast of the stimulus with its background. Another example is Atkin (1971).

c. The set of the receiver, i.e. his pre-experience when confronted by a communication.

d. The educational and social status of the receiver. Besides Sears & Freedman (1967), other examples include Steiner (1963) and Wade & Schramm (1969).

e. The estimated usefulness of the stimulus.

This last category brings forth another set of theories that attempted to explain the selection process. They will be called the uses and gratification theories* and they reflect the functional approach in communication research.

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* Taken from Davison, Boylan & Yu (1976.)

(b) Uses and Gratifications Theories

These theories maintain that "we will attend, perceive
and remember information that is pleasurable so that it
in some way will help to satisfy our needs. This
information may or may not be in accord with our
existing ideas, but we will attend to it if we expect
it to be useful or think that it will give us satisfac-
tion. Conversely, according to utility theory, if we
expect a communication to be irrelevant or unpleasant,
we will probably not expose ourselves to it. Or, if
we are exposed anyway, we will disregard or forget it."
(Davison, Boylan & Yu, 1976, p. 139).

Stephenson's pleasure theory of the mass media fits
into this category as it maintains that we tend to
learn that the act of reading, viewing or listening
is pleasant in itself - other things being equal - and
to develop habits of satisfying this pleasure.

One of the main problems in the uses and gratifications
theories is specifying the needs and uses involved.
Different strategies have been attempted to identify
the uses and needs that communications help satisfy.
They involved personal needs, needs instigated as a
result of social situations, social pressures etc.
Examples of such studies include Greenberg (1974);
Chaffee & McLeod (1973); Katz Gurevitch & Haas (1973);
Wiebe (1969-1970); Johnstone (1974); Turow (1974) and
others.

Because the media attempted to gratify such a large
variety of needs, it was found very difficult to
specify them all. Still, two such attempts have been
made by McQuail, Blumler & Brown (1972); and Katz,
Gurevitch & Hass (1973). In general, the following
list covers needs specified in both those attempts:

1. Cognitive needs that involve surveillance of
   the environment and which require the seeking
   and accumulation of information, knowledge
   and facts that might help in decision-making.

2. Affective needs. Ones dealing with emotions,
   aesthetics and the appreciation of the beautiful
   and extraordinary.

3. Individual psychological stability needs that
   cover such factors as confidence, reassurance,
   the ability to understand oneself and confer
   status, to feel important and to gain a sense
   of personal identity.

4. Personal vs. social relationships. The media
   create substitution for companionship and losing
   conversation. On the other hand, it might
   strengthen contact with families, friends and
   other people and produce topics for conversation.

5. Escapism needs, those that release tension, create
   a diversion from problems, helps in emotional
   release and change from routine life.

Conclusion

Selectivity plays a central role in the attention effect.
Understanding the motivations behind it present practical
applications for the designing of information and
persuasion campaigns.

Research indicates that no single principle can fully
explain the process of selectivity but that several aspects
are involved at one time or another.

Whether becuase of availability, habit, consistency or
utility attention, (exposure) to a communication is very
likely to influence an individual or group in one way or
another. Careful consideration of those variables might
help create more successful campaigns.

At this point, another diagram might be useful:

Message → | channel selector | → | selective attention | → | selective perception | → | selective encoding | → | selective congruence |
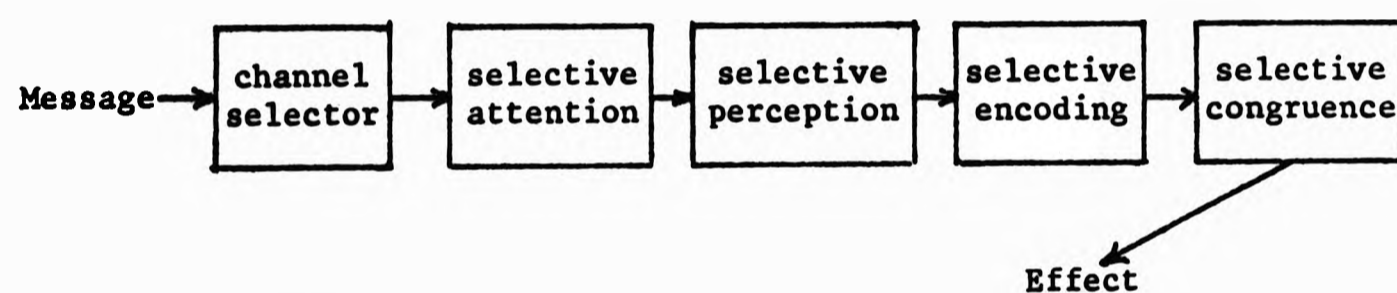
Effect

B. THE MAIN EFFECT

The previous Section described how selectivity plays a
central role in shaping the final form in which the effect
of a mass communication process emerges. Understanding
the motivation behind this selectivity process might help
investigators to design more effective programmes by carry-
ing a more thorough analysis of the target audience under
study.

However, general awareness, attention and perception are
not the only dependent variables involved in a persuasive
mass communication. A persuasive mass communication aims
at modifying attitudes and behaviour. Considering attitudes
only, there are the cognitive, affective and connative
dimensions involved.

What do we know about the different approaches that attempt
to explain the persuasive communication process in relation
to attitudes and behaviour change?

Several theoretical formulations can be found in the liter-
ature, some under the classification of theories of mass
communication. However, the theoretical conceptualizations
that have been developed cannot be categorized exclusively
under the above title. As the field of mass communications
is a borrowing one, the conceptualizations related to it
are heavily dependent on the theories of social psychology
and sociology, even though some writers have focused on
selected lines of theoretical development.

Melvin De Fleur, in his book "Contemporary Theories of Mass Communica-
tions", presented a very thorough analysis of the theoretical
aspects of this field. A large proportion of this work is
based on his analysis.

Another point that has to be cleared up is the inter-
relationship of the theories explaining the motivation

behind the "Attention Effect" and those explaining the
"Main Effect".

Although, at a first glance through the literature, the
theories might seem different, a more thorough examination
shows that they are all based on the same basic principles.
Consistency theories, functional theories are employed tc
explain selectivity as well as attitude and behaviour change.
However, in the latter case, they are usually found grouped
under the two schools of learning and group dynamics. The
theories, in fact, are employed to complement each other
in explaining the total communication process.

This section will examine some of the conceptualizations
and theories explaining attitude and behaviour change and
their application to the mass communication process and
the study of mass communication effects.

I. THE CLASSICAL ATTITUDE CHANGE APPROACH

This theoretical orientation can be found in the literature
under several other categorizations. Its approach covers
the known school of communication and attitude change
exemplified by Carl Hovland and his associates of the
Yale Institute of Communication Research. Among those who
have also brought this conceptualization to bear creatively
upon attitude change problems are also Donald Campbell
(1963) and Norman Anderson (1959, 1962). This approach has
also been called "the individual differences theory" (De
Fleur, 1972) and "the learning paradigm theory: (McGuire,
1973).

It is based on the Learning Theory approach, the S-R formula-
tion. Persuasion, here, is treated as a learning process.
The substance of this orientation is to predict that any

communication variable will be related to attitude change
as it is related to learning. Any communication that
enhances learning will also enhance attitude change. The
assumptions underlying this approach as explained by
Zimbardo & Ebbesen (1970) are:-

i)   Man is a rational information-processing organism
        who, if motivated, would attend to a communication,
        learn its content, and if this learning is reward-
        ing, would respond (verbally or otherwise)
        accordingly.

ii)   The human individual is made up from some inherited
        mechanisms but mostly from the environment that
        surrounds him, thus creating differential learning.
        As a result of these learning environments, he
        acquires a set of values, beliefs, attitudes, that
        constitute his personal psychological makeup, which
        can also be called his personality structure.

iii)   Experimental research in human perception had
        revealed that these acquired values, attitudes and
        beliefs, etc., play a very influential role in how
        the individual selects and perceives stimuli from
        his environment. They do not only influence what
        stimuli he attends to, but also how he perceives
        them, explains them and categorizes them into his
        own frame-of-reference.

Therefore, individuals with different personality structures,
which have been formed on the basis of their learned enviro-
mental acquisition of certain values, attitudes, etc.,
would perceive communications differently. As a result
of this, it can be suggested that selective individual
attention and perception, which depend on one's psychological
makeup, had become intervening psychological mechanisms

that could be entered into the S-R formulation in an attempt
to explain differential responses.

It has to be noted here, though briefly, that another
conceptualization reflecting the same approach but based
on a different explanation to the persuasion process is
what has been called the categorizating paradigm (McGuire 1973).
This formulation is originally based on the perceptual theory
approach to attitude change as exemplified by Asch (1948,
1952).

It basically contends that the persuasion process involves
not simply the changing of the recipient's opinion about a
given object, but rather his perception of the object that
he is giving his opinion about. Therefore, it can be argued
that the perceptual approach stresses upon the recipient in
a communication process while the learning approach is more
involved with the actual "change". However, though the
reasons differ, the same predictions are usually made.

Proponents of this approach are social-judgement theorists,
such as Muzafa & Carolyn Sherif (1965).

In contrast to the learning theorists who look upon attitude
change as a consequence of conditioning a new evaluative
response to an old stimulus, theorists of this approach look
upon persuasion as involving a shifting of the individual's
perception of the stimulus under evaluation.

II. THE SOCIAL CATEGORIES APPROACH

In attempting to design effective mass persuasive commun-
ications, mass media investigators have found it very
difficult to take into account all individual psychological
variables and all the individual predispositions. It was

necessary to find a simpler way of classifying audiences
so that their responses to communication could more easily
be predicted. With the development of survey research, it
was discovered that college students had different media
tastes from non-college people, men from women, poor from
well-to-do, children from adolescents and adults, and so
forth. In addition to this, researchers found that people
who held certain clusters of attitudes, or beliefs would
respond differently from others. (Lazarsfeld, 1948).

So another conceptualization regarding the effectiveness
of mass communications developed. This conceptualization
overlaps with the Individual Differences theory, but stems
from a sociological discipline. De Fleur named this form-
ulation "The Social Categories Theory". He explained that
its main propositions were as follows:

> "There are broad collectivities, aggregates
> or social categories in urban industrial societies,
> whose behaviour in the face of a given set of
> stimuli is more or less uniform. Such character-
> istics as age, sex, income level, educational
> attainment, rural-urban residence or religious
> affiliation." (De Fleur, 1972, p. 122).

Other researchers who examined this conceptualization are
Lazarsfeld, (1948) & Schramm (1973)[1].

The approach is a sociological one. The hypothesis states
that, in spite of the heterogeneity of modern society, people
who have a number of similar characteristics will have
similar "folkways". These similar modes of orientation will
relate them in fairly uniform manner, and they will respond
in roughly equal ways.

Both approaches, the Individual differences formulation and
the Social Categories formulation, represent modifications
of the original mechanistic S-R theory, substituting on the

one hand, latent psychological processes, and on the
other, uniformities within social categories, as inter-
vening variables between communication stimuli and
responses.

Persuasion Model I

The crux of these theoretical formulations is that
for a persuasive message to be effective, it has to be
designed in such a way that it becomes capable of
altering the psychological structures of an individual
so that he would be induced to respond overtly towards
the aspect of persuasion in the direction intended by
the communicator (De Fleur, 1972). Put in other words,
the basic assumption underlying this process is that,
by modifying the internal psychological structure of
the individual, the relationship between attitudes, values,
motivation etc., and consequent overt behaviour, will be
as intended by the persuader.

De Fleur has named this model of persuasion the
"psychodynamic model", and has been portrayed by him
in simple graphic terms as follows:-

Persuasive Message	→	Alters latent psychological processes	→	Achieves change in overt action
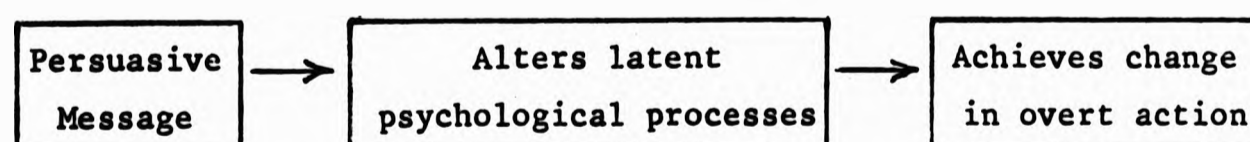
This model has been backed by impressive experimental
evidence. (Hovland, Lumsdaine & Sheffield, 1949; Hovland
& Weiss, 1951) plus others.

Still, this model does have its weak points:

(a)   The researchers who employed this strategy
       sometimes make unrealistic assumptions, for
       example, some experimentalists have been
       willing to assume that if their communication

was able to demonstrate change in information
or attitudes, then patterns of overt behaviour
would be correspondingly changed. As discussed
earlier, this is not necessarily true.

(b)   There are a number of contradictory findings
        in experiments using the"fear and threat appeal".
        The phenomenon has been referred to as the
        "Boomerang effect", yet this persuasion model
        cannot present a plausible explanation for it.
        Other approaches were found necessary.

(c)   It has to be accepted that incidental learning
        is always going on without the intent of the
        persuader (attitude change without persuasion.)

(d)   Klapper and several other researchers have always
        pointed out   the importance of using other
        variables besides individual personality character-
        istics or social categories in developing theories
        of effects of the media. They all warned of the
        danger inherent in constructing simple cause-effect
        type of theory.

Bernard Berelson best portrayed this model when he
attempted to summarize the field of mass communications
as it existed in the late 1940's. He explained how the
older theory of the "all powerful media", (the human
tabula rasa), has been abandoned, and how other factors
seemed to focus the research attention at the time.

> "Now in the 1940's, a body of research is
> accumulating which provides some rediffused
> knowledge on the effect of communication on
> public opinion, and promises to provide a good
> deal more in the next year. But what has
> research contributed to the problem?.......

The proper answer to the problem, the answer
that constitutes a useful formulation for
research purposes is this: some kinds of
communications, on some kinds of issues,
brought to the attention of some kinds of
people, under some kinds of conditions, have
some kinds of effects."

(Berelson, 1954 p.345)

In other words:

Independent variables: messages on a given issue
under known conditions,

are Modified in their Impact on the.....

Dependent variable: effects,

by....

Intervening variables: kinds of people. (ie. their
individual differences, relevant
psychological variables or
social categories)

III. THE COGNITIVE APPROACH

In contrast to the classical attitude change and social
categories approaches, this approach is based on the
school of group dynamics. It is exemplified by Kurt Lewin
and the research from the Centre for Groups at the Uni-
versity of Michigan. Lewin developed the concepts of field
theory and "life space" and is regarded as the pioneer in
studies of group communication and group effects.

The basic propositions of this approach as summarized by
Zimbardo & Ebbesen (1970) are as follows:

"Man is a social being who needs other people
as a basis for:
(a) self knowledge,
(b) determining appropriate responses to
     environmental demands, and
(c) channeling and regulating his current
     behaviour through the operation of group
     . norms."

(p. 16)

Scholars using this approach would be more likely to explain
a persuasive process as it is based on an individual's
cognitive and ego structure defenses, his images of reality,
his learning by "insight" as well as by reinforcement of
responses, his affiliation to membership groups and ref-
erence groups, his attachment to social norms and the effect
of group participation and social role-playing on his final
belief, attitude and decision (Schramm, 1973)[2].

(i) Consistency Theories

One of the most influential contributions of the
cognitive approach to the study of human communica-
tions has been the "consistency theories". Cognitive
theorists such as Fritz Heider, Leon Festinger, Charles
Osgood and Theodore Newcomb have developed models that
explain attitude modifications in terms of a "strain
towards balance" in the beliefs and emotions of the
individual. It is a homeostatic model in the sense
that a person tries to maintain a logical consistency
in his cognitive and affective aspects. The concept
of "strain toward cognitive balance", or "toward inner
consistency" was first developed by Heider (1958).
He maintained that an individual attempts to keep his
sentiment regarding another individual consistent with
their mutual liking or dislike for a third individual,

object or idea. Newcomb's A-B-X theory, illustrated
by his diagrams, also calls for "strain toward
symmetry" on the basis of Heider's propositions.
Cartwright & Harary generalized Newcomb's model of
symmetrical relationship to include any number of
inter-relationships. (Newcomb , 1953; Cartwright &
Harary, 1956).

Leon Festinger's "cognitive dissonance" theory explained
such phenomena as why a person seeks further supporting
information even after the behavioural act has occurred.
Festinger argued that dissonance would act like a drive
to motivate any kind of behaviour in order to
reduce it. Osgood's "theory of congruity" attempted to
bridge the gap between the experimental S-R theorists
and the cognitive theorists concept of drive. The
theory of "congruity" was developed on the basis of
the findings that individuals tend to balance their
attitudes towards the communicator of a message with
the attitudes towards the message itself.

Although group dynamics theories have proved to be a
useful and sometimes effective way of explaining and
predicting communication behaviour and effect, both
in relation to the main effects of beliefs,
attitude and the preliminary effects of selectivity
in exposure, perception and retention, they are not
without some weaknesses.

Consistency theories have been criticized on both method-
ological grounds and on the basis of some structural
flaws. For instance, one difficulty in relation to
dissonance theory is its failure to specify exactly
the cognitive elements of relevance in a given situation.
It is therefore left to the investigator's intuition
to figure out and select the relevant elements. Some
investigators may employ measures of beliefs, others
of attitudes etc.

The attack and counter-attack on consistency theories
cover an extensive literature and it is beyond the
scope of this study to deal with it justifiably.
However, a critical analysis can be found in
Tannenbaum (1968), Kiesler, Collins & Miller (1969).

In the majority of cases, researchers do not take an
extreme position in choosing one school vs. the other[*]
for their analysis. As a matter of fact, both schools
share many concepts and it will be the policy in this
study, as in many communication studies, to select
useful elements from both. (A model of communication
effect, applying concepts from both schools, will be
discussed in the next section while discussing the
conditions upon which mass communications can have
direct effects).

The above theories apply to the explanation of
communications in general. However, there are some
theories or pre-theories which have developed
specifically on the basis of the study of mass
communications. Although their conceptual basis is
dependant on the schools discussed, their applications
are more involved with mass media channels.

(ii) The Two step Flow of Communication

Another elaboration of the cognitive approach to the
study of mass communication effects is what has been
known in research as the "Personal Influence" of
effects. (Katz & Lazarsfeld, 1955).

This has been discovered almost by accident and is more
related to mass media research than simple communica-
tion studies. Katz & Lazarsfeld (1955) said, "until very
recently, the image of society in the minds of most

[*] i.e. the S-R learning theory approach vs the cognitive theory approach.

students of communication was of the atomized individuals, connected with the mass media, but not with one another. Society - 'the audience' - was conceived of as aggregates of age, sex, social class and the like, but little thought was given to the relationship implied thereby to more informal relationships". (p. 15)

This aspect of informal relationships was actually first presented in a study in the 1940's involving an elaborate research design to find the impact of voters of that year's mass communication Presidential election, done by Lazarsfeld, Berlson & Gaudet.

These and other similar findings proclaimed the recognition of the fact that informal social relationships played a significant role in modifying the way an individual responds to a given message, passed to him through the mass media.

A lot of research was carried out after this finding. Some found that people whose first-hand exposure to the media was limited actually got their information from other people, who got it first-hand. The latter group were called "opinion leaders". Even more research developed from here to discover more about the characteristics of those opinion leaders.

The important point to note here is that this research was beginning to suggest that there was a kind of movement of information through two basic stages:

1. Information moved from the media to well-informed individuals who attend to mass communications first-hand.

2. It moved from those persons through interpersonal channels to individuals who had less direct exposure to the media, and who depended upon others for

their information.

This kind of communication process was termed the two-step flow of communication. At the same time, study of rural sociology showed farmers' informal relationships played a vital role in determining his propensity to adopt a certain agricultural innovation.

The recognition of convergence of theory between the students of mass communication and students of rural sociology(who were studying the diffusion of farm technology)stimulated a surge of interest in the diffusion and adoption process of innovations, insofar as it was connected with the mass communication process. A vast amount of literature can be cited in relation to this concept of the diffusion of innovations, of which Rogers (1962) has a cumulative review. Other examples include Katz (1955); Lazarsfeld (1948); and more recently Rogers & Shoemaker (1971); De Fleur(1972) .

Most researches now are inclined toward a multi-step flow model by which to study diffusion of information or decision making. It is accepted that there might exist, in a communication situation, numerous Opinion Leaders who themselves, under certain conditions, sometimes turn to others for information (role reversals) before a final decision is made.

However, there are situations where the links between the communicator and the recipient are direct. One example is information about major news events, where little or no decision-making is involved. (Deutschmann & Danielson, 1960).

(iii) The Cultural Norms Theory *

This is a further elaboration of the Group Dynamics
approach, specifically in relation to mass communi-
cations. Its formulation as a theory as such has
received little attention, even though it has been
implicit in the writing of mass communication for a
long time. De Fleur (1972) was the first to
categorize it as a theory and most of the explanation
as to how to integrate this category was done by him.
His definition of the theory as it stands is that it
essentially postulates that "the mass media, through
selective presentations, and emphasis of certain
themes, create impressions amongst their audiences
that common cultural norms concerning the emphasized
topic are structured or defined in some specific way.
Since individual behaviour is usually guided by
cultural norms (or the actor's impression of what
norms are), with respect to a given topic or situation,
the media would then serve indirectly to influence
conduct." (p. 129).

He adds that, in social psychological terms, it can be
said that the media present a "definition of the
situation", which the audience believe to be real.
Moreover, this definition presents a sort of guidance
for action which appears to be approved and supported
by society. This conduct is, therefore, indirectly
shaped by exposure to communications.

De Fleur states that there are at least 3 ways in which
the media can (potentially) influence norms and the
definition of the situation for the individual:

1.   Mass communication content can reinforce
      existing patterns. People are thus made to
      believe that the social norms that exist are

*Title and analysis by De Fleur (1972).

still maintained by society. For example,
it seems that the media generally avoid.
posing serious challenges to fundementals
of values, like supporting blasphemy or
political anarchy. Lazarsfeld and Merton,
in a frequently cited essay, declared that
the media tend to reinforce the status quo
rather than create new norms of significance
or change deeply institutionalized patterns.
(Lazarsfeld & Merton 1948).

2. The media can create <u>new shared convictions</u>
    with respect to topics with which the public
    has had little prior experience. It thus
    can sometimes stimulate a new form of
    behaviour that receives widespread approval
    thus creating new cultural norms.

3. They can <u>change existing norms</u> and so convert
    people from one form of behaviour to another.
    This is a controversial point, for there is
    considerable research evidence that argues
    that the media alone are not capable of chan-
    ging behaviour. See for instance researchers
    such as Klapper(1960); McGuire(1969) and others.

(This controversy about the capability of the media
to convert will be discussed thoroughly later.)

Overall, the cultural norms theory remains one of the
least tested, most controversial and potentially most
significant of contemporary theories of mass communi-
cation. (De Fleur, 1972)

Persuasion Model 2:   How can those three elaborations of
the group dynamics approach explain the persuasion process?

A combination of all the elaborations of the group
dynamic approach, the consistency aspect, the informal
communication aspect and the cultural norms aspect can
form a persuasion model that is, in my opinion, a
better explanatory model of the persuasion process.

It can be stated briefly that, in this situation, the
instrument of change is a group norm discrepant with
the individuals attitude or behaviour, a norm which
may be communicated informally. The agent of change
on the other hand would be pressure towards uniformity
within a group coupled with the need to be accepted
in the group, or a fear of being rejected from it;
De Fleur called this model the "Socio-Cultural model". This
persuasion model is based on his analysis._ He explained that
little systematic theory has emerged from experimental
research on persuasion using those variables as a basis
for appeals in the persuasive communication. Though
these social and cultural variables have always been
recognised as existing, their incorporation into
messages designed to persuade received little atten-
tion. The reason could be the great significance given
to the individual as the sole decider of his fate,
(Hovland's approach). In fact, the social and cultural
variables were in some research regarded as obstacles
to achieving persuasion, as in Hyman & Sheatsley (1947)

Still, a considerable amount of research has been done
on socio-cultural variables as the source from which
the individual derives interpretations of reality,
as well as being significant forms of social control.
Examples in this case are Asch, 1958; Newcombe, 1955;
Gordon, 1952; and others.   All those
studies point to the fact that such variables as

primary group norms, organizational membership,
reference groups, work roles and cultural norms
can play a vital part in the forming, shaping
and channeling of overt action in ways that are,
to some extent, uninfluenced by internal psycho-
logical pre-dispositions. It must be noted that
behaviour patterns of a given individual can seldom
be accurately interpreted on the basis of individual
psychological variables as it is obvious the
individual is acting in a social context and not
in a vacuum. To explain, predict or manipulate
such behaviour, reference must be made to:

    a)   Culturally defined or shared values;

    b)   Roles;

    c)   Expectations and beliefs;

    d)   Social controls;

    e)   Social norms.

All of those aspects surround the action of an individual
and should be effectively understood.

It is explained by De Fleur, that even in cases where
the individual's predispositions run contrary to
the action suggested, it may be possible to obtain
compliance by suggesting to the individual a set
of social and cultural constraints, to which he
feels compelled to conform (specifically, if he
has not yet formulated strong psychological pre-
dispositions one way or the other towards the
object of persuasion). He added,"in such a case, he would
hold few group-derived definitions of appropriate
action towards it. Under such conditions, suggested
definitions would pose little social or psychological
conflict in following the modes of action prescribed

by the communicator",(p.146). In graphic terms DeFleur's
model is:

Persuasive Message	Defines or re-defines socio-cultural pro-cesses of groups	Forming or alter-ing definitions for socially app-roved behaviour for group members.	Achieves change in the direc-tion of overt action.
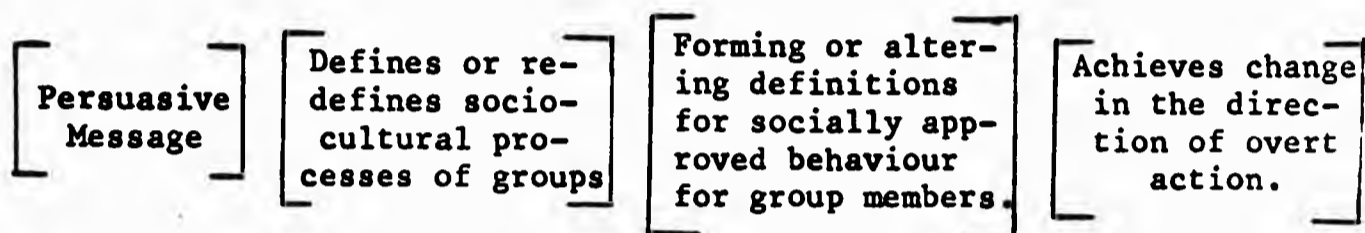
Therefore, 'reality' in this context is defined and
interpreted within social frameworks. This general-
ization has often been called the "reality principle",
and the interactional process by which such a defin-
ition is achieved is called "consensus validation".
These two concepts are relevant to the present con-
ceptualization in that it is suggested that "the
persuasive messages presented via the media may
provide the appearance of consensus with respect to a
given object or goal of persuasion."(p.147). De Fleur stre-
ssed further that this can be used in persuasion strategy.
With skillful use of the media, therefore, plus the
use of social norms, roles and social controls, in
real ways, a campaign can be made successful.

Before an attempt is made to evaluate those theories,
it is perhaps of significance to mention some other
theories that are relevant to mass communications -
very briefly.

Of course there exists the "functional approach" to
the study of media effects which has been discussed
under the attention effect section. However, it can
be similarly applied to the explanation of the
Main Effect.

Marshall McLuhan's "The Medium is the Message" has
generated a new concept of mass communication and
produced considerable controversy because of its alleged

looseness and highly intuitive - even mystical -
origin. Some scholars have misinterpreted "the
Medium is the Message" to mean that the messages
that the media hold are insignificant. This is
not wholly true. "The Medium is the Message" means
in the broadest sense that all forms of media in all
ages contain messages for both their present gener-
ations and for posterity. McLuhan visualizes societies
now at the interface of two cultures - print and
electronic - trying to treat new and radical develop-
ments with old tools and print technology: "looking
forward through a rearview mirror." With this view
and the emergence of his Cool and Hot media, McLuhan's
theories are specifically based on the electronic
revolution. He maintains that the form of the medium
itself, has greater effect on society than the
messages it contains. This is not to discount the
effect of the content, but rather to emphasize the
effect of the long-term, often overlooked, media forms.

Finally, Stephenson's "Play Theory", which is also
the most recent(1967)is significant for several reasons.
Starting from complex Q-Sort methodology, he presents
empirical evidence of the relationship between the
mass media, mass audiences and the entertainment
function. This made him give firm support to the
notion of consumer as producer: "In my view, mass
communications is better understood as being manipulated
subjectively by its audiences who thoroughly enjoyed
what they are being offered for the first time in man's
history." Only in this Play theory do we find such
a close association between entertainment and
affluence, and by inference, the advertising that
pursues affluence. However, Stephenson's greatest
contribution, perhaps, is the distinction, hinted
at by others of two different forms of persuasion,
one of which he identifies as "social control". This
kind of persuasion associated with politics and public

opinion change is said to have its basis in one's deepest
beliefs and attitudes that are difficult to change.
The other form of persuasion Stephenson called
"convergent selectivity" on the part of the individuals,
which is in fact the perception of a message by an
individual to have nothing of substance at stake,
thus as no basic rules are involved, the members of
the audience feel free to indulge themselves. The
weakness of Stephenson's theory is his partial exclusion
of information as a major factor in mass communication.

Conclusion

There are a number of problems associated with most
of the conceptualizations and theories discussed,
especially in their relationship to mass communication
effects: De Fleur suggested two:

1. Media researchers seemed to have lost interest in
   some of those conceptualizations altogether and
   they are at a standstill as far as further develop-
   ment is concerned.

2. Those formulations (if considered within a frame-
   work of more rigorous criteria) can be made into real
   theories. This is not to discount their validity,
   but they need to be completely rewritten as
   systematic sets of propositions that show, in
   logical reasoning terms, just what is supposed
   to be related to what in terms of independant and
   dependant variables.

He added that:
There is a serious gap between what we think we know
about how mass communication effects occur, and a
rigorous set of theoretical formulations that specify
how they actually work.

De Fleur suggested that one obvious approach to theory
is to combine all the elaborations presented of the atti-
tude change approach and the group dynamics approach.

"Such an integrated theory would recognize that the effects
of a given mass communication message, sent over a given
channel, will depend upon a large number of psychological
characteristics and social category similarities among the
members of the audience, these effects will, in turn depend
upon the kind of social groups within which these people are
acting and the relationship which they have with specific
types of people within them. They will also depend upon
the social norms that prevail among such groups in reality
as well as upon the definitions of the situation which the
communicated messages are about to suggest. Perhaps when it
is possible to pin-point some of those variables in detail,
a truly developed theory of mass communication can evolve."

(p. 153).

This presentation has attempted to show the basic relation-
ship between the theoretical development of the social and
psychological siences, and the more specific formulations
that have emerged from mass communication research concern-
ing the effects of the media. The psychologists gave up
the idea of the mechanistic theory of mass communication,
which postulated uniform response to communication stimuli & the
'Bullet theory', to the idea of individual differences in
response to the mass media. At the same time, sociologists
identified behavioural uniformities among significant
social categories as well as "primary groups" in what was
known as a strictly "mass society". This led to the accept-
ance of the significance of informal   relationship in mass
communication research. Finally, De Fleur's recognition of
the importance of the place of social norms in human life,
especially in their relation to media communication, although
they have been central to sociological and anthropological
theory for some time.

C.   A MODEL OF COMMUNICATION EFFECTS

One of the early models portraying how a communication can
can have and create differential effects was suggested by
Dorwin Cartwright (1949) in his paper "Principles of Mass
Persuasion". Although it is one of the most useful models
available in communication research, it is a wholly rational
model, emphasizing total rational decision-making. It does
not account for irrational behaviour and pays little atten-
tion to social pressures and cultural norms in which action
takes place. It is an explanatory rather than a descriptive
model.

Another model, partly based on Cartwright's principles, was
suggested by Schramm (1973)[2]. However, Schramm's model of
how communication can have an effect is maliable, and allows
for the combination of all possible elements involved in
addition to reference to the different schools of thought.

The levels of the components of mass communication effects
have been described in Chapter III. As it was emphasized
there, those levels represent hypothetical steps in effects
that help a communicator to understand and evaluate a
campaign. The levels do not necessarily happen in a speci-
fic hierarchy (see Section D); they are not necessary for
each other or sufficient on their own. This section
elaborates on those levels with the additional theoretical
background and the different schools of thought discussed
earlier.

The following is a summary of Schramm's (1973)[2] model as
described in pps. 200 - 210.

1. The Attention Effect

Before anything else can happen, a message must capture and
sustain the attention of the receiver. For this to occur,
the message must be able to overcome all the motivational
aspects behind "selectivity" (as described earlier).

2. The Main Effect

i) "If there is to be change through communication,
   something must be learned: some new element must
   be introduced into the cognitive structure".

   The new element may be:

   a)   A different image of the situation.

   b)   A new motivation to act in a specific way.

   c)   New information on how to satisfy an existing
        motivation or need.

   d)   Social pressure and control; cultural norms
        and expectations.

   e)   Dissonant information that causes enough
        discord to encourage its revision, and so on.

   Neither learning theory nor cognitive theory has any
   monopoly on the patterns for getting the new information
   introduced.

   To maximize the effectiveness, the communicator has to
   balance carefully all the variables involved in the
   communication process: the channel used, the accept-
   ability of the source, the organization of the message
   and type of appeal as related to the audience under study.

ii) "How the new information is processed will depend
on how it fits into the present cognitive structure."

Although one school might talk about cognitive structure
while the other about attitudes and beliefs, or learned
responses or motivation, there is basically no essential
difference between them regarding communication effects.

Schramm listed some basic principles for processing new
information:

a) Other things being equal, the more unfamiliar the infor-
mation, the less change will be required in the
existing cognitive structure, and therefore, the
more likely it will be accepted.

b) If the new information does not seriously
challenge existing positions and beliefs,
but simply confirms, clarifies or enlarges
upon them, the more likely it will be
accepted.

c) If the new information suggests only a 'slight'
change that requires no basic reorganization,
or. reconsideration, of strongly held positions,
again, it is more likely to be accepted.
This is what Lazarsfeld & Merton (1948) called
"Canalization" of attitude:channeling existing
motivation into slightly differing ones .

d) If the new element outwardly challenges deeply
held beliefs, a number of things might happen.
It might be rejected outright, or maybe dis-
torted, misperceived, but it might also be able
to combat the strong defenses and be eventually
accepted.

To sum up, if a new element of information is visualized
as interesting and reasonably credible, and if it fits
into the cognitive structure of the individual without
encountering strong existing beliefs and attitudes, thus
simply confirming, clarifying, extending or slightly
canalizing a part of the individual's cognitive holdings,
the probability of its being accepted is high.

However, if it challenges the cognitive structure centrally,
whereby all the ego defenses are aroused, there is a
bigger chance of rejection or distortion to fit versus
acceptance.

iii) "If there is to be significant change in strongly-held
positions, a person must accept a significantly differ-
ent view of the situation in which he is operating."

The fact that some atheists have been converted, some
smokers have stopped smoking and some conservatives
have turned radical exists.

However, for something like this to happen, something
must have roused a drive or motivation sufficient
to overpower the defenses, enough to trigger the
accumulated pressure for change. What can that something
be? Fear, emotional attachment, unbearable social
pressure, social and culturally defined normative
expectations - it all depends on the individual and the
communication situation.

Schramm stresses that the introduction of some new infor-
mation, credible enough to be accepted, not strong enough
to be rejected out of hand, inconsistent with existing
positions and thus uncomfortable to live with without the
change of present beliefs and attitudes to bring har-
mony and balance is possible in some cases.

3. The Action Effect

For a communication to trigger off an action:

a) A goal (e.g. satisfying needs) should be made apparent
    and some incentive to take action made active. It is
    essential, though, that the actions fit an accepted
    cognitive goal of the individual.

b) If possible, an action should be seen to satisfy more
    than one goal.

c) The easiest, cheapest and most attractive path to
    the goal should be pointed out.

d) The path for action should be made direct, clear and
    specific and a motivational structure aroused to act
    immediately

These steps help clarify how a communication can have an
effect.

Cartwright's, Schramm's and other communication models are
examples of attempts at applying the relevant theories in
the field of persuasion to explain how mass communications
affect behaviour. These models assume that "behavioural
change" is not an instantaneous or random event, and they
attempt to specify the "antecedents" of change hoping that
such specifications may result in a better understanding
of persuasive communications, and therefore help in the
design of more effective persuasive campaigns.

In the following section, we shall discuss how there is
a controversy over those "antecedents" of change and their
applicability to designing campaigns.

D. THE HIERARCHY OF EFFECTS

In communication research, the application of theoretical conceptualizations to the planning of effective campaigns is not always a clear-cut matter.

The question as to which constructs in a theory are the most relevant, which variables play the central role, in what ways are they inter-related and how to use them in the evaluation of a campaign presents a number of problems.

Put in other words, in a specific persuasive communication situation, does learning precede attitude change, which is then followed by overt behavioural action? Or, does overt action take place first, which then enforces a consistency in attitudes, and trigger information-seeking to justify it? Or, is learning followed by behavioural action, while attitude change depends on the evaluation of the consequences of this action?

The question of the hierarchy of effects exemplifies the search, trying to find a practical solution for planning and evaluating a campaign from a highly complex behavioural phenomenon.

The basic hierarchy of effects model consists of a sequence of mental stages or levels, which an individual is hypothesised to experience during a persuasive communication.

Use of the hierarchy of effects can best be understood in the context of the total flow of communication decisions when planning a campaign. A campaign designer will not only set out his overall goals and determine how the communication will attempt to achieve that goal, but he might also want to show how each element of the communication will be used. While the overall purpose of a campaign may be the final

overt behavioural action, like increase in sales, voting,
stopping smoking, etc., the goal of each communication
element is less spectacular, but important in its own
right.

The point is, a communication always has an effect in terms
of a specific level of response. The sequence of those
levels differs from the simple to the more complex, or vice
versa, in accordance with the differing schools discussed
above. The question as to which hierarchy is the correct
one to be used in a particular communication has not yet
been fully resolved. However, Ray (1973), who carried out a
thorough experimental study on this problem showed that there
are certain conditions (variables) in a communication situ-
ation which make the application of one hierarchy vs.
another more relevant for a particular study.

Ray (1973) maintained that the majority of research seemed
to indicate the presence of three-order hierarchy models:

1. The Learning Hierarchy:

    Here, the cognitive stage precedes the affective
    which precedes the connative.
    cognitive - affective - connative

2. The Dissonance-Attribution Hierarchy:

    Here, the connative stage precedes the affective,
    which is then followed by the cognitive.
    connative - affective - cognitive

3. The Low-Involvement Hierarchy:

    Here, the cognitive stage precedes the connative
    stage, which precedes the affective stage.
    cognitive - connative - affective

Each of those models was supported by theory and empirical evidence. For a discussion of modified models, see Robertson(1971).

Ray (1973) argued that his experimental research pointed out that the decision as to which communication model is relevant depends mostly on a combination of three factors:

    (a)   involvement
    (b)   differentiation of alternatives
and (c)   communication source

The testing of this hypothesis was based on rather elaborate laboratory experiments where subjects were brought in under the cover story of evaluating "Shopping of the Future" situations, shown a stream of advertisements on a television screen and then measurements were taken of their positions after exposure.

Ray maintained that this laboratory technique provided optimal arrangements for examining the three-orders model because, "the technique has multiple measurement, repetitive exposure and the opportunity to vary conditions enough to observe the various hierarchical patterns. At the same time, the materials are viewed in an unbiased way by use of a cover story and other procedures which disguise the purpose of the experiments until debriefing. In addition, the conditions of viewing are quite natural for a laboratory experiment; the viewing room is made into an "in-home" environment, several people are viewing at any given time, and there are noises and distractions common to ordinary viewing. Instructions also discourage respondents from paying any more than ordinary attention to the advertisements and commercials."   (p. 157).

A brief description of how those three-order models have been used in practical research, plus Ray's analysis of the conditions involved, will help clarify how theory can

be applied in the planning and evaluation.of campaigns.

I.   THE LEARNING HIERARCHY

This is the one propagating a stairstep progression by
learning, followed by attitude change and finally leading
to behavioural change. The original students of this
model in marketing communication,Lavidge & Steiner (1961),
presented a detailed diagram to exemplify the hierarchy
and its applications for adoption in advertising research.

Advertising and Advertising Research Related to the Model

Related Behavioural Dimensions	Movement towards Purchase	Examples of types of promotion or advertising relevant to various steps.	Examples of research approaches related to steps of greatest applicability
CONATIVE the realm of motives. Ads. stimulate or direct desires	Purchase ↑ Conviction	Point-of-purchase. Retail store ads. Deals. "Last chance" offers Price appeals. Testimonials .	Market or sales test. Split-run tests. Intention to purchase. Projective techniques .
AFFECTIVE the realm of emotions. Ads. change attitudes and feelings.	Preference ↑ Liking	Competitive Ads. Argumentative copy. Image Ads. Status, glamour appeals .	Rank order of preference for brands. Rating scales . Image measurements, including check lists & semantic differentials. Projective techniques.
COGNITIVE the realm of thoughts. Ads. provide information and thoughts.	Knowledge ↑ Awareness	Announcements. Descriptive copy. Classified Ads. Slogans. Jingles. Sky writing. Teaser campaigns.	Information questions. Play back analyses. Brand awareness surveys . Aided recall .

Lavidge & Steiner (1961) p. 61

According to this model, Lavidge & Steiner explained that, for an advertising campaign to be successful, the campaigners have to look into functions of advertising so as to account for the problem faced in evaluation of the programme. These could include:

1. Determine what steps are most critical in a particular case: that is, what the steps leading to purchase are for most consumers.

2. Determine how many people are at the moment on which step.

3. Determine which people on which steps it is most important to reach. (p. 61)

The extent of the success of advertising can then be evaluated by moving the particular "target" audiences up those critical purchase steps.

This viewpoint of the hierarchy of effects has become widely used in advertising circles for many years. The wording of the process differed, but the general basis of the model remained. Examples included such models as the acronym AIDA, standing for Attention, Interest, Desire and Action. (Sandage & Vernon, 1963); awareness, acceptance, preference, intention to buy and provocation of sale (Wolf, Brown & Thomson, 1962); awareness, comprehension, conviction and action (Coley, 1961), etc.

McGuire's six behavioural steps of persuasion are another example of this hierarchical model. McGuire (1968) bases this model on a learning-behaviouristic approach to explain persuasion.

However, McGuire still argued that this learning-behaviour-istic approach does not necessarily explain all communications

(McGuire, 1968, 1973). There are conditions which make
this strategy plausible and they basically are involvement
in the topic being propagated, and the clear differences
between alternatives. Ray also found thatthis hierarch-
ical model usually occurs when there is "high involvement"
in the object of change and when there are several alterna-
tive choices still available.

For example, research on the diffusion of new products and
innovations illustrates the conditions whereby the audiences
are very interested in the new ideas involved, and the
products or ideas provide clear alternatives. Under such
conditions of high involvement and clear differences between
alternatives, the audience members might first become aware,
then develop interest, make evaluations, try and adopt -
the adoption process hierarchy (Ray, 1973).

Obviously, there are exceptions to this hierarchy in the
adoption process, especially when the availability of mass
media sources vary. (Robertson, 1971; Rogers & Shoemaker,
1971; Palda, 1966).

In a marketing communication situation, the stress lies
mainly on a mass media information source. However, when
the source becomes "personal" and not media, the argument
moves towards another type of hierarchy: the dissonance
attribution hierarchy.

II. THE DISSONANCE ATTRIBUTION HIERARCHY

This hierarchy is the exact opposite of the learning one,
and it reflects the theoretical implications of cognitive
psychology, specifically dissonance and attribution theories.
The model explains the situation where behaviour occurs first;
it is then followed by attitude change, which then triggers
learning.

It is assumed that, under some circumstances, an individual might behave in a specific way, then he would start justifying his action by liking the way he has behaved; this further leads to learning more about this specific behaviour choice so as to defend it. It is further argued that the individual in the first place might depend on personal sources for choosing such an action, then he would seek media information to bolster it. Dissonance and attribution theorists would argue that the individual's action is followed by positive evaluations and information, to reduce possible dissonance.

Ray's (1973) findings point out that this hierarchical model occurs again when there is a high involvement in the object of change but when the alternatives available for another choice are indistinguishable. In actual fact, the alternatives hardly exist, as the individual has already committed himself to a specific direction. Ray further found that personal sources of information play a more important role than the media in this hierarchy.

For example, a consumer makes a choice on the basis of some personal source. Then he or she modifies attitude to bolster the choice, often on the basis of experience with the chosen alternative. Finally, selective learning occurs, sometimes from a media source, to further support the choice.

Although it can be argued that the mass media can have an effect in promoting the original behavioural choice and attitude modification, both dissonance and attribution theorists contend that, in the majority of cases, the main mass media effect is in terms of reducing dissonance or providing information for attribution or self-perception - after behaviour and attitude change has occurred.

III. THE LOW INVOLVEMENT HIERARCHY

Krugman's (1965) studies about "learning without involvement" are probably regarded as a breakthrough in advertising research and are the basis for this hierarchy. Krugman argued that televised advertisements raised no defenses in their viewers, so their involvement in them is low. Learning therefore could occur after numerous repetitions of the ads., as no human barriers are raised before the communications. As a result of this stage, the viewer might find himself buying a product, the characterisitics of which he has been hearing about. An opinion is eventually formed after experience with the product. So, television advertising would affect purchase decisions by only altering recall and perception of products, not the attitude; this is formed after purchase. Krugman is therefore mainly responsible for the organization of this hierarchy, the cognitive-connative-affective model.

Ray (1973) explained that this hierarchy usually occurs when there are minimal differences between alternatives, or more precisely, when low involvement makes the actual difference unimportant. He further stressed that this low involvement model is not restricted to consumer goods, but to a number of other social acts and in some cases even voting behaviour.

Therefore, if a designer of a campaign is concerned about which hierarchy best describes the elements of effectiveness of his study, it would be helpful to ask three questions about his campaign:

1. How involving is the topic of his campaign?
2. Is there a clear cut differentiation of behaviour alternatives available?
3. Does his audience depend more on the media or personal sources for their information?

Ray (1973) suggested that the three different hierarchies depend upon a particular combination of involvement, differentiation of alternatives and communication source. His experimental findings show that involvement seems to explain the hierarchy-of-effects more clearly than any other mediating variable. The argument goes that, under high involvement, the learning or dissonance-attribution hierarchy is most probable, otherwise - as the name indicates - the low-involvement hierarchy should occur.

The source of information, whether media or personal (although very difficult to pinpoint) helps in the decision as to whether the learning or dissonance-attribution hierarchy best explains the situation. However this mediating variable was not found to give definite clear results as the involvement variable. The differentiation of alternatives variable might also help to distinguish between a learning hierarchy or a dissonance-attribution one; but again, there was no consistent evidence to back this proposition. Ray explained that, in a laboratory situation, it is possible to examine those situations which depend mainly on mass media communication.

However, the only research setting that could produce anything like dissonance attribution results, and where personal influence is involved, seems to lie in the use of field experimentation.

Let us take Ray's suggestions about the variables that help predict the form of the hierarchy-of-effects one step further.

Supposing, as a result of a thorough knowledge beforehand of the target audience's position in relation to the topic of campaign (using Ray's variables of involvement, differentiation of alternatives and media use), the researcher has a general idea of what hierarchy-of-effects to expect. Depending on this hierarchy, it can be assumed that differ-

erent communication models or approaches would be needed
to enhance the effectiveness of the campaign.

Let us present hypothetical situations of how this can be
made useful in the planning of a campaign approach.

1. If a researcher finds that his audience is highly
    involved in the topic of the campaign and they are
    not committed in any way (i.e. they did not take
    overt action yet and have several alternatives in
    front of them); and they trust the medium source of
    information (e.g. t.v. reports), then the campaign
    approach should be based on the learning-hierarchy-
    of-effects strategy. For example, the audience
    should first be made more aware and familiar about the
    topic with a lot of information, the pace should then
    be increased to precipitate attitude change, then the
    relevant motivations, rewards and pathways clarified
    to push towards action.

2. If the researcher finds that his audience is again
    highly involved in the topic, but they are already
    committed (i.e., they have taken overt action and
    cannot choose alternative pathways), and that this
    choice has probably occurred as a result of a personal
    communication, then the campaign approach should use the
    Dissonance-hierarchy-of-effects strategy. One way is
    to first of all highlight deviance in relation to
    social norms, i.e., make the subjects feel that their
    choice does not correspond with the social and cultural
    norms existing in the society, thus starting dissonance.
    This should then be followed with a flow of information
    to help reduce this dissonance and then a portrayal
    of the motivation and rewards for a different type of
    action.

3. If the researcher realizes that the target audience is not involved at all in the topic of the campaign (like a new soap brand), and that they use and trust the medium source and, although they have made another committment it is not binding (for it is not important), then the campaign approach used should be the low-involvement hierarchy strategy. For example, first, the campaigner can attempt to make the audience aware and familiar with the brand by introducing a lot of information in the media. Then, the campaigner can start at setting up the rewards and presenting the motivation for such a choice of action. Attitude change usually happens in this case after action. To guarantee a continuous level of sales, the campaigner might develop two strategies. One is to keep on the pressure and information flow for the product to be bought. Assuming that the attitude after buying the produce was not favourable enough, the second strategy should be to push the conformity or deviance to social norms approach discussed in the previous point, and then continue from there.

This last point shows us that there are no boundaries between one approach and another. The researcher has to take into account all the possible reactions and work accordingly. Moreover, these examples are simplications of how things work in real life, but at the same time they might help the designer of a campaign to avoid a hit-or-miss approach.

Conclusion

This Chapter presented the different persuasion models, approaches, strategies, together with their theoretical backgrounds available for use in designing and evaluating mass media campaigns. From the very cognitive model

suggested by Cartwright to the rational but modified model of Schramm. From Hovland's Classical Attitude Change Approach to De Fleur's Cultural Norms Theory approach. There is no perfect model that applies to all the situations and answers all possible questions. There is no "correct" sequence of effects which might help in prediction of effectiveness. However, this does not mean that we are still walking in the dark and that we have no definite answers at all. Although De Fleur argued that there is still a serious gap between what we think, we know and rigorous theoretical formulations, he still suggested that an integration of all the approaches might help. He suggested we take into account the psychological characteristics of the audience, their social category similarities, their position on social groups and towards social norms.

Besides all that, Ray's suggestion might add a practical application to the theoretical situation. What Ray portrayed (and a lot of more experimentation is needed in this field) is that, a thorough pre-knowledge of the audience's position regarding the topic, and their use of the media, would help determine the hierarchy to expect, and this knowledge will help to plan a more successful campaign.

However, we would like to stress again that the hierarchy-of-effects models are conceptual frameworks only, therefore neither true nor false. They are, as explained by Robertson (1971), "scaffoldings erected by social scientists for the construction of generalizations towards an explanation of perceived reality, and must be evaluated in terms of their utility."   (p. 57).

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CHAPTER V

EFFECTIVENESS OF MASS COMMUNICATION CAMPAIGNS

The study of the effectiveness of mass media campaigns is,
nowadays, sometimes referred to as the "old tradition" or
"old strategy" in describing mass media effects. (Carey
& Krieling, 1974). It is argued that the chief value of
the campaign studies was that they demonstrated the
relative lack of short-term effects and persuasive power
of the media (Blumler, 1964). This claim of the negli-
gible persuasive impact of mass media communications is
contended by a large number of researchers. (McGuire,
1969,; Klapper, 1960; Schramm, 1971) and many others.

WHY? Some argued that, while setting out to show the
effects of mass communication, the campaign studies
instead mainly demonstrated "the limited incidence of
direct effects and adduced a range of intervening variables,
such as selective exposure and perception, that mediated
direct effects." (Carey & Krieling, 1974, p.227). Others
claimed that those intervening factors are in fact "obstacles"
in the way of successful mass media campaigns. (Hyman &
Sheatsley, 1947).

If the verdict of the communication experts is the negligible
persuasive impact of mass media messages, why then are
millions still spent all over the world on advertising,
political campaigns, educational and health campaigns and
public information campaigns?

A follow-up of some of the studies on the effectiveness of
mass communications throws a new light on a topic which has
ceased to be the centre of interest in mass communication
research. What the communication experts have failed to

mention is how the discovery of those "intervening variables"
has worked in favour of designing more effective media
campaigns.

In the previous chapters we concentrated on examining care-
fully those intervening variables and discussing the concept-
ual, physical and psychological reasons for their existence. In
this one we shall firstpresent the accepted conclusions
about the state of mass communication research on effects
in the early sixties. A discussion of the dimensions
that are "within the control of a communicator" in a communica-
tion process will be presented, followed by the conditions
upon which mass communications can have direct effects.

The evidence upon which the conclusions of "lack of
persuasive power" of media messages has been based will be
examined, followed by the relevant and recent evidence
"questioning" the above claim.

Finally, a discussion of the reasons for the "alleged"
failure of media campaigns will be presented suggesting a
different outlook to the situation and a reconsideration
of the verdit of the "experts".

Conclusions about Mass Media Effectiveness

The best way to start is with Klapper's (1960) description
of the state of mass communication research. He maintained
that it is:

> ": a research tradition which applies instead
> of definitive answers, a plethora of relevant,
> but inconclusive and - at times - seemingly
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This pessimistic description, however, does not seem to be fully justified if one looks at a summing up of his interpretation of the effects of the media. His conclusions, in part, were as follows:

1. Mass communication ordinarily does not serve as a necessary and sufficient cause of audience effects, but rather functions among and through a nexus of mediating factors and influences.

2. These mediating factors are such that they typically render mass communication a contributory agent, but not the sole cause, in a process of reinforcing the existing conditions..... Regardless of whether the effect in question be social or individual, the media are more likely to reinforce than to change.

3. On such occasions as mass communication does function in service of change..., either:

   (a)   the mediating factors will be found to be inoperative and the effect of the media direct;   or,

   (b)   the mediating factors that normally favour reinforcement will be found to be themselves impelling toward change.

4. There are certain residual situations in which mass communication seems to produce direct effect, or directly and of itself to serve certain psychophysical functions.

5. The efficacy of mass communication, either as a contributory agent or as an agent of direct effect, is affected by various aspects of the media and communication themselves or of the communication situation.

(Klapper, 1960, p. 8)

This summary, in my view, does in fact present a reason for optimism. Mass communications do act as reinforcing agents of existing conditions. Mass communications can have direct change effects under certain conditions. If mass communications are not considered as the sole agents of change, but studied in conjunction with a number of mediating variables their effects will be better understood, (maybe even manipulated).

Therefore, the arguments that would be of relevance to put forward before reaching a final conclusion about the persuasive ability of media messages are:

a)   What are those mediating variables (intervening variables) that have to be accounted for when analysing mass communications?

b)   Under what conditions do mass communications produce direct change effects?

c)   How do mass communications act as reinforcing agents?

d)   What sort of evidence backs the proposition that mass communications have negligible persuasive impact?

e)   Is there any evidence that proves otherwise?
     If yes, how does it dislodge the above proposition?

A. THE INTERVENING VARIABLES OF MASS COMMUNICATIONS

What are the mediating variables (Intervening Variables) that have to be understood when analysing mass communications?

Klapper (1957) himself pointed out a few of the intervening variables that act together with the message in enhancing or reducing the effectiveness of a mass communication. They are:

> "audience predispositions, selective exposure, selective perception, social milieu, opinion leadership, audience group membership and orientation, nature of communication reception in the society...."

He argued that the interaction of those and several other mediating factors with the reception of the mass mediated message makes the total effect of the communication a "conservative one".

All those intervening variables with the exception of message organization are audience related, and therefore, to a large degree, beyond the control of the communicator in a naturalistic setting. It can be argued that, three decades ago, when scientific research began to disprove the existence of the "all powerful" media that swept people off their feet, those intervening variables have been called "obstacles" in the way of successful mass communications. (Hyman & Sheatsley, 1947).

The existence of those "obstacles", in actual fact, partly explains the basis for the generalization that the media are relatively limited in their ability to produce change from one viewpoint to another. During those last three

decades, social scientists have gone a long way into the understanding of those variables and they can no more be regarded as "obstacles", but as integral mediating variables of any mass communication situation. (Blumer , 1959; and others.)

In attempting to design a campaign, as those variables are largely beyond the control of the communicator (as compared to message organization, appeal, channel choice etc.), there are basically two things that can be done to work towards a successful campaign:

i)   understand the how, why, when and where
        do those intervening variables occur and
        the social science literature is loaded
        with research on this problem;

ii)   carry a thorough analysis of the audience
        under study, so that together with the
        above information, find the best way of
        getting through to them.

Those intervening variables and the conceptualizations, discussions, arguments, related to them, have been discussed fully in the preceding Chapters.

Besides those audience related intervening variables, there are other variables basic to a communication process and that are under the control of the communicator. The dimensions regarding the source, message and channel of a communication process also play a vital role in enhancing or reducing the effectiveness of a mass communication. Each and all of those variables cannot be studied on an exclusive basis, as they are all inter-related and they all, in the end, have to be accounted for on the basis of audience reception. However, the literature is full of controlled

experimental research which, on the manipulation of each
of those variables separately, produced basic guidelines
to help researchers provide the conditions for the success
of a communication. The work done by the Yale School,
Hovland and his associates, has to be credited for a large
part of this understanding.

As social scientists have already dealt with those variables
thoroughly - according to one estimate, about 1,000 studies
on persuasion are now reported each year in the psychological
literature alone (McGuire, 1969) - we will be brief and
selective in examining those variables stressing just the
main findings for later reference.

The variables will be grouped under four headings:
characterisitics of the source, message, channel, and
audience. (A very thorough discussion of those variables
can be found in McGuire, 1969; and for experimental research
see Ronsow and Robinson, 1967).

The Source

1.   The effectiveness of a communication will be enhanced
      if the source of the message is perceived as credible.
      Credibility was found to have two components; it
      might stand either for expertise, or trustworthiness.
      (Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Kelman & Hovland, 1953;
      Berlo, Lamert & Mertz, 1966; McCrosky, 1968).

2.   Some other characteristics of the source that are
      unrelated to the message being propagated might
      enhance the effectiveness of a communication. For
      example, charisma, attractiveness, etc.

3.   The credibility of the source is more important as
      regards opinion change directly after exposure. This
      factor becomes less important as more time elapses, a

phenomenon called the "sleeper effect."
(Kelman & Hovland, 1953).

4. Persuasive communication will be more effective if
the receiver perceives the source as similar to herself/
himself. This condition, known as "homophily"
(Rogers, 1971) is argued to be more effective than
"heterophily", the opposite situation. This homo-
phily-heterophily distinction tends to extend over
a large number of aspects, like socio-economic
status, education, attitudes, beliefs - even dress.
(Bettinghaus, 1973).

5. Sometimes there exists a direct relationship between
how the audience perceives the source and what they think
of the message. Some researchers maintained that the
more extreme the opinion change that the source is
propagating the more likely opinion change will follow:

   (a)   the greater the discrepancy between the
           source's and the recipient's initial
           position on the topic , the greater the
           persuasive effect of the communication
           up to extremely discrepant points;

   (b)   with extreme discrepancy, but low cred-
           ibility of the source, attitude change
           is attenuated.
           (Zimbardo, 1965; Zimbardo & Ebbesen, 1970).

The Message

1. It is more effective to present one side of the argu-
ment when the audience is generally friendly, or when
it is probable that it will not hear the other side
from another source, and also when immediate (though

temporary) opinion change is required.

On the other hand, it is more effective to present both sides of the argument when the audience starts out disagreeing with the position advocated, or when it is likely to hear the other side of the argument, and when the audience is well educated. (Hovland, Lumsdaine & Sheffield, 1949; Koehler, 1968; Bettinghaus & Baseheart,1969).

2. It was found when opposing views of an argument are presented one after another, the one presented last will probably be more effective. However, this effect mainly obtains when the interval between the second view and the effectiveness measure is short; when there is no interval between the two presentations, then the first argument tends to predominate.This was reported by Miller & Campbell (1959), and others.

3. The communication will be more effective if its conclusions are explicitly stated than if the audience are left to draw their own, except when they are intelligent, then implicit conclusions are more effective. (Hovland & Mandell, 1952).

4. Sometimes emotional appeals are more effective than factual ones; sometimes the opposite is true. It all depends on the kind of the audience. (Hartman, 1936; Knower, 1935; Menfee & Gravveberg, 1940; Freedman & Sears, 1965).

5. Extensive research has been done on the effectiveness of fear appeals. For a thorough analysis, see McGuire, (1969) or Triandis (1971). Briefly, the findings on fear appeals show a positive relationship between intensity of fear arousal and the amount of attitude

change if the recommendation for action is simple,
explicit and possible; otherwise, high levels of
fear become counter productive. (Leventhal, 1965;
Janis & Feshback, 1953). Levels of fear appeals
have also been found to vary with communicator
credibility, (Hewgill & Miller, 1965); with the
importance of the topic to the receiver (Colburn,
1967), and with the personality type of the receiver,
(Goldstein, 1959). McGuire, (1969) in reviewing this
literature, suggested that there is probably an inter-
action between the degree of fear arousal and the
recipient's level of anxiety leading to a relation-
ship that is not linear and consistent in all cases.
Bettinghaus (1973) suggested that, if the communicator
knows little about his audience, it is advisable NOT
to use high levels of fear appeal. However, if the
communicator knows something about his audiences'
personality, the importance of the topic to them and
the source's credibility to them, then high levels of
fear appeal might prove effective.

6. Bettinghaus (1973) stated that a communication would
    be more effective if a rewarding and motivational
    appeal is included in the message. However, no system-
    atic research has been carried out to test this.

7. Cues that forewarn the audience of the manipulative
    intent of a communication tend to increase the resis-
    tance to it and lower its effectiveness, while the
    presentation of distractions simultaneously with the
    message decrease resistance to it and enhance its
    effectiveness.
    (McGuire, 1964; Festinger & Maccoby, 1964).

8. No final conclusion can be drawn as to whether the
    opening or closing parts of the communication should
    contain the more important material.

9. A certain amount of repetition of the message facili-
    tates attitude change. (Thurstone, 1933; Hovland,1959;
    Stewart, 1964). However, results on how many repetitions
    and at what point is an asymtote reached, is still
    inconclusive.
    (Annis & Meier, 1934; Dietsch & Gurnee, 1948; Cromwell &
    Kuchel, 1952).

The Channel

For this variable, it is not easy to present clear-cut guide-
lines from the available research as for the previous two.
Research is still controversial and in many cases inconclusive.
McGuire (1969) argued that the possible reasons for this state
of the field is in many cases lack of interest and knowledge,
neglect, lack of organization and lack of fully developed
theories. In addition to McGuire's reasons, there is - and
still exists - the problem of the methodological difficulties
and high expense and comparative recency of research in
relation to some dimensions of the variable, specifically
the electronic media.

Let us start with the capacity of human sensory channels.
Researchers on human perception, retention and learning are
still carrying experimental research in connection with the
question of the effectiveness of a communication while manipula-
ting one versus multiple sensory channels. As explained
in the discussion on selective perception, the human capacity
to process sensory information is found to be much less than
the amount of information available to the sensory channel.
(Jacobson, 1950, 1951).

Therefore, if the combined input from two senses exceeds
the amount of information the central nervous system can
handle, interference between the channels may occur, except
perhaps if the rate of the transmission is very slow.

It was found from the results of human information processing and learning experiments (on single versus multiple channels) that the human system for utilizing information "has the properties" of a single channel. (Broadbent, 1958; Travers, 1964).

The effectiveness of learning from one versus another channel has been argued to be dependant on individual differences. (Mayo, 1964). Some people are visually dominant, others are aurally dominant, and so on.

These findings can be used to mean that there is no particular magic in multi-media presentation. There is no particular magic about the effectiveness of a particular channel, it all depends upon how the channel is used and on whom.

Hartman (1961) presented a word of caution and advice to television and movie producers using the audiovisual media. He argued that, if the conditions for interference are present, multiple channels

> "may actually produce inferior learning because attention is divided and optimal learning is not possible in any of the channels.... Pictorial illustrations in many cases may distract, rather than illustrate. Attention-getting devices are of value only if they neither distract from learning which is already taking place, nor continue in competition with the material with which they are supposed to direct attention. The tradition in the television message is to place the majority of the information in the verbal audio channel, and to attract attention and to illustrate it in the pictorial.

> Too often the picture is not properly related to
> the sound and a real barrier to effective communi-
> cation is created by a tendency to focus attention
> on the picture when the message to be learned has
> been coded on the sound track."   (p. 41).

What about the relative effectiveness of media channels
versus interpersonal channels (as defined in Chapter II)
and what is the best "media mix" for a specific campaign?

Some of the earliest studies examining this problem (Knower,
1935; Cantril & Allport, 1935), compared face-to-face
lectures and speeches with the same material presented over
radio, or a speaker set-up, or printed messages. The studies
showed little significant differences between the different
channels in relation to learning of the message. But, when
opinion change was measured, significant differences were
found; the face-to-face situations were more effective
than the other media. However, those early studies did not
use either television or movies, which combine most of the
sensory characteristics of the other media channels tested.

To start with, television has been argued to be a very
effective medium for learning (specifically incidental
learning and imparting information.) Moreover, television
has been found to be more effective in persuasion than radio
and print (May, 1964). However, when it comes to comparing
television and face-to-face communications on opinion
change, the situation is not yet resolved.

Katz & Lazarsfeld (1955) carried out extensive studies on
the relative persuasive effects of the various media. Over
a period of several months, they examined the changes in food-
buying habits, fashion preferences and personal opinions

about current events of some 800 female subjects. They
found that, for those opinion changes in which the source
of the change could be identified, personal influence
from friends, relatives and others was more effective
than any of the messages received from other media channels.
However, they also found that the effects of the media
themselves are so varied that a separate series of studies
should be done before the relative effectiveness of a
particular medium could be isolated.

Such studies have not yet been done in a systematic manner.

McQuail (1969) presented an argument, which in fact is
largely accepted.

He explained that, if a communicator (for example) is inter-
ested in getting people to sign a petition for better drug
education facilities in a community, he is better off conducting
a door to door campaign than attempting to accomplish much
with a television campaign. He argued that television, radio
and the press may help arouse attention, but they can never
supplant the effect of a well-designed, well-run campaign to
reach people in person.

Those two studies are only a fraction of many studies whose
conclusions were that interpersonal communications are more
persuasive than media communications.

But, what if the message has to reach a very large number of
people, some in very remote areas? What if the people in-
volved do not trust the subjective element of interpersonally
carried messages? What if there does not exist enough people
with the "correct" persuasive powers and abilities to pass
the message?

It is more useful to think of the mass media and inter-
personal channels as interconnected and complementary,

rather than unrelated and self-sufficient. (Wright, 1975).

Before a decision is made as to what is the best channel
to use in a given situation, Bettinghaus (1973) suggests
a number of very useful questions and answers that a
communicator should consider beforehand, and provides a
good summary of the situation.

" 1.   Does the communicator merely want to draw the attention
        of a great many people to a problem that he will later
        deal with more extensively? Use of the interposed
        communication situation with any one of the mass media
        seems quite appropriate in this preliminary stage.

  2.   Does the communicator desire personal commitment from
        each receiver, or will he be satisfied with a high
        proportion of attitude change on an issue? Commit-
        ment is more easily and more firmly secured through
        personal contact, while attitude change may well be
        secured through careful use of interposed situations.

  3.   How strong are the present attitudes held by individuals
        toward the topic being communicated? Weak attitudes
        may be overcome through even minimum use of the mass
        media, while strong attitudes may well need personal
        attention.

  4.   Are receivers in favour of, or opposed to, the topic
        being communicated? The mass media may be effectively
        used to strengthen attitudes, while face-to-face comm-
        unication may be more important in overcoming negative
        attitudes.

  5.   How much money does the source have to work with?
        Television, on any large scale, costs money, money
        in very large amounts. A senatorial campaign in a
        large state might cost upwards of two million dollars

for television time alone. Personal, face-to-face
communication will reach far fewer people than will
television, but its costs may be in terms of the
communicator's personal time and energy, and more
easily obtained.

6. Who will the receivers be? In some situations, the source
can accomplish his aim by changing the attitudes or
obtaining a decision from a small group of influential
receivers. In others, his intent is to reach across
many, many receivers. When only a few must be reached,
personal contact may be the most effective method to use.
When the audience is very large, the mass media may
have to be used, even if they are not as effective."
(p. 174)

There are a number of unresolved questions about the effect-
iveness of channels in campaigns, and there is a large poten-
tial for more research in this connection. (A portrayal of
those problems is discussed later in the text).

The conclusions from the findings regarding those inter-
vening variables keeps pointing out that they are all inter-
related and are interacting all the time during a communi-
cation situation. Even if the channel did not interact
with the source or the message with the channel, they all
inevitably interact with the receivers of the communication.

The Audience (The Receiver)

There are a number of characteristics of the receivers of
a communication which research points out to be particularly
important in accounting for informative-persuasive effects:

(a)   PERSONALITY AND PERSUASIBILITY

Research on the role of personality and persuasibility
points out that, regardless of the topic, some people
are more easily persuaded than others. (Hovland, Janis &
Kelly, 1953). However, pinpointing the characteristics
that cause persuasibility brings up confusing results.
It was first assumed that anxiety, low self-confidence
and low education were related to persuasibility, but
experimentation failed to support those assumptions.
McGuire (1969) maintained that those characteristics
can work both for and against being persuaded easily.
A person with a high level of education and intelligence
may have more basis for his existing opinion, might
also be able to give more careful consideration to
arguments on the other side. Similarly, a person with
low self-confidence may not wish to risk paying
attention to opposing arguments, while a person with
high self-confidence will not be afraid to do so.
Davison, Boylan & Yu, (1976) added that maybe people
with moderate degrees of anxiety, intelligence and
self-confidence are the most persuasible, while those
at the other extremes are less so.

(b)   AUDIENCE'S STRENGTH OF PRE-EXISTING POSITION
         REGARDING COMMUNICATION TOPIC

The strength of the attitude in question is a very impor-
tant aspect regarding effects on the recipient, research
indicates that the stronger the recipient feels about
the topic of persuasion, the less likely he will
change his (her) opinion. Almost all the examples of
negligible change of voting behaviour during election
campaigns is explained by this fact of strength of
pre-existing attitudes. However, when pre-existing
attitudes are not held strongly, such as the case of
experiments carried between elections on some obscure news
topics, attitude change was found to be significant.
(Blumler & McQuail,1968; McCombs, 1967).

The same generalization can be used to explain the
significant influence of mass communications on topics
which the audience have very little information about
beforehand. In cases like this, the recipient makes
up his mind on the basis of a single article, editorial,
or television broadcast. McCombs (1972) explained that
the influence of the media may not be due mainly to
the weakness of the attitudes being influenced, but
also to the fact that there are no other sources of
information.

Again, the same can be argued to be true about the
formation of new attitudes. If an individual's
attention to a persuasive communication can be won,
and if that individual had little previous infor-
mation about the topic and no existing attitude on
the topic, then the communication may be very
important in shaping a new attitude.

(c)   THE INFLUENCE OF GROUPS ON THE AUDIENCE

In attempting to predict the success of a communication
in changing attitudes, it is important to remember that
the individual does not exist in a vacuum, but is always
interacting with the social setting he is in. The
most general statement in this connection is that
people who are well integrated and attached to a group
are less likely to change their attitudes in a way
that would conflict with group norms and thus disturb
their relations with others in the group. Studies that
support this generalization are Shils & Janowitz (1948)
and Herz (1949).

An individual stands to be rewarded for conforming to
the standards of the group and punished for deviating
from them. Therefore, he is more likely to change if
his opinion is previously in conflict with his group
norms. (Berelson, Lazarsfeld & McPhee, 1954; Smith,
1949).

In a laboratory study, Kelley (1955) has shown that resistance to counter-norm communication tends to increase with the saliences of one's group identification. In this case, before the communication was presented, the subjects were reminded (indirectly) of their organizational membership.

(d)   EXTERNAL EVENTS

The relevance of what is happening in the world outside, especially in its relationship to an individual's private life, is significant in determining how and whether a communication can affect attitudes. A number of studies during World War II pointed out that leaflets advocating surrender were more effective on troops that were retreating than on those who felt that the war was going on in their favour.

The literature also cites a number of experiments on the relationship of specific demographic characteristics of the audience for instance, age, socioeconomic status, sex, etc., and persuasibility. Again as this has been thoroughly examined (see for instance, McGuire, 1969), it will not be discussed here. However, some of those demographic characteristics will be referred to later in the text in connection with the design of the study.

B. CONDITIONS FOR DIRECT MASS COMMUNICATION EFFECTS

Under what conditions do mass communications produce direct change effects?

It is possible for a mass communication to produce direct change effects. Halloran (1968); Schramm (1954, 1973); Klapper (1960); Himmelweit (1962) and many others suggested a number of conditions under which persuasion can occur.

The suggestions from those researchers, integrated with the previous analysis can be categorized into the following points:

a) Selectivity

The first basic requirement for a mass communication to create change is to be received and accepted. For this to happen, the communication must be able to overcome the audience related intervening variables of selective exposure and perception.

Assuming there is access, reception and acceptance are more likely to happen if:

i)   The presentation of the communication is attention-catching and interesting.

ii)   The source of the message is perceived as trustworthy and expert.

iii) The message follows the most appropriate rules for the context regarding order of presentation, organization of context and type of appeal.

iv)   The channel chosen to deliver the communication has a certain amount of credibility and uncritical

attachment of audience.

v)   The communication does not raise the ego-
defenses of the recipients outright.

vi)   The communications meets existing personality
needs and interests.

b)   Attitude Change

Attitude change is more likely to occur when:

i)   The suggestion is accompanied by change in
other aspects underlying beliefs and attitudes.

ii)   The suggestion is carried by mass media channel,
plus face-to-face reinforcement than either of
those alone. Other things being equal.

iii)   The topic of the communication is new, unfamiliar,
yet viewed as important.

iv)   The media tends to fill the gaps in knowledge
about a topic difficult to learn about from
other sources.

v)   The value or attitude to be changed is not well-
formed nor held strongly.

vi)   The value or attitude to be changed is not very
significant to the person involved.

vii)   The suggestion is in harmony with valued group
norms and loyalties.

viii)   Group membership is not valued or discredited.
For example, when group membership creates
conflict or cross-pressures, or when it no
longer results in benefits.

ix)   The change requested is shown to be conforming
        with social and cultural norms and expectations.

c)   Behavioural Change

Overt behavioural change is more likely to occur when:

i)   The communication relates to the individual
        needs, wants and interests, and if it is
        presented in such a way and at such a time that
        it   is reinforced by related external events.

ii)   The change propagated is not going to face
        stout opposition, in fact, it is guaranteed
        social and cultural support.

iii)   Where the simplest and unobstructed routes
        for immediate action are pointed out.

This is the situation regarding a single mass communication.
What about the CUMULATIVE impact of mass communications?

Hilde Himmelweit (1962) surveying the research related mainly
to television and children, declared there are conditions
which produce a certain degree of impact, a cumulative impact
of a number of television experiences does happen : when there is:

i)   "Recurrence from program to program of the
        values or views.

ii)   Dramatic presentation of the values, so that
        they evoke primarily emotional reactions.

iii)   Presentation of values which link with the
        individual's immediate needs and interests,
        i.e. where there is a lowered threshold for
        perception of relevant cues.

iv)   An uncritical attachment to the medium.

v)   Impact is likely to be greater where the
        individual has not already been supplied,
        through his immediate environment, with a
        set of values which provide a standard
        against which to assess the views offered
        on television. This aspect is most import-
        ant to bear in mind also when dealing with
        the impact on adults. Television acts as
        a second-order source of information.

Provided these conditions are fulfilled, values must be taken
over from the main themes of plays or programs, and also from
the subsidiary touches used in presenting them."   (p. 27)

Therefore, under the conditions suggested, individual mass
media programmes can make a direct impact, while a slow
accumulation of minute influences from many programmes
can create a cumulative effect. However, in the majority
of cases both types of effects are likely to be operating
at the same time .

C.   REINFORCEMENT EFFECT OF MASS COMMUNICATION

The power of the mass media as a reinforcing agent and their
ability to activate and reinforce existing attitudes is an
accepted fact by almost all media researchers. If an
individual's attitudes are strongly held, especially if
they are shared with his immediate social surroundings,
like his family and friends, persuasive mass communications
are likely to face great difficulty in converting attitudes,
but they are more likely capable of reinforcing them or
activating them.

The majority of research that has found, and further explored,
this effect comes from the political sphere, more precisely
voting behaviour. One of the earliest studies to stumble
over this effect were those of the Erie County election
campaign (Lazarsfeld, Berelson & Gaudet, 1948).

Other evidence supporting this reinforcing effect of the media
has been reported by Berelson & Steiner (1964); Rossi(1966);
Atkins et al.(1973),Lerner(1971) & others. In fact, almost all
mass media studies report or refer to this effect as an
accepted reality so there is no point in presenting further
evidence to prove its existence.

Still, as in any social science phenomena, this effect does
not go completely unquestioned, and a critical analysis of
its use as an answer to all voting behaviour situations is
presented by Sears & Whitney (1973).

However, the point that should be stressed in this
context is not whether or not this reinforcement effect
exists; it is the fact that its importance in relation to
the persuasive effectivness of mass media campaigns has
been played down.

Miller & Burgoon(1973) in an article suggesting a new framework
for viewing the persuasive process explained the possible
reasons for this lack of interest in the reinforcement
aspect of persuasion.
They said in examining the writings in the field, persuasion
is treated almost exclusively as a facilitator of change:

> "persuasion is almost synonymous with changes in
> overt behaviour or attitudinal valence." (p. 6)

They argued that in using the term "influence attempt" a
crucial distinction must be made. "The notion of behavioural
influence does not necessarily imply modification or
reversal of an overt non-verbal behaviour, nor does it
always indicate change in valence or relative attractive-
ness of an attitudinal statement. For, if a persuadee
subscribed to a partiulcar attitude with moderate inten-
sity before an influence attempt but held that same
attitude with extreme intensity after receiving the
persuader's message, the influence attempt would be viewed
as successful: behaviour would have been affected, even
though the persuader sought no change in valence of the
attitude. By the same token, if persuasive inputs cause
a persuadee to be more resistant to counter-propaganda
(i.e. messages seeking to alter his behaviour, and change
the valence of his attitudes) then the source of those
persuasive inputs has been successful." (p.5).

Rather than aim at changes in attitudes and behaviour, most of
the persuasive communication seek to reinforce currently
held convictions and to make them more resistant to change.
For example, most Sunday sermons, keynote political conven-
tions, advertisements of well known products, social
development programmes like use of seatbelt, health programmes,
and stopping smoking. What the researchers don't stress and

try to measure is how their message acted as an inhibitor of change in the opposite direction......

The ability of persuasive mass media message to change the intensity of an attitude from moderate to extreme favourability, or to prevent it from reversing altogether should be considered as a successful impact.

This suggestion has also been made by Larson (1964) who argued that the reinforcement effects only of the mass media are interpreted on the basis of lack of evidence of conversion effects. He stressed that what is probably being overlooked is that "encouragement of constancy" or reinforcement may be an important effect in itself; reinforcement should not be regarded as "no effect" as it involves maintaining a position which could have been changed in the opposite direction in the absence of the campaign stimulus.

CHAPTER VI

SOME CAMPAIGNS THAT FAILED & SUCCEEDED: REASONS & ANALYSIS

The previous Chapter showed that mass communications can be
argued to have informative-persuasive effects under certain
conditions. If this is so, why is there a controversy
regarding this effectiveness, and what is the evidence
which backs the opposing   propositions?

Most of the research investigating the effectiveness of mass
communications in relation to information, attitude and
behaviour can be found under two major fields of work:-

    1.   Laboratory experimental research carried
        out by Hovland et al of the Yale School;

    2.   Political campaigns carried out in the field.

The argument goes that the majority of conclusive findings
on the effectiveness of mass communications (as discussed
in the previous sections) are due to experiments carried
out in a laboratory under controlled conditions.

Hovland (1959) himself confirmed the fact that laboratory
results cannot be generalized into naturalistic settings
where several variables are interacting at the same time.
On the other hand, the evidence which argues the limited
capability of mass communications to persuade is based
upon surveys of political campaigns, health and safety
campaigns, educational campaigns and the few advertising
campaigns which have been published.

What this Chapter is going to show is that there is sub-

stantial evidence in the political, health, educational
and social development fields that present evidence
arguing the capability of the communications to enhance
information and moderate attitudes and behaviour.

We are not going to discuss laboratory experiments, but
field studies.

The conclusion would argue that a different position has to be
be considered now.

A.   INFORMATION ACQUISITION

I.   SOME CAMPAIGNS THAT FAILED

Let us first consider some of the evidence that backs the
proposition that mass communications are limited in their
capability to enhance learning and information acquisition.

Some of the most classic studies which point to the inability
of the mass media to increase the level of information of
its audiences are Hyman & Sheatsley's (1947) well known
study "Some Reasons why Information Campaigns Fail", and
Star & Hughes' (1950) Cincinnati Study, as well as Noelle-
Newman's (1959) Bundesrat Study.

Hyman & Sheatsley's study was based on NORC in 1946, to
measure the public's interest and information on different
issues in the field of foreign affars. Their basic con-
clusion was that there exists a hard core of "know nothings"
who fail to learn of events despite their extensive cover-
age in the media. In one study, a third of the respondents
could only identify one and sometimes none of the five
major public issues. They argued that various psychological
barriers often prevent the mass media information campaigns
from having the desired effect. (The conclusions will be
discussed further later).

Star and Hughes reported   a   campaign sponsored by a
number of organizations in Cincinnati to make people aware
of the functions of the United Nations and to increase
their support to it. This was done around the end of
World War II. The campaign lasted for six months, and it
was claimed that it was well-financed and well-organized.
The slogan of the campaign was: "Peace begins with the
United Nations - the United Nations begins with you."
Although television was not used then, all other media

facilities plus several organizations were used to hammer
the information onto the people. (The organizations
included advertizers, schools, religious and civic groups,
etc.). The slogans were printed on display cards put on
buses, match boxes, blotters etc. Both the press and the
radio were used, with the radio putting as many as 150
spot announcements a week. The National Opinion Research
Centre, which belonged to the University of Chicago,
carried out a survey before the campaign and found that
30 percent of the people in that area were totally ignorant
about the function of the United Nations. After the
campaign, a second survey did not find that the number
of those informed increased significantly, so despite
this intensive campaign, the level of information was
affected only slightly.

The Bundesrat study, as reported by Noelle-Newman, was
carried out in West Germany and is quite similar to the
Cincinnati study. Its aim was to increase the level of
information of people listening to the radio about the
functions of the Upper House of the Federal Legislature
in Bonn, the "Bundesrat".. Before the campaign only 10%
of the stations' listeners were able to give a satisfactory
definition of the Bundesrat. Radio Stuttgat, for two years,
mentioned the Bundesrat in almost every news and public
affairs' broadcast, and always followed the word with a
one-sentence explanation of what it stood for. The
listeners' information about the meaning of the Bundesrat
was tested twice, after one year of the campaign, and after
two years. It was found that there was no significant
difference in the information level of the listeners at
either occasion.

Wade & Schramm (1969) quote a number of other examples of
media information in relation to politics and science.

Suggested reasons for Failure of Information Campaigns

There are several possible reasons that could account
for the failure of those campaigns.

1. Previous availability of information:
    As around 70% of the Cincinnati people have already
    heard about the U.N. before the campaign, the infor-
    mation was propagating what was already heard about,
    probably several times. Therefore, it can be
    assumed that those who wanted to know about the
    United Nations have already had the chance to do
    so before the campaign. This is why the campaign
    did not create much change in the number of people
    who were affected by the information presented to
    them.

    The question arises; why didn't the other 30% pay
    more attention to the intensive campaign about the
    U.N. and thus become more informed?

    The answer can basically be explained by referring
    to the theories of motivation for Selectivity
    discussed earlier.

a) Utility of Information:
    It can be assumed that the 70% who found that the
    information about the U.N. affected them personally,
    in one way or another, managed to know or learn
    about it. Interest in foreign affairs was useful to
    their work or image. On the other hand, the
    30% who did not know beforehand, and did not change
    even after the campaign, probably could find nothing
    in the information about the U.N. that would be of
    use to them personally.

b) Congenial Information:

The 30% who did not assimilate the campaign infor-
mation might have felt it was dissonant to their
existing beliefs and attitudes. They resisted it,
or misperceived it because they felt foreign news
and affairs is a source of problems to them.

The survey about the Cincinnati study itself indi-
cated that people who had pre-existing favourable
attitudes were the ones who paid attention to the
publicity.

c) Habit and Interest:

Some people do not pay habitual attention to news,
specifically about foreign affairs. They might not
regard this of interest to them, as it is not
directly related to their everyday lives. It is
argued that individual interests are very self centered.
Moreover, it is for entertainment that the majority
of people use the media. News and foreign affairs
are usually scanned for the new or the extraordinary.
What is encountered on a day-to-day basis becomes
less interesting.(Schramm,1973)[2].

3. Methodological Factors:

The questionnaires, interviews, etc., that are used
in such surveys to measure the level of general
knowledge are conducted weeks, sometimes months,
after the public were actually exposed to the infor-
mation. As Schramm argued, people tend to forget
details quickly and the only thing that remains in
memory is a general awareness and not the details.

4. Channel:

One aspect that stands out in all those three studies
is that they did not make use of television or film
in their campaigns. However, face-to-face communication

has been found to be the most effective medium
in persuasion and information campaigns. Katz
& Lazarsfeld (1955), McQuail (1969).

Noelle-Newman (1959) does quote an experimental
investigation of the effectiveness of an infor-
mation "film" dealing with NATO. The population's
knowledge of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization
was tested both before and after the special film
campaign. It was concluded that the level of the
population's knowledge of NATO had scarcely
improved at all. Only those who had previous
knowledge about NATO anyway were better informed,
but again to a minimum degree.

However, television and film has been proved to
be more effective than the radio and print.
Mayo (1964).

So, what conclusions can be drawn from those studies? Can
it be definitely argued that the media (excluding tele-
vision here) are unsuitable for enhancing the audiences'
information level?

This is not necessarily true. Besides the fact that the
majority of studies that argue that the media are not
capable of enhancing information are from the political
and scientific sphere, there are numerous examples of
studies, even in those two spheres, that prove otherwise.

II. SOME CAMPAIGNS THAT SUCCEEDED

During the Second World War, American soldiers and other
military personnel were shown training films dealing with
specific issues about the war. It was found that those
films did increase their level of information considerably
(Hovland, Lumsdaine & Sheffield, 1949).

Berelson, Lazarsfeld & McPhee (1954) found that the greater
the amount of exposure to election campaign material, the
greater was the accuracy in perceiving both Presidential
candidates' positions on issues. Furthermore, accuracy
was more strongly related to amount of exposure than edu-
cation or interest in campaign. The authors argued that
this proves that campaign messages enhance information
acquisition and acts to correct selective awareness or
clarify understanding of political issues.

Ben Zeev & White (1962) found that, as the 1960 campaign
progressed, there was a decline in the percentage of people
who said they did not know where Kennedy stood on issues.

During the Watergate televised hearings in 1973, it was
found that there was a sharp increase in the number of
people who could identify such central figures as John Dean
and Senator S. Erwin (M.J. Robinson, 1974). Other
similar findings in the political sphere are discussed by
Milne & Mackenzie (1958); Blumler & McQuail (1969) and others.

A campaign dealing with the safe use of pesticides was
carried out in Quincy, Illinois, 1972. Its design was similar
to the Cincinnati study, but on a smaller scale, and tele-
vision was also used. The time span was a month, during
which four one-minute spots were aired 80 times by
Quincy's two television stations. Therefore approximately
five radio spots were carried a day over the month. Two
news articles and five public service advertisements were
published in the daily newspapers. At one week intervals,

four variations of direct mail were sent to homes. The
slogan propagated was: "Take a Look and Live", and it
was found, after the campaign, that about a quarter of
a random sample of the population saw or heard the slogan.
Also, over half of those were able to identify some
major points of the campaign.

Television, the radio and the direct mail were found to
be equally effective, the newspapers somehow less effect-
ive. It was explained that the campaigning in the news-
paper might not have been frequent enough (Salcedo et al,
1974).

Another type of study proved that the media not only helped
enhance knowledge, but triggered the behaviour of more
information seeking as interest developed. The study was
conducted in California among college students. It started
when the college students found a need for more political
information, so it was decided that they would attend to
the media information. As they got to know more about
politics, they became more and more interested, and this
led to further information seeking in newspaper editorials,
magazines and other detailed sources of political infor-
mation. Therefore, satisfying a need for information led
to even more information seeking. (McCombs, 1972).

Furthermore, Noelle Newman, mentioned earlier in relation
to a number of unsuccessful information campaigns, quoted
a number of successful information campaigns. She reported
an example which shows that the radio or press are defin-
itely capable of having an educational effect, even in the
field of politics. She explained that in Germany, numerous
reports were issued in illustrated magazines about such
matters as national socialism, the Second World War, the
Nurenberg trials, etc. The argument arose as to whether
it was wise to publish such reports of the Hitler era, as
they might - contrary to the Editor's intentions - give

the appearance of glorifying national socialism. Yet,
those reports kept on being published; they kept on
being read, and together with a similar series on the
radio, captured a large audience.

Noelle Newmann explained that the mass of these historical
chronicles can be proved to have made a decisive contribu-
tion toward influencing the conception that the Germans
had of their recent history. In the 1950's, the majority
of the population were of the opinion that the German
people were not responsible for starting the war. However,
now the majority of the population are convinced that the
outbreak of war cannot be laid   solely at the door of the
Hitler Government.

But it is not merely the press and the radio that have
been reported to have an educational potential. Newmann also
quoted a study of a film series dealing with behaviour
in road traffic. At the investigation of the German Federal
Ministry of Traffic and Communication, 100 foot films for
the education of road users were introduced into motion-
picture programmes via newsreels over a period of 10 months
in 1957-1958. The short films showed in an amusing manner
how road user "Schussel", acting as a pedestrian, cyclist,
motorcyclist and car driver, committed traffic offences or
behaved in a ridiculous way, while his friend, "Clever",
lectured him on his mistakes and directed the moral of the
story to the public. Tests before and after this film
campaign showed that the film made a marked impression on
the audience. In addition, certain road regulations, as
exemplified by the humorous films, were better known to the
public after the films (Noelle Newman , 1959).

Other examples of successful information campaigns include
the Denver Study (Mendelson, 1973); the Unselling Heart
Disease campaign study (Farquhar et al, 1977); the Wisconsin
Study, Douglas et al (1970). As those campaigns have been
chosen as case studies, they will be fully examined later.

Conclusion

Although there are some studies that point to the inability of the media to enhance information aquisition, there also exists a substantial number of studies that prove otherwise.

The first point that has to be stressed in this respect is the presentation of the campaign content. Logically, a campaign which is presented in an interesting manner will, at least, draw more attention from the audience than a boring one, as was the case in connection with the humorous film on traffic behaviour vs. the documentary on NATO.

However, the effectiveness of an information campaign does not lie solely in its editorial style, or intellectual soundness. It has to be stressed that there are other audience variables involved.

There is no direct relationship between exposure to information and learning. Exposure does not necessarily mean sustained attention and comprehension.

Exposure would more probably lead to learning if there is an interest in the information being propagated. Moreover, if the individual finds that he needs (either materially or psychologically) this information, and if it does not clash with deeply-held attitudes, or raise defense mechanisms, then learning would be enhanced.

It can be concluded that the media can be very effective in enhacing information acquisition under the conditions that the programme is well-presented and is of relevance to the audience.

It has to be mentioned that there is another side to learning from the media. "Incidental learning", which is not

gained intentionally, goes on all the time on exposure
to media content. Because this study is more concerned
with intentional learning, an analysis of this phenomenon
will not be presented. However, a detailed examination
of the situation can be found in Schramm (1973), Haskins
(1968),and Krugman (1968).

B.   ATTITUDE AND BEHAVIOUR CHANGE

The controversy around the inability of persuasive mass
communications to change attitudes and behaviour is even
stronger than the one revolving around information acqui-
sition.

In this context, attitude and behaviour change will be
considered together, not because one can replace the
other (as discussed in   Chapter III) but because the
majority of field experiments deal with them together.

I. SOME CAMPAIGNS THAT "FAILED"

One of the earliest and most quoted studies that points
to the inability of the mass media to convert attitudes
is the intensive research of political propaganda in
Erie County, Ohio, during the 1940 Presidential Campaign.
This study found that, although there was an intensive
hammering of persuasive material by the candidates in-
volved, only 6 percent of the population under study
changed their candidate preferences as a result of the
political propaganda. Moreover, even fewer voters were found
whose attitude change could be traced directly to mass
media propaganda. (Lazarsfeld, Berelson & Gaudet, 1948).

The Erie County voting study was replicated in 1948 in
Elvira, New York, and the conclusions and results turned
out to be very similar to the previous study. (Berelson,
Lazarsfeld & McPhee, 1954).

Similarly, the information campaigns carried by Hyman &
Sheatsley (1947), and Star & Hughes (1950), discussed
earlier, were also tested for their persuasibility. Again,

slight persuasive effects were found.

Schramm & Carter (1959) studied the effects of a twenty-
hour telethon by Senator William Knowland, two days before
his defeat in the California gubernatorial election of
1958. It was found that, out of the 563 respondents
studied, only 2 voters have changed their voting for the
Senator, and one against.

The examples should not be restricted to the political
sphere. There are a number of studies in the social develop-
ment and health spheres which also point to the inability
of the media to change attitude and behaviour.

O'Keefe (1971) reported a study which was undertaken to
assess the effects of a massive anti-smoking campaign,
launched on television in the late 1960's. The subjects
of the study were 621 students and 300 residents of the area
who were tested before and after the campaign. The campaign
itself was composed of as many as 80 - 100 commercials per
week, yet the percentage of the subjects who did recall the
commercials was quite low. The authors concluded that the
campaign was severely limited in producing behaviour effects.
He argued that only the subjects which were already inclined
to give up smoking reported that the commercials were effect-
ive and fewer than half of these cited the commercials as
an incentive to stop smoking. He further maintained that
the study points out that many respondents were apparently
able to live with dissonance for, although the great majority
of smokers realized that smoking is dangerous to their health,
they were not ready to take behavioural steps to reduce this
dissonance.

Robertson (1976) in his article called "The Great Seatbelt
Flop", maintained that, "unless and until a rigorously
designed study demonstrated otherwise, there is formidable
evidence leading to the conclusion that mass media campaigns

are ineffective means of increasing belt use." (p.42).
He based this conclusion on a thorough analysis of a
controlled study of the effect of television messages on
safety belt use. Based on correlates of belt use in a
study carried by Waller & Barry (1969), six television
messages were produced, each directed at a specific
audience. Two of those messages finished as finalists
in advertising club competitions. By arrangement with
advertisers and a cable television company, messages were
shown in prime time on one cable of a split cable system,
designed for test marketing. The households on the cables
are distributed on alternative streets in such a way that
classical experimental control design was achieved. The
television messages were shown 943 times over a period of
nine months, and they were aired, each individually, as
it appealed to the target it was directed for - i.e.
children, teenagers, fathers and mothers. Daily belt use
observations were conducted on a rotation basis among sites
throughout the city being tested for a period of 11 months,
including one month prior and one after the campaign. Belt
use observations were matched to experimental and control
cables. Comparison of belt use by drivers from households
on the experimental and control cables, as well as with
those on neither cable, revealed no effect on belt use of
the television campaign, Robertson (1976) Similar results
were obtained in another study using television and radio
messages and comparing separate matched communities.
(Fleischer, 1973).

There are several other examples of media campaigns that
proved to be ineffective in changing behaviour. In the
family planning field, Schramm (1973)[2] & Smith (1965)
reported studies that have failed to precipitate the action
of using contraceptives to plan the number of desired
children.

Considering this impressive evidence of failures of
campaigns, it is obvious that one would be inclined to
accept this conclusion without further questioning. How-
ever, before discussing the possible reasons for the
failures of those campaigns, it is pertinant to portray
the opposite accumulating evidence based on a substantial
number of studies arguing that mass media communications
are capable of moderating attitudes and behaviour.

Besides two famous classical incidents, the following
section will present a number of examples of successful
media campaigns with controlled field designs.

II. SOME CAMPAIGNS THAT "SUCCEEDED"

Two of the most quoted studies in this connection are
H.G. Wells' radio dramatization of the War of the Worlds,
and Kate Smith's War Bonds Campaign.

Orson Wells' radio dramatization of War of the Worlds is,
perhaps, considered the most frightening and potent example
of the possible unanticipated effects of the mass media
which were not intended to happen. On Hallowe'en, October
30th, 1938, the CBS national radio theatre group broadcasted
a fictional dramatization of the invasion of the Earth by
Martians. The design of the programme was such that three
announcements were presented at the beginning, middle and
end of the programme, explaining that it was fictional.
Moreover, three special announcements after the programme
were included to re-stress that the Invasion from Mars
was a dramatization. The play itself was an hour-long
programme, produced in the form of news flashes interrupted
by a musical programme describing every few minutes how
the invasion was developing, where it has reached, its
immediate effects, etc. Mainly it was radio news bulletins,

accompanied by on-the-scene reports, bringing in expert
opinions, fictional scientists, spectators, policemen -
even the "Secretary of War".The effects of the programmes were
studied by Cantril(1958)and reported in Schramm (1973)[2]. It was
stated then that thousands of listeners were in a state
of panic. Cantril estimated that at least six million
listeners began to wonder whether the invasion from Mars
was actually taking place. Before the evening was over,
at least one million listeners were frightened or disturbed.
Cantril wrote, "long before the broadcast had ended, people
all over the U.S. were praying, crying, fleeing frantically
to escape death from the Martians. Some ran to rescue
loved ones. Others telephoned farewells or warnings, hurried
to inform neighbours, sought information from newspapers
or radio stations, summoned ambulances and police cars"
(Schramm, 1973[2], p. 190).

Before discussing the possible reasons behind the effect
of this programme, let us first relate the second example
of the spectacular effect of the mass media: the War
Bonds Campaign. On September 21st, 1943, an appeal was put
forward by CBS radio network to urge the purchase of War
Bonds. The appeal was presented by a very popular singer,
Kate Smith. It involved one to two minute spots (around
sixty five times) put at several intervals on the radio,
either in the form of songs or appeals. One of her broad-
casts was studied in detail by the sociologist Robert
Merton (1946), in his book, Mass Persuasion.

The difference between the War Bonds campaign, and the
programme of the War of the Worlds, is that the former
was meticulously planned to accomplish the objectives it
set out to do.

The choice of Kate Smith to carry the appeal itself was
one of the main reasons for its success, Miss Smith was
popular, loved and most important of all, trusted. More-

over, the campaign made use of deeply emotional appeals:
more specifically appeals of sacrifice and working
together for the Nations' good in a time of war and
international crises.

Some of the reasons that can account for the success of
these programmes are:-

1. The setting of both those incidents. The atmosphere
   of crises, war and catastrophe that prevailed in
   1938, and that of war and patriotism in 1943.

2. There was a large degree of trust and dependence on
   the radio newscasts in those days because of its
   immediacy and relatively fast news.

3. The design and production of the programme was done
   extraordinarily well in the War of the Worlds. On
   the other hand, Kate Smith's appeals were meticulously
   planned.

4. In both cases, the credibility of the source was high.
   In the War of the Worlds' programme, the newscasts
   were presented in such a way that expert opinion
   (though fictional) was brought in all the time.

   Similarly, Kate Smith was already a very popular
   person, very much liked and trusted, very widely known
   and commanded a very large audience for the programmes.
   She definitely did not portray the image of a devious
   salesman!

5. The characteristics of the audience played a large
   part as well. Regarding the play on the War of the
   Worlds, most of those who had been affected were
   those who did not seek further justification to the

situation (like consult a newspaper). The only justi-
fication some sought was to call their neighbours. In the
majority of cases this was what created the confused
picture. On the other hand, in Kate Smith's appeal, a
large number of those who have been affected were influenced
by the large and rising number of pledges from other people.

The evidence supporting the persuasive effectiveness of
mass media campaigns does not rest solely on those two
classic examples. There are a number of more recent experi-
mental studies that argue this position.

In the political sphere, Wade (1973) studied the media
effects on changes in attitudes towards the
rights of young people to vote. She carried out a field
study in April 1971 - during the period when the California
legislature was discussing the ratification of the constit-
utional ammendment giving voting rights to 18 year olds.
She found that the respondents who knew, through the media,
of the change in voting regulations changed significantly
more in willingness to allow youth to participate in poli-
tical activities. She concluded that her findings present
new evidence in support of the role of the media in the
creation of "social reality" by which the public can test
and compare the adequacy of their attitudes.

In an article called: "Can extremists using T.V. move an
audience?", Seasonwein & Sussman (1972) challenged the
assumption that television has a fail-safe quality pro-
tecting the viewer from political extremists. After the
defeat of Senator McCarthy, the assumption that television
has this quality became an accepted view. Seasonwein &
Sussmann carried a pilot study where an hour-long video-
taped debate was aired on educational television. The
debate was between three of the Chicago Seven and
three liberals. College students of all political per-
suasion from Left to Conservative were measured both

before and after the debate. There was a large shift in attitudes towards the non-Left positions among the college students. Another finding of this study was that the televised debate not only influenced overall beliefs and impressions - something for which television is argued to be effective - but it also changed beliefs about small "discrete bits" of information.

During the televising of a Congressional sub-committee hearing, an experimental study was carried out which is one of a few of its kind dealing with this bona fide telecast. Information tests and measures of meaning were administered on the viewers to find out how effective was this telecast. The author concluded that the results of the study indicated that coverage of the hearing was very effective on its viewers. On both the information tests and the semantic differential test which were used to measure effectiveness, substantial differences were noted for the television group as opposed to the non-television group. The author also pointed out that, although the design of the experiment did not include fine-enough differentiations of the extent of exposure to make a rigorous test, examination of the data for the television group appears to indicate that the greater the extent of television viewing, the greater was the effect. (Tannenbaum, 1971).

There are several other examples of the effectiveness of the media, specifically the press, on behaviour modification. Robinson (1974) found that careful statistical analysis of voting patterns in Presidential elections from 1956 to 1972 showed that, in some cases, readers of a newspaper that gave its editorial endorsement to a particular candidate were more likely to vote for that candidate as a consequence of that endorsement. Other examples have been presented by Liebert & Schwartzberg (1977).

However, politics is not very salient to the large majority
of people. They are much more occupied with their private
lives. (Sears & Whitney, 1973; Cantril, 1965).

Therefore, politics or polital issues should not be con-
sidered the sole criteria upon which the persuasive impact.
of the media is judged.

Although the vast amount of research on the effectiveness
and success of particular advertising campaigns is not
published, some would argue that the simple fact that
vast amounts of money are still allocated to publicising
products has to be taken to mean that some kind of effect
does exist. Given the fertile conditions that exist in
many developing countries, the considerable influence of
the media on buying appetites can readily be discovered.
(Bogart, 1959; Schramm, 1964).

However, the effectiveness of advertising is mostly of a
different nature. Weinberg (1960) argued that, in highly
competitive fields, the function of advertising may not be
persuasion, but achieving an accepted position in the normal
communication environment. A company may have to maintain
a certain minimal level of advertising and promotional
pressure merely to maintain a franchise of visibility,
familiarity and acceptability to the mass consumer. In
addition, the sales effectiveness of advertising has to be
put into a sounder perspective. Bauer (1964) explained that
promotions which, on practical grounds of dollar increment
in sales are highly successful, may mean no more than an
increase of one percent in a current brand's share of a
high-turnover product market, such as cigarettes. Taking
this in terms of the total population, this increase
represents the successful influence of 0.5 percent of all
adults. He continued that even the outstanding success of
a new brand, for instance, may consistitute the capture

of only a small percentage of a highly competitive market.
Bauer infers from these facts that a promotion can be
profitable even if it wins fewer people than it alienates.

Except for some dramatic successes, the effectiveness
of particular advertising campaigns - involving the
repeated use of a "mix" of media over an extended period
of time - still remains a commercial secret. Moreover,
sales (behavioural action) are not often considered a
suitable criterion for evaluating the effectiveness of
a campaign because of the difficulty of disengaging the
specific effects of the communication campaign from the
effects of several other factors and forces at work in the
market place, and which influenced the consumer purchases
(Colley, 1961).

Therefore, the fact that the communication goals of
advertising usually depend on such measures as salient
awareness of brand, recall of message, evaluation of
brand and interest in purchase; plus the argument that
it deals with low-involvement material (Krugman, 1965),
and therefore dos not arouse ego defense mechanisms, makes
the reference to advertising research in connection with
the effectiveness of media campaigns again not sufficient.

If political campaigns are not salient to the majority of
media audiences and advertising campaigns are not ego-involv-
ing, what kinds of programmes should be used to study
this controversy?. Programmes with more salient and in-
volving material.Let us present some other examples.

Children who were regular viewers of Sesame Street public
television programme were found to have more positive
attitudes toward children of other races, as compared
with children of the same age who did not view the pro-
gramme. (Lesser, 1974). This finding does not go un-
criticized (Cook et al, 1975). It might be argued that

children are much more gullible than adults, who are too sophisticated to be moved. The following example questions this assumption.

On April Fool's day, 1971, the Saturday Review (which is claimed to be read by a highly sophisticated and well-educated audience) published a letter to the editor. The letter was signed by a "K. Jason Sitewell" who, the analysts argued, could have been easily identified as the same author who appeared in the magazine on other occasions, usually around April Fool's day. This letter basically urged the editors and readers of the magazine to oppose H.R. 6142, a bill "introduced by Representative A.F. Day and co-sponsored by 43 other congressmen." Mr. Sitewell explained that, although the purpose of the bill - as it was claimed - was to restrict the size of private parks and to "democratize public parks" that were scarcely used, the hidden purpose of the bill was actually to abolish GOLF, the parks standing for golf courses. In his letter, Mr. Sitewell went on to explain how he knew, from personal acquaintance, that Congressman Day had a vehement, almost psychotic hatred, of golf due to certain unfavourable family experiences with the sport. His grandfather died in a sandtrap from "massive exasperation" and his father had died from a shock of hitting 19 balls into a pond on a par three green. As a result, Congressman Day was fanatically devoted to doing away with this sport. He presented several reasons for his appeal against the sport, basically depending on figures indicating that golf was the cause of 60,000 broken homes, 75,000 coronary cases, 93,000 golf course fatalities and 83,000 cases of hypertension.

Sitewell fervently called upon all friends of golf to rally to the defense of the game and help defeat H.R. 6142.

In the May 8th edition of the Saturday Review, a former editor of the magazine, who was a golf player himself,

admitted that the letter was a spoof. He explained how
all the persons involved (eg. A.F. Day, standing for
April Fool's Day), and the figures quoted had no foundation.

Still, this extremely well-written letter created a sig-
nificant effect on a minority of the audience of the
Saturday Review.

Schramm (1973), who reported this study, explained how the
most extraordinary things happened. He stated:

> "It is reported that emergency meetings were held
> by the governing boards of a number of golf clubs.
> A leading golf magazine reprinted the Sitewell
> letter under the heading 'A Frightening Bill'.
> The wife of a federal judge telephoned the
> Saturday Review for reprints of the letter to send
> to her husband and some of his friends, who were
> away on a golf holiday. The editor of the Saturday
> Review reports that at least a dozen congressmen
> or their assistants telephoned to say that H.R.6142
> was becoming a priority target in the mail from
> their constituents."

The hoax thus remained untested against reality until the
Wall Street Journal jokingly examined the whole incident
and the Saturday Review finally confessed.

This is an example of the effect of a media message in the
year 1971, and on a sophisticated adult audience.

During the months of April and May 1979, Thames Television
broadcast a series of programmes on Jonathan Dimbleby in
South America. Jonathan Dimbleby made those documentary
films in the South American states of Bolivia, Peru and
Brazil. The films were portraying the unbelievable circum-
stances some of those people were living in, whether they

were the short-lived miners of Bolivia, the poverty-
stricken peasantry of Peru, or the 600,000 abandoned
children in Brazil. The basic theme of those programmes
was to make the people in the Western industrialized
countries "to think" whenever they are using raw materials
from these countries. The films never appealed for any
specific action, yet hundreds of people sent money to
Thames Television during the programmes in a desire to
help alleviate the sufferings of those people. Peter
McKay (1979) explained how one lady said that she had
been planning to buy a carpet for her bedroom, but she
could not do this now that she saw the case of the dying
Emilio (the Bolivian miner suffering from killer dust).
Why were those films effective? Besides the fact that
they were very well done, they struck at the very heart
of the feeling of guilt in human nature. Another example of
a successful campaign is Blue Peter's aid appeal for Cambodia.

What about health campaigns?

In June 1967, officials of New York City's departments of
Health and Social Services started to enroll all persons
eligible for Medicaid. A very large campaign was run to
reach this objective. It included the newspaper, radio and
television as well as other print material, like cards,
posters and similar literature. In addition to that, they
organized "Neighbourhood Medicaid Days" in which volunteers
answered questions to passers-by; "Medicaid Shoppers Days",
an information table placed in department stores, etc.
Approximately 450,000 persons applied for Medicaid during
and immediately after the campaign. Moreover, around one
million out of the 3 million who were eligible for Medicaid
enrolled. (Alexander & Podair, 1969).

Consumption of cigarettes continued to rise in the United
States until 1963, when it reached a high of 217 packs
annually for each member of the adult population (non-

smokers, as well as smokers). When the Surgeon General's Report appeared linking cigarette smoking with cancer, consumption fell off to 210 packs per capita in 1964, and continued down to 199 packs in 1970. But then it started to rise again and by 1974 the level was at 214 packs. Davison, Boylan & Yu (1976) argued that one must be careful in interpreting behavioural trends, but it can be assumed that both advertising and the continuing anti-smoking publicity have affected information levels, attitudes and attention to the problem.

In an intense long-term campaign to decrease the risk of cardiovascular disease in a community, examination of data on smoking behaviour showed that the media messages only (while less effective than media plus face-to-face instruction) were still quite effective in producing modest changes in self-reported smoking behaviour (Maccoby, 1976). This last study was chosen as a case example, and will be discussed fully later.

C.   THE CASE STUDIES

Although several other examples of the persuasive effect
of the mass media can be quoted, it is much more potent
to analyse five case studies which involved campaigns with
tight planned designs and see how their results attempted
to support that mass communications are capable of enhanc-
ing information and moderating attitudes and behaviour.

I.   AN INFORMATION CAMPAIGN THAT CHANGED COMMUNITY ATTITUDES:

Douglas, Westley & Chaffee (1970) set out to compare
changes in an "experimental" community, following an
information campaign with a matched "control" commun-
ity in which there was no such campaign. Their general
research hypotheses were that a media information
campaign can increase information levels and change
attitudes, that these changes are inter-related, and
that they are augmented by person-to-person influence.
The context of the information campaign was not chosen
deliberately, but presented itself as an accident of
circumstances. The first author, who is the mother
of a retarded girl, wanted to carry an information
programme in a community lacking in sheltered work-
shops to prepare for the social acceptance of retardants;
she was employed by the University of Wisconsin Depart-
ment of Counselling and Behavioural Studies, specifically
in its training programme for personnel of sheltered
workshops for retardates.

The authors maintained that retardation as a topic
was   ideal in that firstly, there exists a very
low level of knowledge of mental retardation as a
community problem; secondly, there exists a small
likelihood that external events reaching both experi-
mental and controlled groups could significantly

affect the outcome; and thirdly, there exists a low
probability that hardened attitudes toward mental
retardates already existed. It was argued that, if
an information campaign under these conditions did
not affect information level and attitude, there
would be little basis for clinging to the media-
effects hypothesis.

Two communities in south western Wisconsin were
selected for the experiment; they were highly com-
parable in population characteristics, income,
occupational distribution and media education.

Before measures were obtained in September 1965 in
the form of questionnaires delivered to select house-
holds by volunteers who interviewed for fact sheet
data on demographic characteristics and media behaviour,
then left the questionnaires to be completed and mailed
to the University of Wisconsin. The after-measures
were administered in April, 1967, in the form of
questionnaires mailed to those who responded with sub-
sequent telephone and interpersonal followups.

The campaign was extensive. It included both media-borne
messages and face-to-face communication, although infor-
mation was fed directly into formal media channels only.
It consisted of 20 news stories, five feature stories
and a mental retardation week advertisement in the local
newspapers; posters and a display of articles made
by trainable retardates at a local shop; news items
broadcast an unaccounted number of times over local
radio, a well-publicized meeting in a church concerning
what the community should do about retardation locally;
items in church bulletins; special speakers at three
service clubs, plus an announcement by the Junior
Chamber of Commerce on the start of a year-long project
on the subject.

To the sponsors of the campaign, the results were
a boost. There was a significant change in the
information level and in attitude change in the
experimental community while none at all in the
control. Moreover, the correlation between infor-
mation gained and attitude change scores was + .40
in the experimental community and - .05 in the control
community. The former is significant at the p <
.001 level, the latter is not. Another finding
was that when the subjects were asked about inter-
personal channels of information, they answered that
it was the "media campaign" that activated the inter-
personal communication and friends were the most cited
personal source of interaction.

It was concluded that, despite the common doubts, it
turned out to be possible to bring out changes in the
model community attitude toward retardation programmes
through a local information media campaign.

II.   UNSELLING HEART DISEASE CAMPAIGN

A field experiment was conducted in three northern
California towns to determine whether community
health education can decrease the risk of cardio-
vascular disease. In two of these communities there
were extensive mass media campaigns over a two year
period, and in one of these, face-to-face counselling
was also provided for a sub-set of high risk people.
The third community served as a control; it was
selected as such because it was relatively distant
and isolated from media in other communities. The
subjects were chosen on the basis of a random (multi-
stage probability) sample of 35 - 39 year old men and
women. People from each community were interviewed
and examined before the campaign began, and one and
two years afterwards to assess knowledge and behaviour

related to cardiovascular disease. The behavioural
measure included such aspects as diet and smoking, as
well as physiological indicators of risk, like blood-
pressure, relative weight and plasma-cholesterol.

The mass media campaign in the two experimental
communities consisted of about 50 television spots,
three hours of television programming, over 100 radio
spots, several hours of radio programming, weekly
newspaper colums, newspaper advertisements and stories,
and printed material posted to participants.

The media campaign began two months after the initial
survey and continued for nine months in 1973. It was
then with-held for three months during the initiation
of the second survey, then continued for another six
months in 1974.

The results indicated that, in the control community,
the risk of cardiovascular disease increased over the
two years. However, in both the experimental commun-
ities, there was a substantial and sustained decrease
in risk. Comparing the two communities in which mass
media and face-to-face communications were administered,
it was found that in the community where some face-to-
face counselling was administered, the initial improve-
ment in health education and reduction in cigarette
smoking was greater and more successful. However, by
the end of the second year, the overall decrease in
risk was similar in the communities which received
additional face-to-face counselling and the one which
received mass media communications ONLY.

The conclusions of the study were that the mass media
can increase knowledge and change various health habits.
They added that the power of this instrument can be,
however, considerably enhanced if ways are found to use

the mass media to stimulate and co-ordinate programmes
of interpersonal instructions. They further argued
that, as the mass media are potentially more cost-
effective than face-to-face education methods, their
results strongly suggest that mass media educational
campaigns directed at entire communities may be very
effective, in this case, in reducing the risk of cardio-
vascular disease.
(Farquhar, Maccoby, Wood, Alexander, Breitrose, Brown,
Haskell, McAlister, Meyer & Nash, 1977).

III. "SOME REASONS WHY INFORMATION CAMPAIGNS CAN SUCCEED"

Mendelson (1973) presented an article with the above
title demonstrating by the analysis of three campaigns
that the mass media with the use of social science
research can be effective in bringing about attitude
change. He argued, on the basis of a series of case
studies, that collaboration between social scientists
and communications specialists, the application of social
science research regarding selectivity, appropriate
targets, appeals and media vehicles can help in making
public information campaigns more successful in
achieving carefully delineated goals.

1. "THE CBS NATIONAL DRIVERS TEST"

The Communication Arts centre was asked to participate
in developing a television traffic safety programme,
together with the Columbia Broadcasting System and the
National Safety Council.

The first thing the Centre set out to do was to pinpoint
the problem, set objectives and identify the targets.
The campaign was to be launched for the purpose of
affecting control over highway traffic accidents in

which "bad drivers" are involved. Previous research indicated that, in at least eight out of ten cases, operators of motor vehicles consider themselves to be either "good" or "excellent" drivers. Moreover, studies conducted by the Centre itself showed that drivers tended to ignore the thousands of persuasive traffic safety messages that appeared annually in the print media alone. The question, therefore, was how could a mass media information campaign be directed to "bad drivers" (given the indication that they all considered themselves "good"), and to a target people who tend to ignore safety messages all the time, and be effective? Again, effectiveness here has limitations; one cannot expect to eliminate ALL highway accidents.

Eventually, the decision was made to develop a television programme directed to the driving public in the pursuit of 3 middle-range objectives:

"(1)   to overcome public indifference to traffic hazards which may be caused by bad driving;

(2)   to make bad drivers cognizant of their deficiencies;

(3)   to direct viewers who became aware of their driving deficiencies into social mechanisms which had already been set up in the community to remedy such deficiencies." (P. 54).

Communication researchers, traffic safety experts and television production personnel all combined their expertise and worked together to implement those objectives. The net result was the "CBS National Drivers Test." It attempted to attract maximum public attention, so it was publicized by a massive promotional campaign. Around 50 million official test answers were distributed via newspapers, magazines and petrol stations throughout the country before the air-time. The programme was

aired just prior to the 1965 Memorial Day Holiday weekend. To determine the programme's success in meeting the specific objectives set, evaluation research was carried out both during the airing of the programme and afterwards.

The success of the campaign was beyond expectations. In terms of specific goals, the first of the programmes was judged to be effective. Approximately 30 million viewed the programme and were therefore made aware of certain high-risk traffic hazards. Following the programme, CBS news received mail responses from nearly a million and a half viewers. At least 60,000 individuals were made to realize their own driving deficiencies.

35,000 drivers actually enrolled in driver improvement programmes throughout the nation, following the first airing of the programme. This number represented an estimated threefold increase to the previous "total annual" voluntary enrollment in such courses. These gross figures speak for themselves in showing that a one-hour programme was effective beyond all expectations of the planners.

The conclusion of this study points out that innovative information-giving formats, assisted by strong prior-promotion, can overcome pre-existing "so-called public apathy" to a great degree. Secondly, the delineation of reasonable middle-range goals, narrowly defined and explicitly stated, can be successfully accomplished.

2. ALCOHOL AND TRAFFIC SAFETY CAMPAIGN

The Communication Arts Center set out to create an information campaign on alcohol and traffic safety. The realism surrounding the accomplishment of the above objective was discussed carefully before attempting to design the campaign.

(1)   If the objectives of the campaign were set out to "eliminate" traffic accidents, it would undoubtedly fail.

(2)   The stereotyped traffic safety messages to which the public were exposed daily had been found to produce a reaction of boredom and ennui.

(3)   Appeals to persuade people to give up solidly-anchored attitudes and habits pertaining to drinking will be avoided, as it was found that such moralizing by the media rarely worked.

The following stage was to agree upon what is to be considered the exact amount of alcohol intake that caused risky driving. The literature was found to be inconsistent on this point. However, the final model drawn posited that:

(a)   a large number of traffic accidents occurred as a result of subjective misperception of the risks involved in a driving situation;

(b)   even moderate amounts of alcohol intake directly affected misperception of those risks.

Therefore, the theme of the campaign was to be based on the fact that moderate amounts of alcohol intake would cause the drivers to underestimate the risks and overestimate their skills when driving, and thus it is prudent to avoid driving after drinking if at all possible. Once the theme and the middle-ranged objectives discussed above were drawn, the next stage was to design a film which would not be horatory and boring, as is the case of the numerous traffic safety films being shown.

Eventually, a six-minute film was developed which featured both live-action and animated sequences drawn by a Pullitzer prize-winning cartoonist. The film was called "A Short History", and it contained no words at all, but music in the background. It demonstrated the theme in a way which was "serious in its live sequences and humorous in its animated ones." (p. 56).

The reactions to the film were very encouraging. This was found on testing 905 subjects ranging from fourth-graders to alcoholic patients. Although the intention of the film was never explicitly stated, around 50% of the subjects tested said that the major message of the film was "if you drink, don't drive", and explained that the major message was how alcohol would cause misconceptions of risks while driving. Furthermore, 43% reported that viewing "A Short History" left them feeling concerned about the problem of drinking and driving and 48% stated that it had increased their interest in the problem of traffic safety in general. Three out of ten subjects declared that they are considering changing their previously-held ideas about drinking and driving as a result of the film. Mendelson added that this was true of 50% of the patients under treatment whose reactions to the films were tested.

The other important finding regarding this programme was that the quality of the film was so good that it was exhibited in Denver with a long running hit-feature, "Dirty Harry". The tremendous potential of information-giving power of programmes exhibited in a cinema theatre has been rediscovered. In such communication situations the audience is, to a certain extent, captive and thus the problem of selective exposure is largely over-ruled. Moreover, the audiences' defenses against being educated are usually low in the movie theatre communication

situation and there is minimum distraction in the
viewing environment.

The conclusions that can be drawn from this study
like that of the National Driver's Test, are:-

i)   the delineation of clear-cut and reasonably
        practical objectives;

ii)   the creation of innovative and interesting
        information giving formats for the programmes;

iii)   a detailed study of the true problem to be
        tackled and the audience under study;

iv)   the use of a movie-theatre setting can greatly
        reduce selectivity.

Therefore, keeping those suggestions in mind might
help in the future design of effective campaigns.

The basic point emphasized by those two studies,
analysed by Mendelson, was how to overcome public
apathy and create self-awareness of the problem
involved in the audience viewing information
campaign. The third study to be discussed presents
yet another example, but it is more relevant, as
it involves an audience whose cultural nature
required a different kind of approach than the one
used for Western culture.

3. THE "CANCION DE LA RAZA" PROGRAMME

The aim of this television programme called "The Song
of the People" was to ameliorate certain life-problems
of Mexican Americans in the Los Angeles area. The

problem was put forward to the University of Denver's
Communication Arts Center. In planning and develop-
ing this programme, the Center found themselves faced
with two different types of problems:

1)   television, which was to be employed for the
        information campaign, was not used enthusiast-
        ically "for enlightenment" by this minority
        group. The reason was that the media usually
        tended to present a distorted view of Chicano
        subpopulations.

2)   The formal instructional programming of the
        sort used in "educational television" would
        most probably be met by lack of enthusiasm
        because of the difference in the cultural
        nature of the audience under study.

A considerable amount of exploratory research was under-
taken in attempting to answer three critical questions
regarding the programme: What shall we say, To whom
shall we say it, and How shall we say it?

Eventually, solutions to the question of How shall we
say it began to develop. Previous experimental research
which had been conducted suggested strongly that infor-
mation implanted in a nondidactic vehicle, such as
drama, had a much better chance of attracting and
influencing subpopulations who were removed from the
"cognitive pedagogic tradition". Furthermore, the study
of media behaviour patterns of Mexican Americans in
Los Angeles indicated an uncommon amount of patronage
of a local Spanish-language television channel, which
devoted a considerable amount of its programmes to
"nouvellas", a type of Mexican soap opera. Those
investigations brought to light the idea of gearing
the information programme in the form of a soap opera

which has an established appeal with the target audience.
Moreover, to make the programme authentic and credible,
Mexican Americans were employed as writers, directors,
producers and actors. The net result regarding format
was 65 installments of Chicano soap operas (yet infor-
mation-giving) entitled Cancion de La Raza: Song of the
People. The story-line, characterization, plot and
ameliorative information inputs were guided by eleven
separate targeting studies of the Chicanos residing in
the Los Angeles area. The programmes were designed to
reflect "reality" as closely as possible.

The other critical questions of the study: What shall
we say and To whom shall we say it, were also eventually
solved as a result of the thorough pre-research carried.
What shall be said depended mostly on the target audiences'
voiced dissatisfactions. Forty-eight percent of the
target sample voiced dissatisfaction about youth, speci-
fically in connection with the inter-relationships that
existed between parents who adhered to traditional ways
of life and offspring who yearned desperately to adopt
more modern ways of life. Another dissatisfaction area
was the functioning of the government (34 percent)
specifically in relation to not being involved in
political processes and anomie (powerlessness). On
the basis of such pinpointing of dissatisfactions,
the major target audiences to be approached were de-
lineated. The other vital aspect of the pre-research
was to find out the values that were held highly among
this population, so as to approach them on the right
footing. The Milton Rokeach's Terminal and Instrum-
ental Value Scales served as a final input for
"Cancion de La Raza". Two values were found predom-
inant among the target sample. One centered on the
achievement of an untroubled, peaceful and tranquil
life (68%). The other emphasized the desirability of

a close, mutually interdependent and warm family
life (63%). Other less important values were
related to ethnic worth, self esteem, self-pride,
ambition, personal integrity... On the basis of
those values and the voiced dissatisfactions
involved, the themes of the programmes were
developed.

The effectiveness of the programmes was beyond ex-
pectations. Evaluative research conducted after the
initial airing of the programme showed that 223,000
of the 1,500,000 potential viewers, i.e. 15% of the
Mexican Americans, viewed at least some of the pro-
grammes that were telecast. Testing its credibility,
it was found that 64% got the correct theme, and nine
out of ten viewers found the programmes to be credible.
Other successes achieved were reported by Mendelson:

"   (1)   66 percent of the viewers reported that
          they have learned something from watching
          "Cancion de la Raza.

     (2)   57 percent claimed that watching the pro-
          grammes had provided them with ideas about
          how Mexican Americans in Los Angeles can
          improve their lives!

     (3)   48 percent of the viewers characterized the
          programme as "helpful" in a general sense,
          and 21 percent reported the series to have
          been helpful to them specifically and per-
          sonally.

     (4)   One in every ten viewers assented that the
          programmes had stimulated them to rethink
          their own lives, and 6 percent reported that,
          as a direct consequence of having viewed
          Cancion de la Raza, they had undertaken
          activities which they ordinarily would not
          have considered.

(5) Most important, 39 percent of all the
     viewers surveyed reported that they had
     begun considering organizing or joining
     a community organization or club which
     either would be or was already dedicated
     to the improvement of the Mexican American."

(P. 60)

Mendelson added that this last point was the main
objective of the programmes and indeed 6 percent
(13,400 persons) reported that they have already
joined a community organization as a result of seeing
"Cancion de la Raza."

Conclusion

Why did those studies succeed where so many others have failed?

Let us first clarify that all those case studies showed significant changes in information level, attitude and (in some) behaviour, as a result of the media campaigns. The first two campaigns used a combination of media channels plus face-to-face communication while the last three all involved television programmes only. If it is argued that the topic of the first campaign is not involving;   the situation is not true about the other four topics: diet & smoking habits, traffic safety, alcohol & driving, social integration with a community. In the first two campaigns there was a tight control study, while in the other three the figures speak for themselves. All were carried in natural field settings where all kinds of distractions were interacting freely with the campaigners' intentions. And, although the first two used interpersonal channels to reinforce media communication, they both stated that the media campaign was quite effective on its own.

Reasons:

1. The delineation of clear-cut and reasonably practical objectives.

2. The reference to social science research in relation to the understanding of human behaviour and media habits, selectivity, social and cultural norms and restraints, gratification, aspirations, needs and values etc.

3. The application of a thorough study beforehand on the predispositions of the target audiences.

4. A thorough investigation as to what is the true problem to be tackled and the theme to be developed.

5. The co-operation between the researcher and broad-caster into making an artistically creative programme based on research findings and suggestions.

6. The making of the appeals innovative and interest-ing to overcome public ennui.

It is interesting to note how, in all campaigns about traffic and alcohol described by Mendelson, the thorough research carried before designing the programme portrayed aspects of a problem not realised offhand. For example, the fact that all drivers think that they are "good drivers" and that even "moderate" amounts of alcohol create misperception of traffic risks. In addition, the decision that "drama" would commun-icate better to the different cultured community shows how explorative thinking is vital to the success of any campaign. Another interesting thing to note is the power of a movie theatre to impart information and at the same time overcome selectivity, which has been ignored for a long time.

Finally, it should be noted that one of the important factors in determining the "so-called" success or failure of an information/persuasion mass media campaign is the "expect-ations" with which the study is approached.

During and after the Second World War, when the notion of the "all powerful media" was very much in existence, the shock of the findings from experimental research that the media, on their own, were not capable of "sweeping people off their feet", brought down a phase of pessimistic out-look into research of this type. The social scientists

began to find out the immensity of the intervening variables
operating within a mass communication situation. The
notion of the immutable audience was dislodged. Some
researchers attempted to draw up conditions under which
mass communications could have direct effects, while
others called those conditions simply "salvaging explan-
ations" (McGuire, 1969).

Again, while some researchers regarded those intervening
variables as "obstacles" in the way of success, others
concentrated on understanding them and accepting them as
an integral part of any mass communication situation that
has to be accounted for in the final equation. It is
this acceptance of those intervening variables as part
of a communication situation which brought about the next
phase in research on mass media campaign effectiveness.
Over the last three decades, an immense amount of research
has been going on to understand more about those interven-
ing variables.

Now, researchers approaching a study of mass media campaign
do so with the limitations of the media capabilities acknow-
ledged, an understanding of how and why do the intervening
variables occur, a multitude of research findings and
suggested guidelines to direct them, and conservatively
outlined objectives for the study.

It is with those expectations and a tendency to delineate
specific elements of success (even in its modest manifest-
ations) that accounts for the accumulating evidence of
successful campaigns of the "seventies".

D. ELEMENTS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO THE SUCCESS OR FAILURE OF MASS MEDIA CAMPAIGNS

What are some of the elements that might contribute to the success or failure of a mass media campaign?

I. COMMUNICATION SITUATION AND EXTERNAL EVENTS

The first major element that plays a role in determining the outcome of a media campaign is the immediate situational conditions and external events surrounding the reception of a communication. Unfortunately, these variables are, to a large extent, outside the control of the communicator in a natural setting. Each media campaign has to be evaluated on the basis of its unique communication setting and the only way a campaign designer can learn how a specific setting can affect the outcome of a communication is to carry and evaluate more and more campaigns in a variety of settings.

II. AUDIENCE PSYCHOLOGICAL ELEMENTS

The second element is: the audiences' psychologically related variables. These involve the assumption of an active audience in a communication situation and revolve around "selectivity" in exposure, perception, retention, recall and congruence, etc.

These variables are again, to a certain extent, beyond the direct control of the communicator. However, a considerable amount of research has accumulated over the last three decades to give the campaign designer a thorough understanding of the causes for the existence of those variables.

This understanding helps the communicator to set practical objectives accounting for those variables and/or design the

communication in such a way to over-rule them. A thorough analysis before the campaign of the target audience is a vital ingredient for the success of a communication. Besides the knowledge of the basic demographic characteristics of the audience, information about their existing position regarding the topic of the campaign, their social and cultural values, their habits, needs and aspirations - all help the designer to co-ordinate the campaign themes with those findings. Furthermore, a thorough understanding of the theoretical formulations about human behaviour in relation to media use is essential, for example, how mass communications can have differential effects and the conditions upon which mass communications can have direct effects on behaviour. A further possibility (not yet tested) is that, if the designer is able to get enough information beforehand about the type of audience he is dealing with and their relative stand on the campaign topic plus their media habits and skills, he might be able to predict the hierarchy of effects that can occur and mould his strategy of the campaign to create those effects and measure them.

III   COMMUNICATION DESIGN ELEMENT

The third element relates to the design of communication itself and for a communication to be successful, it has to depend largely on the findings from element   II. However, this element is very much within the control of the communicators. There is enough experimental findings and guidelines in the literature to help the communicator put together the best combination of variables within the existing conditions. Variables like the credibility of the source, the message content, its format, strategy and type of appeal and choice of channel.

IV MESSAGE/CHANNEL PRESENTATION AND DISTRIBUTION

The fourth element is part of the overall communication
design, but as it has its own problems, we are referring
to it individually. Although this element can be categor-
ized as within the direct control of the communicator,
we do not have tested guidelines for employing its
variables like the previous element. While the previous
element has answers depending largely on the examination
of variables within controlled laboratory conditions,
the difficulty regarding the variables of this element is
their dependence for validation on field situations.
This is why we have a large number of suggestions, not
solutions. If a campaign is to be successful, some
plausible answers to those questions might be useful.

For instance, a practical question any designer of a
campaign would ask is: How readilly 'available' is the
communication? A broadcaster of a political campaign
might argue that the radio and television is saturated
with spots. But then, how saturated should a medium be
for the campaign to be successful. Some experimental
evidence pointed out that repetition gradually draws
attention, enhances recall and eventually familiarity
facilitates attitude change. But then, how much repet-
ition becomes pointless, and is it more effective to
repeat the same message (spot) or a different message,
but same theme? Furthermore, what length (time-span)
makes a spot most effective - 30 seconds, 60 seconds,
5 minutes, or maybe a longer, 15 minute, broadcast?
One experimental study of political commercials compared
the effectiveness of two types of political commercials;
image commercial and issue commercial, and two types of
lengths; 60 seconds and 5 minutes. The effect was
measured in terms of candidate evaluations, recall of
commercial content and likelihood of voting for the can-
didate.   Issue commercials resulted in higher candidate

evaluation, while image commercials resulted in greater recall of content. Furthermore, higher evaluation was also achieved by the five minute long commercial, but no significant effect in content recall was attributable to commercial length.

An interaction between type and length of commercials surfaced on the intention to vote measure, and the 60 seconds issue commercial appeared to be slightly superior to other type/length combinations. (Kaid & Sanders, 1978). More experiments like this would give us more definite answers.

Another practical question a designer might ask is: How attention catching is the communication? How does it stand out to the background and other distracting stimuli? Some researchers might argue that the bigger, louder and brighter the message, the more it is attractive. But again, sudden silence, sudden change in the perceived environment, sudden movement, dazzling patterns, are attention catching. It is vital, therefore, to account for the surrounding stimuli (school playground, factory floor, living room, movie theatre) before attraction can be categorized. Furthermore, what combination of those ingredients makes the communication most effective?

A further question might revolve around the fact that, in a natural setting, the message is not alone, it is immersed in a set of other media programmes or messages. So, how does the surrounding programme environment affect campaign effectiveness?

There is a considerable amount of evidence that points out that learning is affected by the emotional environment. (Rapaport, 1961). On the basis of this, it can be assumed that, programme effects are generated from the theoretical standing that viewer interest in programme storyline would

create a temporal drive for closure, and that the existence
of this drive for closure would have an impact on the
performance of the commercials in the programme. Kennedy
(1971) designed an experiment to test how programme environ-
ment can effect television thrillers, or a comedy, or a
variety show. His experimental results showed that the
type of programme environment does, in fact, affect the
commercial performance, but the environment is not indepen-
dent of the product, and product presentation. He argued
that pre-testing of commercials should account for the
programme environment, otherwise their assessment would be
in serious error. This research is only the third of its
kind in the field, and much more research is required to
find conditions for programme product congruence. Further-
more, the same type of research should be tested in relation
to political and other types of campaigns.

V   CHANNEL-MIX ELEMENTS

The fifth element largely under the control of the communi-
cator but involving a lot of unanswered questions. Although
we have gone some way in the understanding of specific
channel effectiveness in a campaign, there is still a lot
to be gained from further research. To start with, it was
previously mentioned how the majority of media researchers
have found interpersonal communications to be more superior
than media channels for persuasion and precipitating action.
However, other findings accumulated from the literature in
this research and the field study which will be examined
later, seem to be adding to the evidence that television
commercial communication can be quite persuasive on their
own.

Furthermore, in the advertising sphere, the ability of
newspaper ads. to increase sales significantly is an

accepted fact, yet commercial secret! (McNiven, 1963).
What about the effectiveness of other media channels?
Klapper (1960), in his review of field studies which
assessed differential effects of the media, concluded
that no medium has been explicitly shown to contribute
to persuasion, although all at one time or another had
been thought to do so. Today, this is not necessarily
true, but still there is a lot of controversial findings.
As was discussed in detail in the previous sections,
television has been found to be not effective in persuasion
in some studies and significantly effective in others.
Furthermore, some studies that were able to examine the
differential persuasive effectiveness of the various media
channels found television to be more effective than radio
which in turn was more effective than the press. (Mayo,
1964) Some researchers, however, found that although tele-
vision was more effective in adding to the consumers'
knowledge, newspaper ads. were capable of increasing sales
significantly, (McNiven, 1963). But, in a laboratory
experiment, Sawyer (1955) tested the effect of estimated
majority opinion on attitudes change following live,
televised or written persuasive messages, and reported
no significant differences. Similarly, Frandsen (1963)
examined the level of threat in persuasive messages
presented either live, televised or by audio tapes, and
found that the media channels had no effect on attitude
change. In the political sphere, Keating & Lataué (1976)
on the basis of a laboratory experiment, found that if
an election candidate is more concerned about the type
of image he projects, a t.v. campaign would be the most
effective way for him to persuade voters to elect him.
If, however, political issues are the main concern of a
campaign, it seems that television is no more nor less effective
a medium than radio or print. For a similar study see Cohen(1976).

The majority of those findings, however, are not carried
in the field, but under laboratory conditions. If the true

effectiveness of those channels are to be examined
more systematic research has to be carried in controlled
field settings, where numerous other factors are allowed
to interact freely and either enhance or decrease the
effectiveness of the communication.

What about the question of the optimal media-mix? Again
the answers here are not definitive. The only thoroughly
documented suggestion is that a mass medium, reinforced
by interpersonal communication, produces more effective
results. Television plus interpersonal communication has
been tested several times and found to be an effective
combination. However, studies in rural sociology on the
adoption of innovations in developing countries used other
combinations. Neurath (1961; 1962) found that the com-
bination of radio and interpersonal communications was the
most effective in enhancing knowledge and the adoption of
innovations among peasant villages in India. But is tele-
vision and interpersonal communications more effective than
radio and interpersonal communications, or the press? If
all the media are used in a campaign, how much of radio
and print and television, and with what intensity, is most
effective? Such questions need further systematic research
to answer them.

Let us present an example of the above situation by quoting
a few studies about the best combination (mix) of visual
and auditory elements in a campaign. Coffin & Tuchman (1968)
found that television campaigns, once established, could
be shifted to radio. They explained that the radio extension
of the campaign would then reap the benefit of the "image"
initiated by the television. In other words, radio advert-
ising using only the audio elements of the message would
have the same effect on the receiver of the television
message. Therefore, imagery transfer works, but of necessity
is a strong theme and substantial television investment.

From this suggestion, Baldwin & Surlin (1969) carried out
a study to identify the value of the television image
in relation to its effectiveness in a campaign, and
whether it differs, is superior, or can be effectively
transferred to an auditory image on the radio. They
found that there was very little measurable difference
between radio and television (audio and audiovisual)
commercial messages except for one factor, the attention
level. The audiovisual message attracted more attention
than the audio message alone. They concluded that adver-
tisers should take a skeptical look at the suggestion
that "imagery transfer" is effective before finding the
relative effectiveness of each medium.

However, Dickson (1972) tested another type
of combination of image co-ordination between media. He
measured the effectiveness on sales when point-of-purchase
advertising visual images were co-ordinated with television
visual image advertising. He found that, when those images
are co-ordinated, there was a 15.5% greater productivity
over that of displays having similar, but t.v. unrelated
point-of-purchase material. He concluded that although
this positive effect could be due to the unique circum-
stances of his study, campaigners might be able to make
their campaigns more effective by a thorough investigation
of image co-ordination between media.

The point that has to be stressed here is that a large
number of experimental findings like those which might
help the communicator to co-ordinate a more effective
channel mix and message presentation and distribution are
largely "commercial secrets", not available to a researcher
in the field. The commercial researcher usually concentrates
his field experiments on such variables as the total amount
of communication pressure, the comparative efficiency of
different media and different strategies of scheduling

or distributing messages through a given medium or across
media (Bogart, 1973). Those findings would be of extreme
interest to the campaign designer. However, an academic
communication researcher should realize the limitations
of the findings of a commercial researcher. Those limita-
ations revolve around the fact that the commercial analyst
is generally content to accept the characteristics of the
audience as immutable (Bogart, 1973). Secondly, because
of the presence of uncontrollable variables owing to the
difficulty of disengaging specific effects of the commun-
ication from other effects, the results cannot be evalu-
ated on the methodological basis an academic would require.
(Palda, 1966; Britt, 1969). Thirdly, the results tend to
be highly specific to the particular product and campaign
tactics under investigation, therefore the results have
been kept confidential and have not built to a level with
which theoretical implications can be drawn.

On the other hand, the academic student of effects being
interested ordinarily in relating variables of content
of message to predisposition of target audience, have
gone some way in understanding human-media relationships
and drawing theoretical conceptualizations. But, the
academic researcher does not usually have the opportunity
to test the theoretical implications in the field like
the commercial researcher.

If co-operation is accomplished between those two types
of researchers so that a merging of ideas, findings and
testing of theoretical implications can occur, we can go
a long way towards co-ordinating variables to create
effective campaigns.

VI   RESEARCHER-BROADCASTER CO-OPERATION ELEMENT

This element portrays another determining ingredient for
the success or failure of a communication. The broad-
casters might have the essential skills and artistic
creativity to make a campaign attractive, but in many
cases, they do not know the real problem involved
behind a campaign and the audiences' true reaction and
feedback to what they view. Reactions to a programme
depend on a subtle interplay between the content of the
communication which can be shaped by the producer's
image of his audience and the real characteristics and
predisposition of the audience. Many times, although the
content is brilliantly created, the image the producer
has of his audience is not accurate. There are several
examples in the literature of failure of a communications
message to communicate to the target audience, because
the theme depended on the broadcaster's stereotype of his
audience instead of the documented suggestions of the
researcher. Mendelson (1973), Halloran (1971) Gurevitch
(1971), Himmelweit (1963), all discuss the problems
surrounding the lack of co-operation of the researcher
and broadcaster and the resulting confusion.

For an information/persuasion campaign to be successful,
this co-operation is absolutely necessary.

VII METHODOLOGICAL ELEMENT

This is the most difficult element facing a communication
researcher. Although some researchers argue that putting
the blame for the lack of effectiveness of media campaigns
on methodological problems is only one way of salvaging
the situation (McGuire, 1969), the truth is the problem

still exists. Ball (1976) emphasized that we are still
facing difficult problems regarding the evaluation of
media campaigns in natural settings. Problems like
applying a true experiment with valid control in
the field, sampling, ensuring validity and reliability
of measures, as well as administering the campaign to
fulfill the set design within reasonable cost and effort
are very salient. (The next Chapter discusses further
this problem.)

This study does not attempt to solve all the problems
of effective campaigns even though the intention was
there all through. However, a description of the
problems and limitations, as well as the vast possibil-
ities available, helps to give the future designer of
a campaign a better understanding as to what is involved.
The following outline describes briefly what points one
should consider and ponder upon before designing the
campaign.

OUTLINE OF ELEMENTS AFFECTING THE SUCCESS OR FAILURE
OF MASS MEDIA INFORMATION/PERSUASION CAMPAIGNS

I.   Communication. Situation and External Events.

II.   Audience Psychological Elements

    SELECTIVITY   MOTIVATIONAL DIMENSIONS ACCOUNTED FOR:

a) selective attention   Taste and Habit

b) selective perception   Consistency and Congruity

c) selective retention   Uses, Needs and Gratifications
    and recall.

    PREDISPOSITIONS   EXISTING FRAME-OF-REFERENCE DUE TO:

a) cognition: information   1. Individual learning and
                                 personality differences

b) image

c) beliefs   2. Categoral classification

d) attitudes   3. Social and cultural conform-
                               ity (influence of family,
e) behaviour   peer group, societal and
                               cultural norms).

III. Communication Elements

    A. SOURCE

    a) credibility: expertise/trustworthiness

    b) similarity

    c) attractiveness

    B. MESSAGE CONTENT

    a) Format: i)   order of presentation

                  ii)   primary recency

                iii) message noise

    b) Strategy: i) blatent intent vs. disguised

                  ii)   goal specific vs. ambiguous

                iii) single vs. multiple goals

c) Appeal: i.   emotional vs. rational

ii.   fear threat: high, low, moderate, none

iii.   drama vs. documentary

iv.   fictitious vs. truthful

v.   dream oriented vs. reality oriented

IV.   Channel/Message Presentation & Distribution

a)   availability (physical)

b)   repetition

c)   frequency of repetition

d)   frequency span

e)   time span of message

f)   presentation time (peak, etc.)

g)   programme surroundings

h)   attention catching ingredients

i)   innovative designs

V.   Channel-Mix

a)   single vs. multi-media

b)   mass medium plus personal source mix

c)   medium choice and intensity

d)   medium image transfer

e)   channel noise

VI.   Researcher-Broadcaster Co-operation

DEVELOPMENT OF THEMES ON THE BASIS OF:

a)   researchers analysis of audience predispositions

b)   researchers analysis of true problem

c)   producers skill and artistic creativity

d)   measurement of feedback & reorganization of programmes

VII.   Methodological Elements

a)   specifying objectives

b)   choice of appropriate design

c)   use of multiple indicators

CHAPTER VII

STRATEGY AND DESIGN OF THE MAIN STUDY

This Chapter integrates the empirical and theoretical studies presented in the previous Chapters with a suggested framework for the strategy and design of the main study.

There are two basic questions involved in relation to this analysis:-

A.   How to approach the target population

B.   How to design a campaign whose effectiveness can be measured and evaluated.

A.   HOW TO APPROACH THE TARGET POPULATION

To start with, the target population are female school pupils of ages ranging between 13 and 17 years (a more thorough description is presented later).

The main objective of the campaign would be to try to persuade those pupils to consider joining the Nursing Profession, which is in need of more Bahraini applicants.

I.   SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

1.   Information Level:

For items included in the campaign programmes, post programme knowledge should be greater in the experimental groups than the control group.

2. Image Change:

   The social image of the Nursing Profession (as measured by the items in the study) should show a larger positive shift in the experimental groups than in the control group from before to after the campaign.

3. Attitude Change:

   The attitude towards the nursing profession, both general and specific (as measured by items in this study), should show a larger positive shift in the experimental groups than in the control group from before to after the campaign.

4. Behaviour Change:

   There should be a larger number of female applicants for this campaign year as compared to the previous two years.

5. Qualitative Change: Applicants' characteristic change

   There should be a change in the 'calibre' academic standard, of the pupils applying this year, as compared to the past two years.

The "change" referred to here would simply be used to mean a shift in position (on a measurement scale) from the one held by the individual (or found on a register) before the programme to a point nearer to the position propagated by the communicator. However, if the previous position held is already in accordance with the one being propagated, then it is hoped that the change would reflect a further reinforcement of existing position and not a deterioration. For example, if a subject already "agrees" with a specific favourable image of Nursing, it would be hoped that she would "strongly agree" with this position after the programme.

As it can be seen, there are several levels of change desired:

Information, Image, Attitude and Behaviour.

Those changes relate to every individual. The 'calibre' change would involve, for example, the change from applicants with a 70% average of school marks to more applicants with an 80% school average.

II. ASSESSING THE SITUATION

How to design an information-persuasion campaign in which the target audience consists of adolescent female school pupils.

Ideally, the campaign should be carried out in a natural setting. However, such a decision in itself brings forth a number of complications. We would have to account for the effectiveness of the campaign on recipients, other than the target audience and whose opinions, views, beliefs, etc., would interact with those of the target audience. Therefore, a definition of the "social culture" we will be dealing with is a prerequisite. What sort of society and culture dominates the lifestyles of the target audience? What form of social relationships and decision-making processes would we be involved in? Should we direct the campaign programmes only to the target audience assuming that they are rational information-processing individuals who make their own decisions; or, are we going to give more importance to the influence and social approval of family, friends and traditional cultural norms in the final decision-making process? In addition, we should not forget that we are dealing mainly with adolescent schoolgirls, whose age and sex are vital factors in determining the type of appeal the campaign should encompass. The interests and dreams, and aspirations, of this age group should be considered carefully.

What about the media channels through which the campaign
is to be transmitted? How does our target audience use
those channels? Which is the most available media
channel? Which is the most trusted and believed media
channel? Which is the favourite media channel? In what
context are the media channels used? Does the target
audience depend more on interpersonal channels for their
decision-making?

In connection with the campaign design, we have to make a
decision as to how to overcome selectivity. If the campaign
is to be carried out in a naturalistic setting, we will be
faced with a number of alternative impinging stimuli dis-
tracting the pupils from our campaign. For instance, if we
decided that television is the channel medium most trusted,
believed and used by our target audience, carrying out a
television campaign brings forth a number of problems. First
of all, in Bahrain, television is widely available and there
are very few (if any) families who do not have a set, or
view at some time. But, there are seven other channels
that can be seen on the screen besides Bahrain local
station. There is Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Dhahran, Qatar,
Abu Dhabi, and even Iran and Oman. Therefore, to over-
come selectivity we might have to find out the time when
the majority of pupils switch on Bahrain television and
try to put through our programmes then. We might also
have to repeat the programmes several times so that at
least one of them is viewed. We might also decide to use
another channel to reinforce the television programme.
Maybe the radio and the press; billboards in the streets,
or a lecture in the school and classes.

However, we do not only have to deal with the physical sel-
ectivity but psychological selectivity in attention, percep-
tion etc. The production of the programmes has to be attention
catching and emotive. It has to be made in accordance with the

habits, tastes and likes of the target audience. The
themes have to be designed in such a way that they do
not bring up the defense mechanisms of the audience,
but are more in accordance with societal norms. Still,
the dreams, aspirations, ambitions of schoolgirls of
this age, their needs and gratifications, should be put
forth. It is very important here to set a balance as to
what is interesting and relevant to the schoolgirls, yet
at the same time not offensive to the girl's parents and
teachers whose points of view could be very important in the
final decision-making process.

Further questioning should be done in connection with the
topic of the campaign to find out the resistances and
develop the themes. What information do those pupils have
about the Nursing Profession and Nurses? What social image
does Nursing hold? What is their attitude towards this job?
Moreover, what is the attitude of those pupils towards
womens' role and work? We have to realize that we are in
a society where working women are not a phenomena taken
for granted!

Once all this has been clarified, then comes the problem of
deciding what strategy and type of appeal is most relevant
to the situation at hand and the kind of audience with which
we are dealing. Should the appeal be made in a pedagogic
manner, or in dramtic form? Should it be emotional or
rational? Should it be fictional or truthful? Should it
involve an element of fear and threat, or not? Should the
intent of the campaign be made blatent and specific, or
disguised and ambiguous? What source type should ideally
convey the message?

The final problem to solve would be to find the best design
which should be used so that the effectiveness of this
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in the next Section.

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The final problem to solve would be to find the best design
which should be used so that the effectiveness of this
campaign can be measured. This last problem is dealt with
in the next Section.

Although the hypothesis, assumptions, strategy and plan
are presented here, the thorough pilot studies carried
and explained show how some of those assumptions and plans
have been modified and some changed.

III.   THE CULTURAL MODEL

To define the culture we will be dealing with, let us first
quote Margaret Mead's description of societies.

> "There are societies having deeply institutionalized
> cultures that provide the individual with ready-made
> reality against which to interpret new phenomena.
> Other societies are at the other extreme, when the
> individual is at his own to construct modes of re-
> action to new events on the basis of his own internal
> processes."   (Mead, 1937)

On the basis of the researcher's first hand knowledge of
the society and culture in which the study was to be carried,
the following assumption was made. The society is, to a
very large extent, dependent on ready-made reality against
which the individual interprets new phenomena. It has a
deeply institutionalized religious culture (Islam) and the
average individual rarely questions its teachings. Conform-
ity is a typical behaviour pattern, even for those who have
doubts. .Social pressure is too strong, and peace and
harmony can only be achieved by conformity to the traditional
rules.

Therefore the most cogent persuasive strategy to use in this
context is De Fleur's "Socio-Cultural-Model" which states
in diagram form:

| Persuasive Message | → | Defines or re-defines socio-cultural process of groups | → | Forming or altering definitions for socially approved behaviour for group members | → | Achieves change in the direction of overt action. |
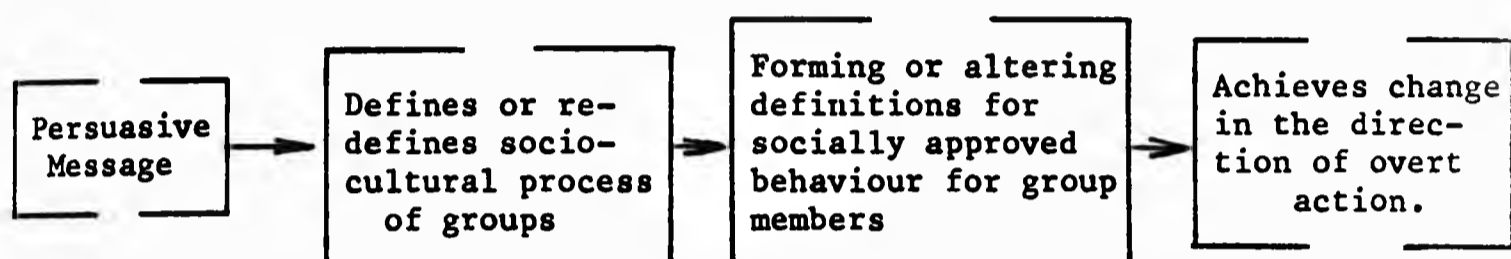
(The theory behind this diagram is explained fully in Chapter IV).

IV. HYPOTHESIS AND ASSUMPTIONS

1. Consistency and Congruity:

   The target population (in this context) are more likely to accept change when it is not in conflict with their normative and traditional religious beliefs.

2. Uses and Gratifications:

   They are more likely to accept the proposed change when they "perceive" it to have advantages which can be demonstrated in the present or are anticipated in the future. Advantages can mean a number of things; it can mean material gains, prestige, social approval, meaning to life, job satisfaction, etc.

3. Source Credibility:

   They are more likely to accept change when it is introduced by people whom they consider as important and competent. For instance, it can be a liberal religious figure, or a successful attractive nurse figure, with whom they can identify.

4. Modal Traits:

   They are more likely to accept change when it is in accord with the "modal personality traits" of their

society, or goals they are seeking (Doob, 1968). For
example here, independence within "approved social"
structure.

5. Simplicity for Learning:

They are more likely to accept the proposed change when
it makes demands whose components they have already
learned or felt confident to learn.

Therefore, we expect to be dealing with a situation where we
are basing our analysis of change on the assumption that human
beings cannot tolerate inconsistency and whenever inconsistency
exists in a person, she will try to eliminate or reduce it.
(Festinger, 1957)

In other words, the point is to approach the target population
making the object of persuasion (positively viewing Nursing)
look like a normative approved aspect of society, (so a diss-
onant element would be made to look like a consonant one).
Thus, assuming that dissonance exists within the target
population regarding the social prestige of the Nursing
profession as different from its humanitarian aspect, finding
a socially approved way to reduce this dissonance will help
propagate change.

V. THE THEORETICAL STRATEGY

Therefore, the strategy to be used is one that portrays the
normative structure of the group and stresses social approval.
In specific terms:

    i)   The communicator can stress the way in
               which a specific 'role' is defined (so
               as to include the use of the object of
               persuasion). Such messages can demonstrate
               how adoption of the communicator's prop-
               agated role is <u>normative</u> in the group

within which this role lies. The communicator can show how the non-adopter is a deviant and non-conformist (in the negative sense).

ii) At the same time, the manner in which social rewards and social approval are given to the adopter of the communicator's goals can be stressed.

iii) Finally, the manner in which adoption achieves group integration, and how this behaviour is consistant with approved group values can be brought out. (See page 209 for a diagram). This strategy, which is based on De Fleur's (1972) Socio-Cultural model has not been tested to my knowledge.

VI. THE PLAN

To sum up, the plan for this social change is portrayed. The questions of this plan are taken from Kahneman & Schild (1966), and the answers are adapted to this study.

1. a) WHOSE BEHAVIOUR IS TO BE CHANGED?

    Second intermediate and last secondary class female Bahraini pupils. (These grades are explained in the next Chapter).

   b) WHAT IS THE PRECISE NATURE OF THE CHANGE DESIRED?

    i) Learning change. Better information about the Nursing profession.

    ii) Attitude change. Positive attitudes towards the Nursing profession.

    iii) Behaviour change. More recruits into the Nursing School

iv) Social category change. Better 'calibre' of
girls getting into the Nursing School.

2. WHAT GROUPS OF INDIVIDUALS ARE LIKELY TO PLAY A CENTRAL
ROLE IN THE PROCESS OF CHANGE OR IN THE RESISTANCE TO
CHANGE?

   (a)   Relevant groups:
         Family and relatives, teacher and friends;

   (b)   Influentials in the group:
         The father and elder brother. To a lesser
         extent, the mother. They are all, more or less,
         restricted by religious teachings.

3. FOR EACH KEY INDIVIDUAL, WHAT ARE THE MAJOR DETERMINANTS
OF THE RESPONSE TO THE PROPOSED CHANGE?

   (a)   Motivational:
         A desire for medical knowledge and independence.

   (b)   Restraining Forces:
         Conformity pressure and fear of becoming a
         deviant. (Elaboration on those points are
         discussed in the next Chapter, Section H.)

4. WHAT IS THE STRUCTURE OF PERSONAL INFLUENCE IN THE
COMMUNITY?

Who are the persons to be directly approached by the
agents? They are specifically the person herself, but
also the father, elder brother and mother. Again, one
has to accept the fact that influentials like the
father are themselves influenced by the religious
structure.

5. FOR EACH INDIVIDUAL TO BE APPROACHED:

   (a)   What can the agent do to reduce restraining
         forces (including how to avoid the needless
         arousal of antagonism), and how to increase

driving forces?

To approach from their own normative structure
and present the object of change in such a way
that it is regarded as one of social approval.
The stress in this context is to approach them
from a religiously based setting.

(b)   What are the aims of approaching this person,
mobilization of active support or neutraliza-
tion of opposition?

The aim is that, as a result of neutralizing
the resistances towards the object of persuasion,
and making it look culturally approved, active
participation would consequently take place.

6.   RE-EVALUATION

Can this change be obtained within reasonable time and
cost?

This study was completely backed by financial and admin-
istrative government support.

B.   HOW TO DESIGN A CAMPAIGN WHOSE EFFECTIVENESS CAN BE
      MEASURED AND EVALUATED.

Before attempting to answer this question, it is interesting
to put forward another question: Is measuring the effectiveness
of a campaign worthwhile?

There are several critics who would argue against the waste
of resources in designing and measuring the effectiveness
of campaigns, especially as data has been accumulating
regarding the ineffectiveness of campaigns, some with good
designs. For example, O'Keefe, (1971); Cook, (1966);
Robertson, (1976); and others.

However, this is not the view held in this study. With an
operation as expensive and time-consuming as broadcasting,
neither the industry nor the public can afford to remain in
ignorance over the effectiveness of specific campaigns or
programmes. Effectiveness studies are vital, as they can
be made to provide positive and specific help, for it is
usually possible to make them yield quite a lot of informa-
tion, or at least hypotheses, about the possible causes of
failure or success of the programme or campaign. Though
such insights are, in a sense, "wisdom after the event", as
put by Belson (1967), they are useful and usable, as they
can promote and guide the elimination of certain failure
elements from other programmes or campaigns.

Belson (1967) emphasized that, if in developing a programme
or campaign, the broadcaster has called for and made good
use of a "planning study", the chances of that programme
failing to do what it was intended to do will be considerably
reduced. This, however, is not a guarantee against failure.
The planning study provides guidelines, but there are many
ways in which the operation can go wrong. Because research

has shown extensive failure evidence of programmes and
campaigns, therefore this adds to the importance of carry-
ing out effective measurements. Several other researchers
also support this position. (Nunnally 1975); Campbell &
Stanley, 1963; Emmett, 1966).

I. REQUIREMENTS FOR VALID CAMPAIGN EVALUATION

Haskins (1970) described campaign evaluation as the "measure-
ment of the relevant effects of a campaign". He explained
how several characteristics are necessary to measure truly
the effects of communication in the real world.

1.   "NATURALISTIC COMMUNICATION CONDITIONS SHOULD PREVAIL
      DURING THE RESEARCH".

      (a)   Normal representatives of the target audience
              should get normal messages through normal
              media in their normal surroundings.

      (b)   Message distribution should be unobtrusive in
              the sense that the subjects are unaware of any
              special research purpose of the communication.
              Messages should be presented by normal spokes-
              men, rather than some special interviewer or
              investigator.

      (c)   Normal selective attention and incidental
              learning should be operative. "Noise", in the
              form of competing stimuli and messages, other
              persons and social interaction, as normally
              present, should be operative.

2. "THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAUSE AND EFFECT SHOULD
   BE CLEAR".

   The measurement effects should be demonstrably due to
   the communication treatment(s) and nothing else. To
   do this:

   (a)   Treatment assignment must be under control of
          and manipulated by the investigator.

   (b)   A control over alternative treatment groups
          should be used for comparison.

   (c)   Assignment of subjects or sampling units should
          be random rather than purposive.

   (d)   The experimental design should permit elimination
          of uncontrollable influences, such as "historical,
          maturation and instrumentation effects."

3. "MEASUREMENT SHOULD BE UNOBTRUSIVE AND VALID".

   Unobtrusive, non-reactive measures should be used where
   possible or, at the very least, no perceptible connection
   between communication and measurement should be apparent.

   (a)   The choice of the dependent variable should be
          based on pertinence to the criterion behaviour
          under investigation, rather than convenience.

   (b)   The period between treatment and measurement
          should be long enough to get a long-term, as
          well as immediate, effect.

   (c)   Random sampling of subjects from the target
          audience.

(d)   A high recovery rate of data from the chosen sample.

(e)   A large enough size to detect expected small changes.

4.   "THE TOTAL COMMUNICATIONS AND RESEARCH DESIGN SHOULD BE ACCURATELY EXECUTED"

The design of a campaign is relatively easy, the execution of it is very laborious. The total plan should be followed exactly, and any deviations should be equal among all treatment groups.

In short, to en re the external validity of a campaign, the naturalistic setting and the application of valid measurements are necessary to be able to generalize to the real word. In addition, a true experimental design, or a design where cause and effect are clear, is necessary for internal validity of the study.

Therefore, a proper experimental design in a naturalistic setting is necessary to evaluate the effects of a communication campaign.

This is all very desirable, but in a real life situation, it is extremely difficult and laborious to keep to those standards. To start with, if the funds are available, this simplifies some of the problems of applying the research in a naturalistic setting. Moreover, it is possible to design measures that are (to a certain extent) unobtrusive and disguised. But, carrying a campaign in a natural setting, in itself, brings forth a major difficulty, and that is applying a "true experiment" in the field.

Considering true experimental designs for measuring the effectiveness of mass media campaigns, there are several

alternatives one can choose from. The pre-test, post-test
control group design, the Soloman four-group design, the
post-test only control group design. All have their strong
points and weak ones and have to be chosen in accordance
with the conditions and priorities of the study. (See
Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

However, there is one basic requirement for all those designs
which is difficult to apply in a natural field setting: the
random assignment of subjects to treatments. Let us start
with the fact that, if one is able to carry this random
assignment, how would one guarantee fidelity of the treat-
ment groups? How could one ensure that those assigned to
the experimental treatment actually viewed the programmes
and those assigned to control did not? When we are evalu-
ating a series of programmes, not one, this becomes even
more difficult.

Ball (1976) suggested three possibilities to deal with this
problem of fidelity as compiled from previous studies facing
this situation.

1.   To overcome "fidelity", one can verbally encourage the
      experimental subjects to view the designated programme(s)
      and not encourage the control group. Ball & Bogatz
      (1970) pointed out that this was minimally effective.
      However, in their study, instead of the fear of having
      a small experimental and a large control group, they
      had the opposite situation. To account for the small
      number of the control group, they had to carry a number
      of different logical and statistical techniques to try
      to sort out the effect of viewing in comparing the two
      groups. Another drawback to this possibility is the
      "reactivity" involved in encouraging the group to view,
      with the dependent variable of the study.

2. Another way of implementing a true experimental design
    and at the same time overcoming fidelity, is to put the
    series to be evaluated on cable television, or U.H.F.
    stations and to provide reception capability of this
    station to the randomly selected experimental group.
    Again, Bogatz & Ball (1971) tried this technique and
    found it possible to apply. However, this technique has
    the disadvantage of the fact that one can generalize the
    findings only to such audiences as potential cable sub-
    scribers. On the other hand, it is expensive to install
    and maintain cable in the experimental subjects' homes.

3. A third possibility is to assign control subjects to view
    a different television programme broadcast at the same
    time as the experimental subjects. To ensure viewing
    and assess the fidelity, reminder telephone calls
    should be placed to all subjects immediately before
    and after the programmes. Differences between the two
    groups measured at post-test can therefore be attributed
    to the differences in the programmes viewed. (Ball,
    Bogatz, Kazarow & Rubin, 1974).

The biggest drawback of this alternative is "reactivity".
How can one argue confidently that the impact was due to
the treatment alone, to the processes used to keep the
treatment groups intact, or to some interaction of these?
However, if reactivity can be shown to be of little consequence,
this study merits a lot of consideration.

One way to test reactivity is to "keep back" some of the
subjects of the experimental treatment group by not calling
them DIRECTLY before the programme for encouragement, but
do that just at the beginning of the research. Differences
between the two experimental treatment groups would show
whether there was a significant impact of the extra telephone
calls administered.

These examples do not exhaust the possibilities for a way
to use the true experimental design in the field.

However, in the majority of cases, the implementation of a
true experimental design in assessing the effectiveness of
media programme(s) is not possible. . It could be too
expensive, cumbersome, impractical or unethical. Specifi-
cally in cases where it is unfair to prevent a specific
group from viewing, the random assignment of experimental
and control groups becomes impossible. In such cases, a
weaker quasi-experimental design becomes more logical to
use. (Rubin, 1974).

Belson, (1956), Emmett (1965), Campbell & Stanley (1963);
Campbell (1969); Nunnally (1975);   and others all
discussed how to implement an experimental design in a
field setting to evaluate the effectiveness of programmes.

The following analysis would be a portrayal of the different
approaches suggested by them leading towards the design found
to be most appropriate for this study.

We will be selective in choosing the designs which could
possibly apply to this study.

II. POSSIBLE DESIGNS

1) The Simple Before/After Design

This is the simplest technique, but in no way efficient.
The attitudes of the target population are measured
before and after the programme is presented, and the
difference between the two is the measure desired.

WEAKNESSES:

i)   Influences other than the exposure to the
        programme itself can enter into the experi-
        mental situation in such a way that the

effects of these influences become confused
with those of the programme.

ii)   Testing reactivity might occur when the same
people are tested before and after the prog-
ramme which might produce misleading results.
The testing before might influence the pop-
ulation, especially if the tests are concerned
with awareness of facts or learning situations
presented in the programmes.

2)   Before/After Design with Control Material

This is the simplest design that might be considered
reasonably safe to use as a development of the before/
after system. Two separate samples are used, each
drawn randomly, so that barring sampling error, one
might be considered equivalent to the other. Either
one of them is regarded as the before sample, and the
other as the after sample. The before sample is tested
just before the broadcast, the after just after the
broadcast (the tests being identical), thus eliminating
the effect of double-testing, test retest influences.
The tests relate to whatever programme is expected or
intended to modify or change knowledge, attitudes or
certain kinds of behaviour.

To control for the influence of non-programme events,
extending the tests to include knowledge of a range
of facts relating to the topic of the programme, but
not given in the programme itself, (i.e. non-programme
facts). The idea is the differences in the score for
non-programme facts could point to the operation,
(influence of factors other than the programme itself).
Also a note is kept of any events that might influence
subjects.

WEAKNESSES:

This kind of control tells us what kind of extraneous variables to look for, but not how much they have influenced the subjects.

Both Belson and Emmett suggest the application of further control to reduce ambiguity. They declare that one of the best ways is to conduct a series of tests, (on a series of equivalent samples) at chosen points in time. Just before the campaign starts, several times during it, and several times after it. If, at each of the above points, control material of the kind indicated above is gathered, then ambiguity as to whether or not the programme is producing changes would be reduced to a certain degree.

This research feature detects changes for the sample as a whole and not simply for those sections of it who underwent exposure to the programme.

3)   Modified Before/After Design using Control Groups

To reduce the ambiguity of "how much influence" is inherent in the design of control material, one should use control groups; this could be over and above such control of material as available. The subtraction of the changes in the control from the changes in the experimental would leave the researcher with a quantitative assessment of the impact of the programme.

There are several kinds of control groups. They could be drawn from:

(a)   Area other than that in which the programme is broadcast;

(b)   People who, for one reason or another, did not happen to see the programme. (It could be that they were prevented by the investigator as such).

(a)   CONTROL GROUPS DRAWN FROM ANOTHER AREA

Area 1	Area 2
E1 tested before X	C1 tested before X
Broadcast of Programme X in Area 1	–
Other Events and influences	Other Events and influences
E2 tested after X	C2 tested after X

Two control groups may be drawn from an area; let it be called Area 2, in which the programme under study, called programme X, is not broadcast. In Area 1, where the test programme X is to be broadcast, two equivalent samples of the population are drawn on random samples. Either one of them is regarded as the before sample (E1), and the other is regarded as the after sample (E2). In the control Area 2, two equivalent samples are selected in the same way, each representative of the population in Area 2. Either one of them is regarded as the before control (C1), and the other as the after control, (C2). All four groups are given exactly the same tests under equivalent conditions. E1 and C1 are tested at the same time shortly before the broadcast of programme X. E2 and C2 are tested at the same time after the broadcast.

Effect of Programme X = (E2 test score - E1 test score) - (C2 test score - C1 test score).

WEAKNESSES:

i) The extraneous events in Area 2 will not necess-
arily be the same as the extraneous events in
Area 1.

ii) The effect of an event in Area 1 will not nec-
essarily be equal to the effect of that same
event in Area 2.

Drawing conclusions, therefore, from such design should
be regarded as potentially dangerous. (This design
has been set as produced by Belson).

(b) Control groups drawn from those who did not
happen to see the programme creates self-
selection bias. This will be discussed later.

4) The Stable Correlate Technique

This is the design that is most recommended by Belson
and that was elaborated and improved by him.

Suppose Programme X is intended to produce change to a
particular attitude, A. After programme X, tests
were made to see attitude A of a sample who saw X, and
a sample who did not see X. Any difference between the
two test scores would be interpreted as a mixture of the
programme and any original differences between samples.
The stable correlate is a way of sieving out all the
original differences between the two samples.

Programme X	
Extraneous Events	
Exposees E	Exposees $\bar{E}$
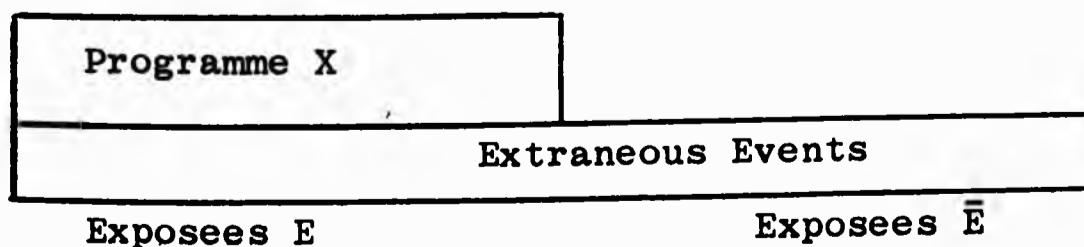
Difference in test score E @ Ê = Effects of exposure to programme X + effects of the original differences between exposees and non-exposees.

The purpose of this method is to render the non-exposee sample equivalent to the exposee sample in terms of all characteristics which are correlated to the test score. If this can be done fully, and provided the characteristics are not themselves open to influence from programme X, then the remaining difference in test score ought to represent an effect of exposure to programme X.

Some requirements of matching variables:

i)   The matching variables must be associated with both test score and sample differences.

ii)   The matching variables must be stable, i.e., they cannot be attitudes or interests that can change.

iii)   Matching variables are selected as a small composite of variables all of which must be relatively independent of one another.

To meet these and other requirements, the proposed matching variables have to be drawn from a large pool of proposed matching variables.

The main weakness of this design is that the selection of the matching variables is a very long, tiresome and complex procedure. Often the effects criterion involves not one, but many scores, and one would need to find the stable correlates of every one of these. There are other statistical weaknesses, such as regression towards the mean, which will be explained later in the text. A discussion of the difficulties of this design is also presented in Emmett, (1965).

5) The Modified "Before/After" design using Control Groups
                                            (Belson, 1967).

This design is also called the "Separate Sample Pre-test/
Post-test Control Group Design" by Campbell and Stanley,
(1963).

The design in steps goes as follows:

1. Two random samples of the target population are assigned
    in the programme area (not a different area). They have
    to be largely equivalent and either one is designated
    as the "before" group, and the other the "after" group.

2. Before the broadcast, the "before" group are tested with
    the desired questionnaires or interviews etc., regarding
    the topic of the broadcast. No other contact is made with
    this group until after the programme only to find out
    whether they have, or have not, seen the programme. On
    the basis of this, they are categorized as the Experi-
    mental and Control pre-broadcast group (E1 and C1).

3. After the programme, members of the "after" group are
    tested for the first time. Exactly the same tests are
    used on them as the "before" group, so as to overcome
    the problem of instrumentation. They are then classi-
    fied as the Experiment and Control post-broadcast
    group (E2 and C2). Belson tabled this design as follows:

Exposees	Controls (Non-Exposees)
E1 Pre-broadcast Exposees (ie. they eventually see X)	C1 Pre-broadcast controls (ie. they eventually do not see X)
Programme (X)	
Extraneous Influences	
E2 Post-broadcast Exposees (ie. they did happen to see X)	C2 Post-broadcast controls (ie. they did not happen to see X.

The score $E2 - E1$ = measurement of combined effects of the programme and all the extraneous influences.

The score $C2 - C1$ = all the extraneous influences other than the programme.

Therefore, effect of the programme X = $(E2 - E1) - (C2 - C1)$

In other words, the people exposed to the programme.are also exposed to extraneous events. The controls are exposed only to extraneous events. Hence, the effect of the broadcast campaign can be assessed by subtracting the change (in scores) of the controls from the change (in scores) of the exposees.

This is argued to be an excellent design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963)

WEAKNESSES:

1.   It is very expensive. For example, if we expect 20% of
     the people to watch the programme, and each of the four
     groups to yield 300 people, then for a programme of
     20% audience to yield 300 exposees, the total "before"
     sample has to be at least 6000 subjects, and the same
     would apply to the "after" sample.

2.   Because the groups are self-selected in relation to the
     programme under study, to increase efficiency matching
     E1, E2, C1 and C2 in terms of correlates to the test
     score might be necessary.

3.   Having to match, in itself, creates a lot of problems,
     especially "regression" towards the mean.

There is an ammendment which, together with this design
makes it a "perfect combination". In fact, this ammendment
is suggested for the betterment of all designs (Emmett, 1966).
It is based on Campbell & Stanley's (1963) time series design
and it argues that repeated measurements on the same samples
over a period of time before and after the programme can
increase the confidence that the perceived changes are
genuinely the effect of the programme and nothing else.
Again, although this is desirable, it might not be feasible
to get hold of the same group over a period of time. Secondly,
several repeated measurements, in themselves, might interact
with the actual change measured.

Summing Up

Those examples (they are not exhaustive) show us that there
is no perfect design yet available. They all have their

advantages and weaknesses. Some are better than others,
yet not feasible, and vice versa. Therefore, when deciding
which design to choose for evaluating a campaign, one has
to specify what one is looking for, and set priorities.

1. Should priority be given to internal validity of the
   design or its external validity?

2. Is there a need for a cheap, quick and simple design
   which does not control for the influence of chance
   or one which is complicated, expensive, but efficiently
   controlled?

3. Should stress be put on thorough statistical control
   of every step at the expense of missing a lot of
   relevant information?

4. Should the effectiveness be measured on an individual
   basis or the overall population?

The final point to stress is that, when considering broad-
casting effects, one should frequently remind oneself of
Joseph Klapper's warning about fallacious "one-to-one cause
and effects models" in mass media research, and the tempta-
tion of seeing "simple and direct effects" of which broad-
casting is treated as the "sole and sufficient cause". It
is true that we usually wish in our work to isolate, pin-
point and define the magnitude of a broadcast effect upon
information levels and attitudes in various spheres. But,
as is confirmed by Blumer (1959), in order to understand
the significance of television viewing in a realistic context,
we must also examine its interaction with other variables
in production of certain effects. In other words, other
influential variables are not distracting factors or
"obstacles" to be controlled, they also deserve attention
in their own right, partly because they can shape the kind
of effect that broadcasting exerts.

III. THE CHOSEN DESIGN

The design chosen is a simple and practical one, accounting
for the priorities and circumstances of the study. It is
the non-equivalent pre-test/post-test control group design,
supported by . control material and a small controlled
post-test group only.

Background for Choice

1. Bahrain is a relatively small island with only one
    local television broadcasting station. Therefore,
    randomly dividing the target population into experi-
    mental areas and control areas which cannot view
    the programmes is not possible.

2. Bahraini television viewers can watch as many as six
    other television station channels on their screens
    from the neighbouring countries, Saudi Arabia, Dhahran,
    Kuwait, Qatar, U.A.E., and Oman; therefore, physical
    availability of so many alternatives makes selectivity
    high. This means that having an elaborate design like
    the "counterbalanced designs" might render extremely
    small numbers of subjects in each cell, thus making
    statistical analysis difficult.

3. The campaign's aim is to encourage female pupils to
    think about and eventually join Nursing; therefore,
    a randomly assigned control group preventing them
    from watching the programmes is unfair. Furthermore,
    there will be more than one television programme and
    assuring "fidelity" in this case is even more diffi-
    cult. In addition to all this, it would be interesting
    to direct some attention to the characteristics of
    those self-selected viewers for this might tell us
    the programme's impact on real world viewers and give
    us a realistic assessment of the programme's effect.

4. Stanley & Campbell (1963) suggested that this design
    is best used when:

    i)   The more similar are the experimental and
            control groups in recruitment.

    ii)   The more similar are their pre-test scores.

    Both those assumptions are considered to be true of
    this study. Firstly, female pupils of this age, and
    in this culture, tend to have very similar ideas,
    aspirations, characteristics etc. The pilot studies
    showed the girls to produce similar answers to many
    questions.

5. The application of pre-test/post-test type of design
    was found to be best for this study on the basis of
    the following reasons:

    i)   We are not interested only in the overall
            effect of the study only, but individual
            analysis as well.

    ii)   It is in practice possible to get hold of
            the same subjects over a period of three
            months, which is ideal.

    iii)   The precision of any comparison is greatly
            improved if the same samples are used.

    iv)   Before/After measures on the same sample
            gives us the opportunity to study effect-
            iveness on an individual by individual basis.
            This is particularly cogent when attitude
            change is the object of enquiry. As put by
            Emmett, (1965),

> "the mechanism of attitude formulation
> and change is extremely complex, many
> different theories have been pronounced
> to account for the diverse results obtained
> in psychological experiments. The essence
> of these theories is that the self-same
> experimental treatment will, in various
> circumstances, produce dramatically opposite
> changes in attitude. A calculation of the
> total attitude shift may thus grossly
> underestimate the effects of a broadcast,
> owing to the cancelling out of shifts in
> the opposite directions."

As pre-testing has been chosen to be part of the intended
design, a number of precautions have been taken to overcome
the problem of testing reactivity, that is the interaction
of the treatment effects of the programmes within the test.

1. Great care and expense has been spent to disguise the
   topic and intention of the campaign within the testing
   instruments. In the case of this study, some questionn-
   aires revolved around the assessment of several jobs,
   besides the Nursing job. Even the post-tests involved
   one other job besides the target job.

2. The inclusion of the assessment of other jobs, besides
   the target job, in the questionnaires was also intended
   to act as another type of control to the design, control
   of "materials". For example, the change of the subject's
   attitude towards the "teaching" profession from before
   to after the treatment would be attributed to variables
   other than the treatment itself (some extraneous
   variables). The amount of change in this control
   material will help determine true effectiveness of our
   treatment (intended effects).

3. The study would include multiple indicators of change
    and not only a measure of attitude change. Moreover,
    the intention of the study is to go on beyond written
    behavioural change to actual behavioural change in
    joining Nursing.

As the final criterion is overt action, the problem of depend-
ing on a possibly biased estimated error of the effectiveness
of the treatment, as measured by the post-test questionnaires
should not be a major drawback.

A small control group representing all ages will be left not
pre-tested to check further for the testing reactivity problem.

In actual fact, the real problem facing this design is the
possible unequivalence of the groups because of selective
viewing in a natural setting. If comparability between the
groups is shown, then attributing the effects to the treat-
ment itself would be greatly enhanced. This is a key problem
facing all media research in natural environments. What can
be done to achieve this comparability between the groups?

a) Find out whether the mean pre-tests of all the groups
    are not significantly different.

b) Find out whether the total.population have, to a large
    extent, similar characteristics relevant to the dependent
    variables.

c) Match the groups involved.

The first two points were found true of this study, as will
be discussed in the following chapters.

In connection with the third point: matching the groups.
This process can be argued to create several problems in
itself. Some evaluators consider matching to be a draw-
back instead of a help, especially for this before/after
design, (Campbell, Stanley, 1963).

As testing is done both before and after the programmes,
and as the groups are self-selected and not random,
regression towards the mean can be considered a question-
able validity problem of this design. Uniform regression
between the experimental and control groups is more
probable where the groups are selected on a random basis.

Moreover, the possibility of uneven regression of change scores
towards the mean (see page 490) is increased when :-

    (a)   either the experimental or control groups
           are selected for extreme scores on the
           dependent variable or a correlated measure;

    (b)   Pre-matching is done to create pre-
           equivalent groups.

All the factors that work to make regression to the mean
less of a problem for this design are relevant in this study.
A very large sample, relative homogeneity in the target
population. So it was decided to avoid matching but to
achieve comparability between groups by controlling and
discussing the significant differences between the groups
in the final analysis.

A Suggestion for Improving this Design:

Ideally, if this pre-test non equivalent group design is
accompanied by a time-series design, some of the problems
facing this design can be ruled out. The time-series
design involves pre-testing the experimental group and the

control several times before and after the treatment.
The effect of the treatment would be shown by finding a
significant difference in the experimental group between
the two tests just before and after the treatment above
and over the several pre-tests before and the post-tests
after the programme and all the tests of the control
group.

This design helps to gain certainty from the multiple ob-
servations in relating the effect measured to the actual
treatment and overcoming the regression to the mean
problem. However, it has a major drawback, testing
reactivity is high when multiple observations are carried
out on the same population. Priorities have to be drawn
as to whether it is more important to have the intent of
testing and treatment disguised and thus contact with the
target population minimal, or to stress a tightly controlled
design , yet overlooking the risk of generalizability of results.

As the intent of this study was to emphasize effectiveness
in as natural a surrounding as possible, it was decided to
stick to having a disguised purpose, and minimize contact
with the audience. However, one further addition to the
total design was considered relevant and that is to carry
out a "panel study" whereby a small secluded group of the
audience will be contacted informally at several points,
before, during and after the programmes, and analyse the
"feedback" to the programmes.

In measuring the effectiveness of television programmes,
there are two other methodological problems besides "design"
that have to be considered carefully; one is sampling,
and the other is measurement.

Sampling:

It is important first of all to define the target population. This subpopulation should be as much as possible representative of the target audience. For this to occur, the subjects or sampling units should include a variety of geographic areas, sites etc., and this can only be accomplished with huge funding possibilities.

Ball (1976) emphasized that assessors of the impact of television programmes almost inevitably either develop a sample from an "incomplete frame consisting of one or two geographic units, or subjectively sample elements of the target population with which it is convenient to work". It cannot be said that these sampling procedures do not produce useful data - they usually do, but it is vital that the limitations of such procedures be made explicit in the evaluation reports, and generalization of the results is not done widely.

In connection with this study, there are no major difficulties regarding sampling for, as it will be discussed in the pilot studies chapter, decision has been made to test the whole potential target population. (As Bahrain is a very small country, this procedure was possible). The problem of measurement will also be discussed in the next chapter.

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IV SKETCH OF RESEARCH PLANNING STAGES

STAGE 1

THE LITERATURE
1. General theoretical
2. Specific to problem

THE SUBJECTS
1. General Attributes
2. Predispositions to problem.

THE PROBLEM
1. General Investigation
2. The "True Problem"

STAGE 2

THE STRATEGY AND DESIGN

Creating the Effect | Measuring the Effect

1. Relevant theoretical background
2. Development of themes

1. Investigating Possibilities
2. Applicable Design

STAGE 3

ADMINISTRATION

Pre-testing
Post-testing
Long-range follow-up
The Campaign
Panel testing

STAGE 4

EVALUATION

THE OBJECTIVES
(As measured by Multiple Indicators)

1. Information
2. Image (beliefs)
3. Attitude General
4. Attitude Profile
5. Intention to Enroll
6. Immediate Reaction
7. Long-range enrollment

CHAPTER VIII

THE PRELIMINARY STUDIES

To put the preliminary studies into perspective, let us
briefly restate the problem.

The "problem", as presented by the instigators of the
study, was a relatively low number of Bahraini applicants
to the Nursing profession. The general purpose of the
study was to investigate the reasons and try to increase
this number. The potential applicants or subjects of the
study were school pupils of ages ranging between 13 and
17 years.

Therefore, to start with, there were two main areas of
investigation to be dealt with: A. - the Education system,
schools and job facilities; B. - the Nursing school
itself, its system and difficulites.

A. THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

A brief chronology:

1919	The first primary school for boys was started
1928	The first primary school for girls was started
1928	The first group of students left Bahrain for higher education on Government scholarships (to the American University of Beirut)
1929	Schools were put under direct Government supervision.
1936	The first industrial school for boys was opened
1936	Adult education was started
1939	The first secondary school for boys was started
1943	The first religious school for boys was started
1951	The first secondary school for girls was started

1961	Separate intermediate schools were started, between primary and secondary levels.
1966	The first teacher-training College for men was started
1967	The first teacher-training College for women was started.

System:-

Education is free in all its four levels; primary, inter-mediate, secondary and higher education. Adequate places are being prepared for all new students who have reached the school age, normally six plus.

The Education Levels:- (As described by Educational Statistics Booklet 1974-1975)

(a) PRIMARY EDUCATION:

The legal age of admittance is six plus and the level extends to a study period of six years. The first three are spent in learning elementary subjects, and promotion from one class to the next one is determined by a minimum attendance percentage of 75. In the remaining three years, wider subjects are introduced, including the second language (English) together with Geometry, History, Geography, Science and Hygiene. According to the results of the final examinations, promotion or repeating is determined.

(b) INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION:

This level prepares the students for the higher one; namely, the Secondary. The duration of study is two years. A mixture of arts and science subjects is taught with an emphasis on the theoretical side, plus a little experimental work as far as science is concerned. After completing this division, a student

has the choice of enrolling in either the general
or the commercial sections at the secondary level.

(c) SECONDARY EDUCATION

Here, students spend three years majoring in three
desired fields. It is divided into:

(i)   General:
         Arts, science and mathematics are taught
         in the first year while in the remaining
         two, students are grouped by choice in
         two branches: Scientific, and Literary.
         Both lead to secondary General Certificate.
         Top students are granted Government
         scholarships for further education abroad.

There are two other fields of specialization:

(ii)   Commercial;
         originally founded to meet the needs of
         the Government departments and the
         commercial sector of the economy. Besides general
         education,there is stress on Bookkeeping,
         Commercial Arithmetic, Business, Type-
         writing, etc.

(iii)   Industrial: (open only for males)
         where theoretical and practical subjects
         are taught, like Blacksmithing and Welding,
         Auto-mechanics, Electronics, Carpentry,
         etc.

Basic Statistics

Total number of pupils in each of those levels
Years 1974/1975:

	No. of years of schooling	Females	Males
Primary	6	17,660	22,765
Intermediate	2	3,717	4,494
Secondary:			
General (Arts & Science)	3	3,818	3,217
Commercial	3	399	516
Industrial	3	-	684

There is also Religious Education (for males only) at each educational level. The total number is 133 pupils.

There are a number of private schools, but the majority of pupils in them are non-Bahrainis.

Post-School Education and Training

1. TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES
   Two used to exist, one for men and the other for women. The curriculum aimed at preparing teachers for primary and intermediate level education. Holders of Secondary General Certificate (Scientific or Literary section) can enroll upon a selective basis. The need for teachers in the different parts of the country is taken into consideration when choosing new candidates. The duration of the studies is 2 years, divided into 4 separately valued semesters. The curriculum embodies General Education, the study and practice of Education. In the year 1974/75, the total number of male students enrolled was 77, and female students was 260.

2. GULF TECHNICAL COLLEGE

School graduates can specialize at this College
either into Commercial courses which include:
secretarial courses and business administration
(O.C.B.S.) Otherwise, they can specialize into
technical courses, including: Building & Construc-
tion; Electrical Installation C & G courses;
Automobile Engineering; Mechanical C & G courses
and Dipolma of Electrical Installation, Mechanical
and C & G courses. All those courses, except the
secretarial one, involve three years of education
and training. The secretarial course, which is
mainly for girls, involves 2 years of training.

For the years 1974/1975, the total number of Bahraini
pupils in each of those sections was as follows:

	Years of training	Females	Males
Secretarial Courses for Girls	2	38	-
Business Administration	3	7	37
Building & Construction	3	14	36
Electrical Installment	3	-	29
Automobile Engineering	3	-	7
Mechanical Engineering	3	-	24
Dipoma of Electrical Installation & Mechanical Courses: General Course for (Mech & Elect)	(Preparatory Year)	3	53

(Educational Statistics, 1974, 1975).

3. KANOO NURSING SCHOOL (now part of the College of
Health Sciences)

1959   1st Nursing School opened
1962   Kanoo Nursing School completed.
        (This is the building used today)
1968   Assistant pharmacist programme started
        (2 years)
1974   Other medical programmes started to train:
        (a)   Assistant lab. technician (2 years)
        (b)   Assistant radiography technician (2 years)
        (c)   Assistant public health inspector (2 years).
1976   College of Health Sciences initiated.

The Ministry of Health has highly emphasized the
necessity for training in health professions, especially
in Nursing.

The education level and basic requirement for entry has been
changing considerably over the years (and still is).

Total number of pupils accepted for the year 1974/1975:

		Years of training	Females	Males
Nursing:	General	3	39	5
	Practical	2	24	26

Other medical programmes recruit around 100 pupils a year
but the specific statistics are not available here.

Other Facilities

There are a number of other post-school possibilities open
for pupils. Those who get very high grades in their
secondary general exams are sent by the Government over-
seas for further education. This includes around 10% of

the pupils who graduate. Before the 1975 civil war in
Beirut, the majority of those pupils were sent to the
American University of Beirut. In the year 1973/1974,
around 1,815 pupils were sent to A.U.B. Now the majority
of the graduates are sent to Canada and the U.S.A.

There is also an Institute for higher religious education
for men.

In addition, a very large number of companies and industries
have their own further training programmes. Bahrain Petrol-
eum Company, Gulf Air, the Hotel Association and others,
recruit and train the pupils for their job requirements.

The "Nursing School" is only one post-school facility avail-
able for the pupils.

Although the Ministry of Health has, since the early 60's,
put a great emphasis on the necessity of recruiting more
Bahraini citizens into the Medical professions, especially
Nursing; in the year 1974 the hospitals of Bahrain were
run by 530 Nurses, of whom only 150 were Bahrainis. With
the increase in the number of patients to be attended to,
many more nurses are needed. It is possible to recruit
more foreign Nurses, but there are mainly two problems
involved with foreign workers. The first is obviously the
"language" which makes communication with the patients
very difficult. The second is that foreign Nurses usually
accept to work in Bahrain on a short-contract basis, while
they look for work in the other Gulf states where the
salaries are much higher. Besides, although female Nurses
do work in Male wards, the country is in more need for
Male nurses as well, because of cultural traditions and the
majority of foreign nurse applicants are female.

B.   PILOT I: THE NURSES

What is keeping more Bahraini pupils from joining Nursing?
Two attempts were made to find out the cause of the problems
the Nursing School was facing:

1.   A look at the structure and running of the School;
2.   Interviews with officials of the School, staff and
     students about the problems involved.

Step 1:   The Nursing School Background

                                         out
On the basis of interviews carried with a number of the
schools' officials and a document compiled by the Director
of the College of Health Sciences (of which the Nursing
School has become a department) the following basic infor-
mation was gathered:

1.   There are two "levels of registration"

(a) PRACTICAL NURSING PROGRAMME:

     This level is open to both female and male pupils who
     have obtained, at the minimum, the Intermediate School
     Certificate (8 years of schooling). The purpose of
     this programme is to prepare candidates to be the
     backbone of the Nursing service in Out-patients'
     Departments and health centers as practical nurses.
     The students undergo two years of training and eventually
     become licensed nurses.

(b) GENERAL NURSING PROGRAMME:

     This level is again open to both female and male pupils
     who have completed, at the minimum, their Secondary
     schooling (11 years), and obtained their Certificate
     either in general arts or science section. The
     purpose of this programme is to prepare the candidates
     to assume the middle level of management responsibilities

in the health care delivery system. The students
undergo three years of training and become fully
qualified nurses.

2. Student Life Characteristics

When this research was being carried out, the School was
in a transition period, being transformed from an indepen-
dant school to a department of a large College of Health
Sciences. The prospectus of the College offered a wider
range of facilities for the students: better library,
audio-visual and other educational facilities, student
counseling facilities, athletics and recreational facilities,
college life atmosphere, etc. However, all those facilities
have not been fully applied, as they were still in their
initial stages. So, it can be said that the School, at this
stage, did not differ much "in atmosphere" from the intermediate
and secondary schools which the pupils would be leaving.

(a) HOURS OF ATTENDANCE

The official hours of attendance at the College are
8.00 a.m. - 1.30 p.m. daily, six days a week (Saturday
through Thursday) for all students except those on
clinical or on-the-job training.
(This timing does not differ much from the high
school's attendance hours).

(b) UNIFORMS

Students are required to wear official uniforms of
the College, at all times, while on the premises.
Those uniforms are provided on loan by the College.
The students are requested to keep their uniform and
general appearance tidy, clean and well ironed (just
like in school).

(c) VACATIONS AND HOLIDAYS

All students, except those on clinical rotations or on-the-job training cycles, have one month's paid annual leave in August of each year. Students on clinical clerkships, have a one month's leave in rotation, as determined by a schedule put out by the College Administration. Official holidays, as set by the Ministry of Health, are additional days-off for all students - except those required to work during their clinical rotations. (This means less free time than when they were at school).

(d) TRANSPORTATION

Specially chartered buses are run on all common routes in the country so all students have secure and easy transport facilities to and from the College and their residence.

(e) STIPEND

Students are paid stipends to defray the opportunity costs and to encourage their continued education rather than their early employment. Stipends may vary from year to year and always depend on the entry level and the student's year of study. For the academic year 1976-77, the stipend was the following:

	Practical Nursing Programme	General Nursing Programme
1st Year	50 BD/month - £40	60 BD/month - £48
2nd Year	60 BD/month - £48	80 BD/month - £67
3rd Year	80 BD/month - £67	100 BD/month - £84

The stipend is given for school attendance. However, there are conditions for with-holding payment. Regular full class attendances is a prerequisite and absentee-ism not due to justified reasons can mean with-holding

payment. Parental agreement is necessary for
giving permission to undergo this training, but no
financial support is required.

(f) DISCIPLINE

Conformity to strict disciplinary rules was expected
of the students whether regarding class attendance
or class behaviour and other ethical issues.

Comments

Besides the fact that the students are being paid for their
education, it can be argued that a pupil leaving school
will find herself, on the whole, going through the same
experience again at the College. Probably in future, when
the College gets over its infancy stages in the development
of its promised facilities, the pupils might look at the
students' training years with a more interesting outlook
than that possibly viewed now. (This point is further
discussed in the design of the television programmes.)

3.   Work Characteristics (After graduation)

(a) GRADING

As the College belongs, at large, to the Ministry of
Health, the nurses are graded according to the civil
servants' grading system. The grading is equivalent
to other government positions such as clerks.

(b) WORKING HOURS

In total, the working hours required of a nurse are
equal to other government jobs. However, the timing
of the working hours is unsocial, for they include
both afternoon and night shifts.

(c) PAY

The pay for a nursing job is quite low, but again, it is the same as other government jobs of the same grade. However, the nurses argue that Nursing involves more effort, a higher responsibility and unsocial working hours. Therefore, to attract and keep the nurses, a better pay deal should be made, otherwise they would rather join an easier secretarial job in the government acquiring the same grade and pay, yet less working effort.*

(d) CAREER MOBILITY

Practical Nursing Programme.
Upon graduation, licenced practical nurses will work in the Ministry of Health Facilities. Several options are available later on:

i.   Remain a generalist licenced practical nurse and move up the organization (vertical mobility) through experience and achievement.

ii.   To be a specialist Licenced Practical Nurse. This involves a three-month training programme in a particular field, such as pediatrics, obstetrics, community work, etc...

iii.   To be upgraded to a General Nurse. Several strict regulations control this career ladder. The practical nurse must have served a certain number of years, must have shown ability, character and proficiency, must have obtained her Secondary School Certificate, or equivalent, must take the required courses as indicated by exemption tests.

The school administration claimed that options, in-service training and continuing education programmes keep the practical nurse up-to-date on all skills, knowledge and attitudes.

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* In Bahrain, Government official working hours are 7 a.m. - 1.30 p.m. No work is done in the afternoon.

General Nursing Programme

Again, upon graduation, students in this programme could work in the Ministry of Health Facilities. The other options available are several:

i)   Progress in one's specialty and move up the organization (vertical mobility) through experience, dedication and achievement;

ii) Focus on a particular field in one's specialty: programmes include training, only for some excelling health professionals, in a sub-specialty such as pediatric nursing, intensive care nursing etc...

iii) To go for further training, most likely overseas: this ladder scheme is reserved only for promising and excelling health professionals, who have shown ability and dedication throughout their years of service, and who could pursue further training and education abroad, such as obtaining a B.Sc., or go for further post-graduate courses.

Again, for all the graduate health professionals, a well-planned programme of in-service training, continuing education, seminars, courses, is available (it is claimed) to keep their skills up-to-date.

Comments

Although the pay is low and the working hours unsocial, there are two visible advantages to the Nursing career: one is that, for every week of night shift, the nurse is allowed three full days of no work, which can be used as a sort of holiday; secondly, the career mobility ladder is quite good for a "dedicated" and "hard-working" nurse. The chance of being chosen to go overseas for further education is something sought after by many female pupils and this can be one way of attaining it.

Step 2:   Preliminary Interviews

AIM: To find out from the officials of the School,
                the staff, and the students, why female
                candidates are hesitating to join the Nursing
                School.

METHOD: The investigation covered three aspects:

    (i)   The researcher attended part of the recruit-
                ment process of a number of female applicants.
                Notes were taken about the situation of seven
                female pupils who were being interviewed by
                a female graduate (official in the school)
                and the remarks of the interviewer regarding
                other cases.

    (ii)   Interviews were carried with the Principal
                of the School and her assistant, as well as
                the Director of the College of Health Sciences
                (all of whom were expatriates), and four
                Bahraini Nursing staff.

    (iii)   Interviews were carried with some student
                nurses;   nine training for practical nursing
                and six for general nursing.

The Interviews

They were basically unstructured. The point was to allow
the interviewees to talk freely and openly about their
problems or what they thought the actual problem was. The
staff and students were assured that all that was said would
remain confidential. The interviews with the pupils were
taped. Each interview lasted about half an hour.

<u>Findings</u>:

(i) The point that stood out distinctly while attending the
recruitment process of some of the female applicants
was that they had but a very vague idea about the
requirements of the nursing vocation   When they
were given the chance to ask questions, their enquiries
mostly revolved around the school regulations and train-
ing requirements. Some asked about the stipend, but
the majority shied away from this question. Only two
enquired about career mobility possibilities. All of
them enquired about the irregular working hours required
of them.

When asked why did they apply to join the Nursing School,
most of them gave a sort of general statement - like it
is a humane job - but some were more frank and explained
that they werejoining because their friend was joining
too, or they just needed a job! The general feeling at
the end of those interviews was that the pupils did not
really know what they wanted to do, or were expected to
do, they were just trying it out. Only two out of the
seven that were interviewed by the selectors seemed to
be well informed and keen about the vocation   itself.
Most of the applicants did not have a very good academic
background. However, one pupil with a good academic
background seemed to be better informed about the nursing
job than the others. When she was told that she would
be expected to wear short sleeves as part of the regu-
lations regarding hygiene, she unexpectedly backed out
completely, declared it was unacceptable for religious
reasons, and withdrew her application.

(ii) a.   The interviews with the <u>school officials</u> threw
another light on the situation. The Principal
and her assistant (both expatriates) were
surprised at the 'calibre' of pupils that
came to the School. They argued that most
of the pupils had a 'low calibre' background,

and that when they got into the School, they
proved to be irresponsible and a large number
of them eventually dropped out. They explained
that a number of students, after their initial
training (which involved intensive English
courses), left for another job which required
a good background in English. The training
and stipend paid, they continued, was costly
and the School cannot afford too many dropouts.
"The need is definitely for a better-calibre
of pupil". They claimed that they were getting
pupils who after searching a long time for a
job and getting nowhere, decided to come into
the Nursing School.

b. The interviews with the four Bahraini Nursing
staff revealed yet another point of view.
When asked how come they did decide to join
nursing, each of them, individually, claimed that
they had to fight a strong resistance from their
parents before being able to get into the School.
They claimed that this society still looked at a
nursing job as a "serving" job, no matter how
qualified the nurse was. One nurse related an
incident when a visitor of one of her patients
asked for a glass of water for the patient.
Because she was delayed in fetching the water,
having been occupied by another patient in a
critical condition, he slapped her on the face!
The nurses argued that this society still looked
upon Nursing as a job of low prestige as com-
pared to teaching or being a civil servant, or
even a secretary! In addition, the nurses
explained that the parents were worried that
becoming a nurse meant having to work in Male
wards. This mixing with the other sex is not
looked upon favourably by everyone in this

culture. Some parents feared that, once a girl
became a nurse, nobody would want to marry her,
and getting married was regarded as the only
respectable way of life for a girl. (Ironically,
though, three out of the four nursing staff I
interviewed were married, and all got married
after joining nursing).

Besides the problems facing nursing from the
Society's side, there were problems in the job
itself. The training, being in the English
language, frightened many potential candidates
away. Moreover, until 1976, this career was
almost a dead end. There was no way of getting
degrees and qualifications, and an acceptable
diploma except if you distinguished yourself
extraordinarily and were sent abroad for further
training in a College.

Now, with this experimental College of Health
Sciences, the prospects of career mobility
looked better. The College was striving to get
the qualified Nurses' Diploma accepted beyond the
Gulf states.

Of course, there was the problem of low pay for
the amount of work and responsibilities associated
with the nursing job. Adding to that is having
to work on night shifts, which is regarded as
extremely unsocial and undesirable, especially
for a woman in this society.

Finally, the staff felt that the nurses needed
an identifying force, like a Nursing Society or
an Association. This would provide a sense
of unity and identification not only on a
national basis, but international as well.

(iii)The interviews with the <u>student nurses</u> themselves
confirmed some of the points discussed above. All
faced resistance from the family and, in some cases,
even friends. Still, some were influenced into
getting into nursing by a parent, relative or friend
who was in the nursing or medical profession. Some
girls were influenced because of living next to a
hospital and being impressed by the image of a
uniformed nurse. Some made up their minds when
someone in the family became ill and had to be
treated in the hospital The great majority, however,
applied for other jobs, were refused, and so nursing
was another choice as they needed financial support.

As this point of nursing being a secondary choice
came up again and again in the interviews, a search
into the other possible choices and <u>alternative jobs</u>
a female pupil could choose revealed the following:

Practical Nursing

The pupils who joined at this level of Nursing only
required an Intermediate Certificate to qualify.
This fact meant that the pupil either left school after
the Intermediate class or one of the two Secondary
classes that followed. She might have failed her
final Secondary class or any one of the two lower
Secondary classes.

Therefore, it can be assumed that the pupil was not
academically oriented. Another assumption could be
that she did not enjoy school. There is also the
possibility that she needed financial support, either
for herself or her family.

With an Intermediate Certificate, the only alternatives
open for a girl is either to train as a typist, a dress-
maker, a waitress or salesgirl. On the other hand, she
can help in family business.

General Nursing

The pupils who joined at this level should have completed their Secondary education.

The assumption as to why pupils with this Certificate chose nursing could be that:

a)   they did not qualify to be sent abroad
        for further education;

b)   they were not accepted at the Teachers'
        Training College (which most of the female
        pupils want to join);

c)   they were not interested in the business,
        secretarial or engineering courses and
        degrees available at the Gulf Technical
        College. They also might not have quali-
        fied;

d)   they were not interested in joining the
        training jobs for air hostesses, or hotel
        catering, or any other private Company or
        bank job, or the Civil Service;

e)   they were not married;

f)   they were in need of a job;

g)   they were not interested in private business.

Of course, there always exists the possibility of financing oneself, and going overseas for further education of one's own choice.

Summary

From the interviews above, a number of points can be drawn up to help understand the possible problems facing this vocation.

1. The majority of the applicants to Nursing who were interviewed had very little information as to what the Nursing vocation   entailed.

2. Most of the pupils did not really know what they wanted.

3. Most of the applicants were worried about rumoured difficulty to be faced in training, as it was all in the English language.

4. The academic background of most of the applicants was weak, i.e. they were not of the very good performers in school.

5. Not knowing what to expect, a large number were probably disappointed by the requirements of the job course and so eventually dropped out.

6. Most of them claimed that they faced resistance from home and ridicule from friends as they argued that Nursing was not looked upon favourably in this society.

7. They further added that nursing was still regarded as a low prestige profession.

8. There was a lack of feeling of identity and belonging towards the profession and the nurses further argued that they did not feel appreciated for their work.

9. The job itself had several drawbacks: high responsibility, demanding work, low pay, irregular working hours and little career mobility.

10. For most of those who applied, nursing was a
     secondary choice.

Bearing in mind those problems, the researcher enquired
as to what the school had done over the past ten years
to try and remedy the situation. The officials explained
that several attempts had been made using diverse commu-
nication patterns to try to attract more pupils to
nursing.

a)   The Nursing School has been sending nurses on
     a regular yearly basis to recruit pupils from
     the schools.

b)   The Nursing School has made arrangements for
     several classes from the schools to visit the
     Nursing School itself.

c)   The Nursing School has also produced a number
     of documentary programmes aired on local tele-
     vision in an attempt to recruit more nurses.

d)   Besides all that, there were a few Bahraini
     journalists who have written articles in the
     local weekly magazine about the problems facing
     nursing and the need for more Bahrainis to join
     the profession..

Why didn't all those attempts work?

NO evaluation study has been carried on any of those
attempts, so it is difficult to argue whether they have
failed or succeeded. However, what can be seen is that
no considerable increase in the numbers of recruits for
the profession happened and there was no change in the
calibre of the pupils who applied.

In my opinion, there were four possible reasons why those
attempts did not work:

1). A campaign is useless if the underlying problems of
a job are not dealt with first. Nursing is a demand-
ing and tiring job, and needs a lot of effort and
self sacrifice. If it is difficult to find a person
with the personality for selflessness, then the next
best way to attract people to the job is to make the
reinforcement worthwhile! It is obvious from the
interviews with the Nursing staff and students that
with low pay, high responsibility, no recognition,
no appreciation and no prestige, who would want to
become a nurse?

2). The next reason is probably an economic one. After
the 1967 Middle East war, the Arabian Gulf states,
especially Bahrain, have bcome a centre of interest
because of oil, and therefore the country has under-
gone a tremendous economic boom. With the great
increase in the number of foreign companies and
banks that have moved from Beirut to Bahrain, the
work possibilities for the school graduates, especially
girls, has been greatly widened. Moreover, the
salaries gained in working for those foreign companies
and banks are about twice that of a Government position
of similar requirements. It can be argued that the

majority of those who join Nursing are in material
need. So when easier and more attractive alterna-
tives are available, the results are obvious.

3). The regular visits by a Nurse to the schools for
recruiting should be regarded as a positive and effective
attempt. Communication researchers have always argued
that face-to-face communication is the most efficient
way to change attitudes and behaviour. However, in my
opinion, a lot of attention has been concentrated on
the pupils themselves, assuming that they are the
final decision makers. As discussed in the Cultural
Model Section of the strategy of the study, I believe
that the subjects in this society are very much influenced
by their surroundings. Therefore, it would be necessary,
to start with, to modify image and attitudes of the
parents and older brothers and sisters and society about
Nursing. When moving directly to the pupils, we are
putting too much pressure on them alone to face the
resistance from the family, (if it exists). This same
point applies when considering the tour of the Nursing
School etc. The interviews with the applicants to
Nursing portrayed a feeling of hesitation, lack of
information and openness for suggestion. The pupils
were not sure what they wanted and what to expect.
Quite a number declared that they were joining Nursing
because a friend was also doing so, or they heard a
good word about it from a friend or relative. There-
fore, the message of the campaign should be directed
to the parents and family of the potential applicants
as well.

4). The School argued that several television documentary
programmes were put on the air and should have reached
the whole society. They explained that those were
documentaries made locally for the purpose of inform-
ing the people about Nursing.

To find out why those programmes were not very useful,
a special permission has been asked for, to have a
look at their contents. Out of the three programmes
made, the Television Library could only find one.

Anyway, it was explained that the other two were only
interviews. This half-hour documentary programme was
made of scenes showing the emergency ward of the
hospital, some nurses at work and a brief view of
the School itself. The acting looked artificial and
there was no storyline, drama or humour. It was
shown only once so probably not many people saw it.

Conclusions

Those interviews formed the starting basis upon which the
problem was now formulated and plans considered. It was
concluded that to deal with this problem, the following
steps should be attempted:

1. To increase the awareness and information of potential
   nursing pupils of what the nursing profession entailed.

   This step, it was argued, might create a 'boomerang'
   effect such that as a result of better awareness, fewer
   pupils would want to join nursing. There are still
   two aspects for this decision. One is that at least
   the pupils who finally join would not become disappointed
   at a later stage and so there will be fewer dropouts.
   The other aspect is that the advantages of the job will
   also be portrayed to counteract the disadvantages.

2. To find out whether there exists a social stigma against
   the Nursing profession, and if so, to try to modify
   it and thus reduce the social pressure upon the potential

candidates. This might eventually persuade the
better qualified pupils to join the profession
so there would be less dropouts.

3.   To create a feeling of social and group identity
      in the nursing profession, not only in the School
      itself, but as perceived and appreciated by the
      Society as a whole.

The problems of career mobility and pay were being taken
care of by the new College of Health Sciences.

Those problems as analysed above were discussed with the
officials of the Nursing School. It was agreed that further
pilot studies should be carried out in the schools them-
selves to find out whether there was any justification for
those conclusions. If so, a campaign was to be designed
to try to inform the potential candidate about the nursing
profession and, if needs require, to modify attitudes
towards nursing as a vocation.

As hardly any information about this problem was available
to be used as reference or a starting point, it was found
necessary to carry out further investigations, taking into
account all possible sides of the situation.

This in-depth look into the Nursing School's system, problems
etc., brought to light two important points that have to be
clarified before the section on further investigations is
discussed.

When we talk about a General Nurse and a Practical Nurse in
Bahrain, it is vital not to compare them directly with the
State Registered Nurse and the State Enrolled Nurse, as in
Britain, for example. While the educational qualifications
and years of training are very similar, it is important to

delineate the differences which are mainly due to the fact
that Bahrain is still a developing country.

a)   In Bahrain, education is obligatory until the
     Intermediate level (ages 13-14) and not 16 years
     (secondary level) as in Britain.

b)   Due to the shortage of Bahraini nurses, a
     practical nurse with an intermediate certi-
     ficate is considered a school graduate and
     is given quite responsible work in nursing
     (at the moment).

c)   There is another level of so called "nurses".
     Housewives who are in need materially, but
     have no schooling at all join as associate
     nurses, and they do the cleaning, cooking,
     changing and other manual work which a State
     Enrolled Nurse might do in Britain.

e)   The major differences between a general
     nurse and a practical nurse is that the
     general nurse (having a secondary certificate)
     may eventually teach nursing, while a practical
     nurse cannot.

f)   A practical nurse can continue her education
     (while working or training) and eventually
     become a general nurse. On the other hand,
     sometimes a general nurse with a weak academic
     background who wants to stay in nursing but
     cannot complete the 3 years training for
     general nurses can opt out to work as a
     practical nurse.

Therefore, as it can be seen, the differences are not so
rigid. As there is a shortage, the Bahraini nurses both

levels are encouraged to learn and do more responsible jobs
or in some cases to carry out the other routine work when
required.

It can be said that the school usually prefers pupils who come
into nursing because they want to, maybe at an earlier age when
they can train and learn the skills, and perhaps continue their
education, versus pupils with the higher degrees who are const-
antly considering easier alternative choices.

The second point that has to be clarified is that, although we
are talking about two levels of nursing, when we look at the
potential candidates for those levels, we find that the
problems to be overcome by our campaign basically boil down
to the same causes.

A look at the diagram on the following page might help clarify
this point.

While it is obvious that there are major differences between
the potential candidates who definitely want to become nurses
and those who definitely do not want to become nurses, those
two groups are minorities as compared to the majority who are
usually undecided. If we divide the undecided into those who
are potential general nurses and those who are potential
practical nurses, we can assume (based on the investigation
in this section) that they are both academically weak or
unambitious, or - if ambitious - nursing can be a way of
continuing their education; both need money; both could
not get into other jobs (whether due to high competition or
limited alternatives).

Therefore, if nursing as a job is to be encouraged, besides
altering pay facilities and career mobility (which shouldbe
done by the School) the researcher can try to remedy the
reasons why nursing is usually picked as a secondary job
choice. This can be done by finding out the social and job
related resistances and overcoming them, and by clarifying
the situation regarding further education. This applies to
both levels of nursing.

POTENTIAL CANDIDATES

Definitely want to become nurses (MINORITY) (characteristics to be traced later)

Definitely will not want to become nurses (MINORITY)

POSSIBLE REASONS:

1. High academic ability;
2. High socio-econ. status;
3. Resistances to job:

   practical
   personality
   cultural

The Undecided (MAJORITY)

GENERAL

(May have academic ambition but not ability and realise cannot qualify for further education from school)

Need money   *Couldn't find other job*   *A way to get a grant*

More job alternatives but, as academically weak, high competition to beat.

PRACTICAL

Don't have academic ambition, at least not at school

Need money   *Couldn't find other job*   *A way to continue school education informally*

Limited job alternatives need more academic qualifications

C. FURTHER INVESTIGATION

Two aspects were found necessary to start with:-

I.   A study of the attributes of the target population;
II. A study of the predispositions of the target
     population in relation to their image towards
     a nurse and the Nursing profession, i.e. a study
     of the resistances.

Identifying the Target Population:

Three questions had to be argued out here as to who would
finally be chosen to be the target population:

(i)   The first query revolved around the problem
       of whether to direct the campaign in a con-
       trolled experimental setting, with a chosen
       sample, from what would be agreed upon as
       the target population. For policy, authen-
       ticity and ethical reasons, it was decided
       more favourable to carry out the campaign
       in a completely naturalistic setting. (The
       advantages and disadvantages of such a
       decision were discussed earlier).

(ii)   The second question was the argument for
       concentrating on only female pupils. The
       School needed both female and male recruits;
       however, the larger proportion of the
       recruits were usually female pupils. The
       researcher argued that the variables,
       expectations, aspirations etc., that are
       specific to female pupils in this society
       were widely different from those of male
       pupils who plan to join Nursing. Because

of the limitations of means, time and the
single-handed effort put by the researcher,
it would be more efficient and effective to
concentrate on one sex at a time. This was
finally agreed upon.

(iii)   From the total potential sample of female
pupils that were being considered, there
was the problem of the pupils in two secondary
classes which were intermediary between the
Intermediate class and the Final Secondary
class. From the files of the Nursing School
it was found that the majority of pupils who
applied to Practical Nursing at this level
have either failed their final secondary year
or any other secondary class twice in a row,
so they were considered either academically
weak or completely uninterested in any more
schooling. The Nursing School was aiming at
a more responsible and a better academic
calibre of pupils. So it was decided that,
for the final measurement and analysis of
results, those two intermediary classes will
not be considered. The emphasis would be put
on pupils who would leave school with an
Intermediate Certificate,* not because of
academic problems, but other factors.

(iv)   The final question was to decide as to whether
to carry the measurements on a sample of the
two levels of classes finally chosen to be the
target audience, or whether to carry the testing
on the whole population in those classes. It
was agreed at this point to aim at the whole
group, if co-operation in administration could
be secured from the headmistresses of the schools
and the class teachers.

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* School leaving age

The Target Population

Second year Intermediate class female pupils (potential candidates for practical Nursing). The total number of those pupils in all the schools was 1,806. Final year secondary female pupils (potential candidates for general Nursing). The total number of those pupils in all the schools was 1,107.

The age range of those pupils ranged basically from 13 to 16 years old. The minimum age for the Secondary class pupils is around 16, but, as there is class repeating the age varied from 16 years to 20 years in some cases. The same applies to the Intermediate class, with ages between 13 years to 17 years at times.

I. ATTRIBUTES OF THE TARGET POPULATION

Information about two main aspects were initially considered relevant:

(i) Background Information:

To be used for comparability and other requirements of the design. This would include such attributes as:

Age (class) ──────────────→ Two levels

Home Structure ──────────→ {Nuclear family and other Ages of brothers & sisters

Socio-economic status ──────→ Father's & Mother's job

Residential Area ──────────→ Town vs. village

Intention of leaving school ──→ {For the Intermediate class only

Job desired ──────────────→ Aspirations

Have Television at home ┐
Use the Radio   │ ──→ {Availability and use of the Media in general
Go to the movies   │
Reading habits   ┘

(ii) Information about the Use of the Media

Almost no information about the availability and use of the mass media could be found in Bahrain. No research of this type has been done before, so all the information required to answer any relevant question had to be investigated in this preliminary aspect of the research. As Bahrain is a small country, it would have been possible to communicate to the pupils directly without a mass medium. However, as it was explained previously, such attempts have been made and were not found successful.

It has been argued that it is as important to transmit the message to the family and friends of the subjects under study

as well as the subjects themselves. Therefore, a mass
medium would be more suitable to reach all those people
than a lecture in the schools or an open day tour of the
hospitals and the Nursing School. If one assumes that
people are generally lazy and that the only ones who
would attend such lectures or tours are the ones already
very interested in the topic, it would be argued that a
message received in the comfort of one's own home would
at least require the minimum effort on their part and
therefore the message would be made more available and
the reception less complicated.

It is an accepted fact that almost every home in Bahrain
has a television set and a radio set. The television set
receives as many as six stations from the neighbouring
countries; however, Bahrain has only one local television
station, which is controlled by the Ministry of Information.
As for the press, there is one local daily newspaper in
Arabic and one in English. Moreover, there are a number
of weekly local newspapers and magazines of both general
and specialized topics. Bahrain, moreover, receives daily
a plethora of newspapers, magazines and books from the
Arab world and the Western world.

How do the subjects use the mass media? Two directions
were being contemplated:-

(a) Direct (formal) influence:
     this would reflect an enquiry into the direct use
     of the television, radio and press by the pupils
     themselves and their choice of programmes, channels,
     viewing time, preferred personalities, trust and
     attitudes in general.

(b) Indirect (informal) influence:
     this would reflect the use of the media by the
     parents and older brothers and sisters, and friends
     of the subjects, and the interaction of information
     as a result of conversation or control.

It would have been ideal if the researcher was able to get
access directly to the families of those pupils to be able
to investigate this second direction. However, the Ministry
through which this permission should have been granted
explained that it is quite complicated to do so, and they
were not in favour of such an act. They preferred to carry
any investigation required "only in the Schools themselves".
Therefore, it has to be acknowledged that most of the infor-
mation about this aspect would be of a 'Retrospective nature'.
The generalization of indirect influence would thus have
to be based on accepting what the pupils themselves report
about the specific questions directed to them. Moreover,
measuring indirect influence would have to depend on such
questions as the pupil's family viewing habits and compulsary
choice of specific programmes, their conversation and
criticisms regarding the programmes and so on.

The validity of inference from such questions is still
regarded as questionable. However, it was still decided
to attempt to find out about this indirect influence in
general and at least during this pilot phase.

II EXISTING IMAGE OF A NURSE AND THE NURSING PROFESSION

The interviews with the Nursing staff and students and
officials of the Nursing School provided a number of
problems that could be regarded as possible resistances
against the Nursing profession. A number of those resistances
were connected with the job itself, like low pay and hard
work, and the training of the job being difficult and in a
foreign language. However, almost all the nurses stated
that the job was not looked upon favourably by the society
and was of low prestige compared to other jobs.

Although the number of the pupils in the first pilot study
was small (85), it was decided to include a few questions

to find out how did those pupils view nurses and the
Nursing job,whether any of them wished to become nurses.
If it was found from their answers that there existed
social stigma against the Nursing profession, then more
information will be gathered as to what exactly were
those resistances from the pupils' points of view.

Therefore, further information would include such aspects
as:-

(a)   Characteristics and social prestige of jobs.
        Nursing would be "buried" within those jobs.

(b)   Incomplete sentences for completion of
        several items with Nursing included.

(c)   Inventory of 'fear', with all aspects that
        deal with hospitals, medicine and disease.

(d)   Aspirations or jobs wished and how they
        came to hear about them.

(e)   Inventory of 'worries', dealing with aspects
        of women's desire for self dependence and the
        conflicts faced.

Other queries would revolve around the school, schoolwork
and subjects liked and disliked. Life in the Nursing School,
as explained in comments of Pilot I, seems to be very
similar to school itself, and therefore an idea of how the sub-
jects viewed school life might act as a predictive tool.

It was hoped that this preliminary general information
would present a clearer picture of the situation and act
as building blocks for further investigations to help make a
decision as to what type of campaign is the most favour-
able in this context.

D. PILOT II: TRYING OUT QUESTIONNAIRES FOR THE PUPILS

AIM: To try out a number of questionnaires designed to measure background information (for comparability purposes), availability and the use of the media, and attitudes towards school, jobs and the nursing profession.

I. DESCRIPTION OF QUESTIONNAIRES

Ten questionnaires were designed and tried out. The original questionnaires as they were presented in Arabic are not included in this text. They were not translated at this stage, but the final version of all those questionnaires, as they were administered in the main study, were translated and are included in Appendices G - P.

A brief list of the questionnaires designed:*

1. Background questionnaire.
2. School and work questionnaire.
3. The Television questionnaire.
4. The Radio questionnaire.
5. The Cinema questionnaire.
6. Books, magazines and Newspapers.
7. Media attitudes questionnaire.
8.
9. Inventories of Fear, Worries and Wishes
10.

Permission:

Special permission had to be obtained from the Ministry of Education to pilot those questionnaires in one of the schools.

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* It has to be specified here that quite a lot of those questions were designed in line with Himmelweit, Oppenheim & Vince's research on Television and the Child (1951).

The Ministry consented on the condition that all the
questionnaires had to be presented beforehand to an
official in the Ministry to be checked before being
circulated in the school.

1.   BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE:

This questionnaire was an all-inclusive one intended
to collect factual information about each subject.
This involved questions about their age, family
structure (whether the father and mother live with the
family, the number of brothers and sisters and their
ages, whether someone else lives with the family),
whether the mother works and what job she does, whether
the father works and what kind of job he does, their
nationality, area of residence, whether they are
planning to leave school after the second intermediate
class and work, what job do they want to do, whether
they have a television set (since when they have had
it, how many channels can they view on it and how
often do they watch), whether they have a radio set
and how often do they listen, whether they go to the
movies, whether they read magazines, newspapers and
books besides their school texts and how many.

Those media questions were asked again (in detail) in
each individual media questionnaire. The reason for
including them here was because this would be the last
questionnaire presented, and if absenteism occurs at
least we would have the general information for compara-
bility purposes.

Information about the pupil's school performance and
socio-economic status was filled in by the class teachers.
The headmisstresses   had a list of pupils' names
and code numbers. However, the teacher was asked to seal
in an envelope   all the questionnaires in front of

the pupils. Therefore those two last questions* were filled in after class as this was the last questionnaire completed. The teachers had no use of those lists after this first questionnaire and were therefore asked to destroy them. This whole arrangement was made to assure the pupils that the questionnaires were totally anonymous and confidential, and that they should be frank with their answers.

The information from this questionnaire was intended to be used for comparability or matching, and other predictor tests.

2. SCHOOL AND WORK QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire was intended to find out about the subject's school life and future intentions regarding work, and the characteristics of the job desired. It included such questions as whether the pupil liked school; her relationship with her teacher; the academic subjects she liked, those she didn't mind and those she did not like; the subject she enjoyed most of all; whether she was intending to leave school after the Second Intermediate class; when did her parents wish she would leave school; if she was intending to leave school the reasons for this decision; whether she would leave school to get married and at what level; what job she wished to do; why, and from what source, did she hear about it; whether she intended to work even after marrying; and what characteristics of a job would she give priority. A question was included which was designed to find out what the pupils regarded as the most important characteristic that would help one to advance in life. A list was presented for them to choose from.

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* Those two last questions were in 'code' form and only the teachers knew that they meant to fill in the socio-economic class and academic performance.

There was also a table, which included four common
female jobs like a teacher, secretary, nurse and air
hostess and a number of characteristics. The pupils
were asked to indicate whether they thought each of
those characteristics was a fair description of each
of the four jobs or not. The intention of this table
was basically to find out how the job of a nurse was
viewed.

The final question was of an open sentence structure,
where the pupil was presented with the beginning of a
sentence like:

poor people are........................,
The English people are.................,
nurses are..........................., etc.

She was asked to complete the sentence as if she was
describing those items to a friend. It was stressed
that description did not mean what they looked like but
how   she regarded them. The intention of this question
was specifically to deduce the pupil's held stereotype
about nurses and generally to other items of interest.
(Several of the questions were also specifically added
only as a request from the Ministry of Education. This
will be explained later.)

3.   THE TELEVISION QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire was intended to find out the pupil's
viewing habits, likes and dislikes, and atmosphere of
viewing; questions were also included to find out
parents' viewing habits.

Concerning viewing habits, questions involved such
aspects as availability of television, since when and
amount of viewing; whether they watch childrens'

programmes, when and how often; whether they watch
evening programmes, when and how often and until
what time in the evenings. Questions regarding
atmosphere of viewing included whether they view
with friends, with whom do they view usually, what
do they do while watching, is the television kept on all
the time, or switched on for specific programmes,
what is done when an uninteresting programme comes
on, who decides what programmes are to be watched,
how do they know what is on and at what time.

Regarding likes and dislikes, questions involved what
three programmes they enjoyed most, what childrens'
programmes they enjoyed most, what evening programmes
they enjoyed most, what programmes they did not enjoy
at all and is there a programme that left a special
significance and would not be missed. A list of
programme types was included and they were asked to
indicate their preferences.

There was also a section for those who did not have
a television set, but viewed regularly at a friend's,
neighbour's or relative's home.

The final section were questions about parents' viewing
habits, likes and dislikes.

4.   THE RADIO QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire was intended to find out the pupil's
listening habits and listening atmosphere (i.e. what do
they do while they were listening, and with whom do they
listen, etc.) as well as their likes and dislikes of
the programmes. There was also a section included to
find out the parents' listening habits and likes and
dislikes.

5. THE CINEMA QUESTIONNAIRE

Cinema-going, especially for girls, is said to be very
rare in Bahrain. However, this questionnaire was
intended to check whether this assumption was true.
Questions included whether the pupils do go at all,
and if yes, the frequency, as well as their likes and
dislikes of movie films.

The pupils were also asked whether they wished they
could go more often. A section was also included for
parents' cinema-going, the frequency and favoured
movies.

6. THE BOOKS, MAGAZINES AND NEWSPAPERS QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire was intended to investigate in
detail the reading habits of the pupils. The questions
included the number of books, magazines and newspapers
they read, what they were, when they read, what was
their favourite reading material, what was their
favourite reading subject, how did they obtain what
they were reading, etc. There was also a section on
the reading habits of the parents.

7. MEDIA ATTITUDES

This questionnaire was intended to find out how the
pupils themselves viewed the media, specifically the
television, with regards to their life-style. They
were asked what they thought were some important
changes that happened at their home because of the
presence of a television set, and what, in their
opinion, was the best aspect about the presence of
a television, as well as the worst. Questions also
involved what they thought they have learned from
television. Then there were a set of questions,

one listing a number of inventions (including all the
media) and the subjects were asked what they thought
was the most appreciated invention by girls of their
age. They were asked which mass medium they enjoyed
most, which stimulated their thinking and which they
would miss most if they had to go without.

Some other questions were intended to find the influence
of a medium on seeking further information in another
medium, for example, whether there was a book that
they have read as a result of seeing something on
television or listening to it on the radio, and vice
versa.

8, 9 & 10. INVENTORIES OF FEAR, WORRIES AND WISHES

The intention of the Fear Inventory was to find out
some of the emotional characteristics of the pupils
regarding such aspects as hospital atmosphere,
disease, blood, doctors, injections, anaesthetic etc.
These items were buried in with several other items
and the pupils were asked whether they feared a
specific item a lot, a little, or not at all.

It was hoped that a predictor variable could be traced
from those items about the hospital resistance problem.

The intention of the Worries Inventory was to find out
whether the pupil showed academic and self
confidence/anxiety. It concluded such items as worry-
ing whether schoolwork was bad, whether they cannot
concentrate, they cannot complete work, being
unpractical, exams., studies, etc. All those items
were also buried with several others.

Again, it was hoped that a predictor could be traced
from those items to identify whether those who choose
nursing have academic and other problems.

The inventory called "wishes" was designed to measure
the conflict the girls faced as a result of being in
visual contact with what the life of a "modern girl"
is like in the West and the social pressures enforced
upon them. It included such items as wishing to go
out with friends more often, wishing to go out to mixed
parties, travelling, swimming, wishing to dress as one
likes, to become independent after the age of twenty-
one, deciding one's own future, and living where one
wants. However, most of the items in this inventory
were considered improper in Bahrain's society, and the
Ministry of Education feared it might cause dissatis-
faction with the parents of the pupils. So, unfortunately
it had to be cancelled altogether. However, another
attempt was contemplated, stressing factors like the
role of the working woman, equality of sexes and the
necessity of education and careers for women.

(These were included in scale called "The Cultural
Resistances Scale", discussed later).

Subjects; .

Two first intermediate classes of female pupils were chosen
on whom to administer pilot questionnaires. The total
number was 85 female pupils whose age range was 12 to 13
years old. There were basically two reasons for choosing
these younger subjects for piloting. The first was that
we wanted all the classes of the Second Intermediate and
Final Secondary level (who were agreed upon to be the final
subject choice) to be untouched before the "main study".
Secondly, although the problem of unstructuredness of
results was accepted as a problem to be faced with younger
pupils, the advantage of testing the questionnaires at the
lowest denominator possible, regarding their understanding

and comprehensibility, was considered more important at
this stage. The two classes of this school included
pupils from the town as well as a nearby village.

Method of Administration:

The questionnaires were divided to be administered on four
consecutive days, two to three each day. The time involved
was one to one and a half hours each day. This decision
was taken so as to avoid boredom and lack of concentration.

Each questionnaire began with a pupil's secret code number,
her school and class number and a statement that declared
that everything written on the questionnaire will be strictly
confidential. The reason for this was to allow the pupils
to answer frankly and freely and to avoid the problem of
having answers designed to impress the teachers.

The researcher was introduced to the class as one interested
to know their ideas and points of view regarding the media
specifically and their school and job aspirations as well
as some other general topics. It was stressed to the
pupils that this was not a test, that there were no right
or wrong answers. The questionnaires would remain anony-
mous, so they were encouraged to answer feely and individ-
ually, as we were interested in their points of view.

Examples of how to answer each of the questionnaires were
always explained on the blackboard beforehand and ALL
questions put by the pupils were answered. All the
questionnaires, after completion, were collected, put in
envelopes and sealed in front of the pupils to assure them
that their teachers and headmistresses had no access to
them.

Several problems were encountered during administration:

i. The pupils were not test-sophisticated at all. These
    were the first questionnaires they had ever answered
    and so a lot of difficulty was found in getting through
    with the first two questionnaires. After that, they
    got the gist of the whole thing, and the other questionn-
    aires were managed smoothly.

ii. The time for answering the questionnaires stretched
     from 30 minutes to one and a half hours for a few
     pupils. As some of the pupils had to be spoonfed
     almost everything, great care was taken to explain
     by giving examples and never to lead the pupils to
     an answer. Difficulty was also encountered in keeping
     those who were quick busy, while the others were still
     completing their forms.

iii. A number of the pupils were absent on one of the
     four days of testing, so they did not have the chance
     to complete all the questionnaires.

iv. A number of the pupils lost their secret code numbers.
     If the researcher did not ask the headmistress to keep a lis
     of names and codes for such emergencies, even more
     cases would have been lost.

Besides those administrative problems, several questions were
found to be unclear, or designed in a confusing way, so all
had to be changed for the main study.

II. RESULTS

As it was discussed in Section C, the objective of this
pilot was to try out a number of questionnaires in order
to test for the relevant attributes of the target popula-
tion and to find out the image that this subpopulation had

of a nurse and the Nursing vocation. At this stage only
general processing of the data was carried ¦ general fre-
quencies were calculated for all the questions. However,
detailed study was done by examining every questionnaire
individually, noting the remarks, comments, mistakes,
etc. This was possible because the total number of
pupils was only 85. Moreover, as those pupils were
regarded as relatively unsophisticated, being in a lower
level class than the target population, care has been
taken while evaluating those results.

Instead of starting with the presentation of the results
relative to the attributes of the population as discussed
in the description section, it was decided, for organiza-
tion purposes, to start by examining the results in
relation to the image of the nurse.

Image of Nursing

a) In the incomplete sentences starting "Nurses are......
    three types of statements were found to be used.
    Although in the examples and explanations the pupils
    were specifically asked not to be too descriptive,
    around 38% still completed the sentence with the
    statement that "nurses are those that help patients."

    However, the others were a bit more imaginative and
    used more general statements. One which has been used
    by a large number of them and which is a sort of
    cliché in this society is "nurses are angels of mercy".
    Other statements included "people of humanity and
    conscience", "people who help reduce the agony of
    the hurt ones", "those who serve humanity", "those
    who serve their people and nation."

A third type of answers were adjectives or profile descriptions as "hard workers", "helpers", "carry heavy responsibilities", "liked".

All the sentences completing "Nurses are..." were postive and favourable. There were no negative statements at all.

b) The table below originally included four common female jobs: teacher, secretary, nurse and air hostess, and a number of characteristics. The pupils were asked to indicate whether they thought each characteristic was a fair description of the job; the following results emerged about the "Nursing" job:-

TABLE 1

Frequencies of pupils who ticked fair or unfair description of each job characteristic

Characteristics of Nursing	Description is:	
	Fair (%)	Unfair (%)
Looked up at	56.8	43.2
Challenging	20.9	79.1
Has future prospects	92.5	7.4
Respectable	96.2	3.8
Exhausting	65.4	34.6
Desirable	56.8	43.2
Carries heavy responsibility	87.6	12.4
Humane	97.5	2.5
Secure	70.3	29.7
Not prestigious in our society	67.9	32.1

N = 81 pupils (fully completed this question)

A tick (✓)in this question stoodfor the characteristic

being a fair description of the job. A (X) stood
for the characteristic not being a fair description
of this job.

One point that has to be noted about this table is
that the translation here in English cannot be com-
pletely accurate, as compared to the Arabic text.
For example, the clause "has future prospects" is
one word in Arabic, and means a combination of
advancement and mobility.

The results of this table showed mixed views regard-
ing the image of the nursing job. Although 96%
declared that it was a "respectable" job, only 57%
thought that it was a job "looked up to", and 68%
thought that the characteristic not prestigious in
our society" is a fair description. There was a near
concensus on the fact that it was "humane", a large
majority agreed that it "carried a heavy responsibility",
was "secure" and "exhausting". Very few, 21%, thought
it was a "challenging" job yet the majority, 93%,
regarded it as having "future prospects"! An inter-
esting characteristic is the one which states that the
job was "desirable". There does not seem to be an
agreement on this, only 57% thought it was desirable.

Although those results weigh slightly in the direc-
tion of the assumption that there exists some un-
favourable characteristics in the Nursing job, those
results have not been taken seriously for three
reasons:

1.   As the pupils were not experienced in
        responding to questions of this kind, this
        question has confused them to start with,
        and it took a lot of explanation to get them
        going. This might have reduced the value of
        the answers.

2.   It has been noticed that the younger pupils
        showed an inclination of preferring to put
        ticks instead of crosses, so more character-
        istics should have been presented in a
        negative state.

3.   The sample was too limited for generalization,
        so further investigation was considered nec-
        essary.

Television

a)   Concerning viewing habits, it was found, to begin with,
     that "only 2" of the pupils tested did not have a
     television set at home. 87% have had their television
     set over a five year period. All of those who had a
     television set at home watched every day, and all could
     receive over four channels on their sets. All of them
     watched some childrens' programmes every day and most
     of the evening programmes, which are after 7 p.m.,
     also every day. The average time of going to bed
     during weekdays (Saturdays to Wednesdays) was 9.30 p.m.;
     as for weekends (Thursdays) it was 12 p.m.   The
     channels that were enjoyed most were Bahrain, Qatar
     and Kuwait, but they all watched Bahrain television
     around 7 p.m., when there is usually an Egyptian or
     Bedouin serial. These serials lasted for around four
     weeks each, but they were always viewed and mentioned as
     the most enjoyable programme, and the one they try not to
     miss. Preferences and interests mostly revolved around
     Arabic films (usually Egyptian), Indian films and a
     few Western Series, like "The Waltons", "Little House
     on the Prairy" and "Bionic Woman". The programmes
     disliked were the News and political interviews.

b) Concerning the viewing atmosphere, they mostly viewed
with their brothers and sisters; 48% just watched,
22% talked while watching and 16% did their homework
as well. 75% declared the set was switched on all
the time and when there was a programme they did not
like they switiched to another channel. Around 63%
stated that there were no problems in deciding what
programmes to see as they all liked the same thing.
Although 50% said that no-one usually decides what
can and what can not be viewed, of the other half 15%
declared that a brother decides, 15% a sister, 10% the
father and only 7% the mother. The majority knew what
were the evening's programmes beforehand, either from
a member of the family or the newspaper.

c) Concerning the parents' viewing habits, the majority
claimed that both their father and mother only "some-
times" watched television, with the mother found in
the "always" category more often than the father.
The fathers' preferences included the News, sports
and some Western series. The mothers' preferences
were the Arabic series and films. During the winter
season, specifically for the father, the television
was rarely viewed, as the father went out with his
friends. During the summer, as it is extremely hot,
television became a more favourable leisure substi-
tute.

d) The 2 cases who did not have a television set at home
were asked what their parents thought of having a
set at home. They both answered that the parents
regarded television as a distractor, not allowing
children to do their homework or chores! However,
they both claimed that their parents were planning to

get the t.v. sets eventually, but they did not know when.

Radio, Cinema and Print

The results from those three questionnaires were not very useful. To start with, 89% of the girls have hardly ever gone to the cinema, nor did their mothers. Their fathers did go, but very occasionally. (Going to the movies is such a rare phenomenon in Bahrain, not because of the television, but of social pressures.)

The majority of pupils listened to the radio only in the early afternoon, just after lunch, and they usually listened while they were either doing their homework, or housework. They also always listen on Friday mornings. The programmes most enjoyed were Arabic singing and pop music. As for the father, he only listened to the News on the radio. The mother listened to some family and cooking programmes, as well as Arabic singing. There was no specification in their listening habits. Very few listened in the evenings.

As for reading habits, their average reading of books was one in a month, and the preferred subjects are historical romantic stories. They also skimmed through the Family magazine (like Family Circle here), and the only local newspaper that comes out. They have no specific preferences or allocated reading time regarding magazines or newspapers. Besides the local newspaper and the Family Magazine, they were not sure of their parents' other reading preferences.

Media Attitudes

Regarding some of the important changes that happened to their home life as a result of the television, the pupils'

most quoted answers were "change in our sleeping time
becoming more late in the evening", "father, mother and
brothers and sisters don't go out as often as they did
in the evening, but they stay at home", "we don't go out
very often in the evenings", "we have our dinner in front
of the television set", "my mother has relaxed from our
constant quarrels, especially when we are on holidays",
"we are no more as bored as we used to be before.....".

As for the best thing about having a television, the answers
involved, "we learnt a lot about things we didn't know
before", "our parents are staying more often with us in
the evenings", "we can always fill our free time by watch-
ing something on the set", "the peace and quiet that fills
the house when everybody is watching an interesting pro-
gramme....."

The worst thing about having a set also triggered many
comments. "Learning about the 'wrong' ideas concerning
the relationship of boys and girls", "my younger brothers
and sister imitating some programmes"; "some programmes
that adolescents should not watch as it gives them unethical
ideas", "quarrelling with each other concerning which
programme to watch", "distracts us from spending our time
studying harder", "it is a waste of time", "it is bad for
the eyes......."

Television was quoted most often as the medium to be missed
most if they had to go without it. As for what girls of
their age enjoyed most and what stimulated their thinking,
the answers were around 50-50 between television and a good
book.

As for the influence of one medium form on the information
seeking behaviour in another media form, the only type
found was of a film or series on television triggering the

the reading of the same story in a book.

The pupils stated that they learned a lot from television, especially about relationships among adults and about people from other countries.

School and Work

Most of the questions that were put in this questionnaire were being piloted for their clarity and unambiguity, so that they could be used as additional predictive tools in the final study.

However, regarding the question as to when do they wish to leave school, 37 pupils did not know (45%), 39 pupils said after University (College), 5 pupils declared that they will leave after completing their secondary schooling and only two declared they will leave after gaining their intermediate certificate. As for when the parents wished their daughters to leave school, the association between what the pupils wished and what they thought their parents' wishes were was almost perfect. There are only three cases in the whole sample which differed. One did not know when she wished to leave school, but her parents wanted her to go to University (College), and two who said they would leave at the secondary level stated that their parents wanted them to continue on to University (College).

Considering the jobs they wished to do, it was interesting to note that the ambitions were high.

Twelve of the pupils wanted to become medical doctors, ten teachers and two music teachers, three civil servants, four "grounded" air hostesses, while another three air hostesses, not necessarily grounded, two pilots, three engineers, four

secretaries and one dressmaker.... Except for six who wanted to become nurses, the rest (twenty nine pupils) stated that they "don't know".

The majority heard about this job from a member of the family, specifically the father or elder brother, but the mother and sisters were also mentioned. Some also heard about it from an uncle, aunt or cousin who works there. When it came to jobs, like doctor and teacher, the pupils always quoted that they heard about the job from a parent and "people". Television, radio and cinema were quoted as the source of information about the "music teacher" and sometimes the "air hostess", but the latter was specifically associated with "a friend who works there", or "saw them in the airport". As for the civil service, not only was a parent or friend quoted as a source, but an explanation was added, and that was that it is "respectable".A secretary was also described as a "high pay job". There were only two cases that quoted school as the source of information and that was for a teacher's job and a doctor's job.

As for the "Nursing job", six pupils stated that it was the job they wished to do, two of them had it written out, scratched over and then a "don't know" added. From those six pupils, only one declared that she intendedto leave school after the intermediate level and join Nursing. ALL the rest chose a "don't know" category when asked when they intended to leave school and their parents' wishes regarding this.

ALL of those pupils stated that they heard about the job from a Nurse they knew, or saw the nurses in hospital, but three of them also added that they saw a film about a nurse on television.

Finally, regarding the question about the pupils' opinion as to the most important characteristic for advancement in

life, the results are presented in the following table in
descending order.

TABLE 2

The most important characteristics for
advancement in life

Characteristic	Percentage
Moral and Ethical Standards	35.5
Education	14.3
Brains	11.9
Strong Personality	8.3
Courage	6.0
Good friends	4.8
Dress and talk well	3.6
Hard work	3.6
Good luck	3.6
Money	-
Knowing powerful people	-
Don't know	9.5
	N = 84

It is interesting to note from this table how much weight
those pupils put on ethical standards and how they com-
pletely ignored money and powerful contacts. Education
and brains seem to be reasonably important as well. (This
question was intended to help pinpoint important character-
istics that will be developed in the television programme
themes).

Inventories of Fear and Worries

The specific items buried in those two questionnaires point-
ing to resistances to hospital atmosphere and academic
anxiety did show a discriminatory function in that different
pupils chose different extremes on the scale. For example,
the item "hospital atmosphere" was scored: 52%, "frightens
me a lot": 12%, "a little": and 38%, "not at all". The
item "my schoolwork is unsatisfactory" scored: 42%,
"worries me a lot"; 32%, "a little" and 27% "not at all".

There was a lot of absenteeism when those questionnaires
were being administered and the total number who completed
them was only 56. This small number of subjects compared
to a large number of items, 60 in each inventory made it
difficult to carry tests to locate discriminate variables.
So it was decided to carry this investigation again on a
larger sample.

Summary

1. Although the open sentence question produced a positive
    and favourable image of a nurse, the table of character-
    istics of the Nursing job showed confused views.

2. Television was definitely found to be the medium
    enjoyed most, used most both for information and
    leisure, and considered stimulating for pupils of
    this age.

3. The viewing atmosphere involved mostly the brothers
    and sisters of the subjects while the television was
    switched on most of the time.

4. Most of the pupils were not sure about their parents'
    viewing time and preferences. Those who did answer

indicated that their parents' viewing was occasional and unstructured.

5. Points 3 and 4, the question that enquired about who decides what programmes are seen, plus some other questions planned to see if there exists any passing down of information from the programme viewed (informal influence), did not seem to indicate that such influence exists in this case. There does not seem to be any specific intermediary influence source.

6. The cinema, radio and print questionnaires did not point to any structured or significant use or preference of those media, both for pupils or parents.

7. The pupils seem to have high ambitions regarding continuing their education and choosing high prestige jobs, like doctor and teacher; obviously, those ambitions are unrealistic!

8. The pupils who chose Nursing as the job desired did not all know when they were planning to stop their education. Looking through their questionaires, there also seems to be an uncertainty factor about most of their answers.

9. All the answers on the use of television, preferences, comments etc., indicate that there are few differences between the answers of those children (in a developing country) and the ones found in the classic works about children in developed countries like Himmelweit, Oppenheim & Vince (1951) and Schramm et. al(1961). There were only some statements regarding "the worst aspect about television as that of teaching boys and girls about unethical behaviour" which might be considered more culture bound. It has to be stressed, though, that a number of questions in the "wishes inventory" which

might have presented a better understanding of this
difference had to be excluded.

Conclusion

The results of this pilot study showed that, although some
findings were significant and some useless, there were a
number of aspects missing. Further investigations should
include:

1. More information as to the exact attitude of pupils
    to the nursing vocation and the Nursing image.

2. As religious attitudes and conformity to traditional
    values was not possible to measure, an attempt should
    be made at investigating attitudes towards womens'
    roles and relationships to work.

3. More information about aspirations and desires of
    those girls.

    All the above points would be used to develop the themes
    for a television programme.

4. Scales should be constructed and piloted to measure
    attitudes, image and information about nursing for
    the final design of the study.

However, this pilot conclusively pointed out that, if a
campaign is to be carried, television should be the medium
used, as all the other media do not seem to cover a struc-
tured and significant aspect in the pupils' habits.

E.   ADMINISTRATIVE PREPARATION

On the basis of the findings of the pilot studies on "Nurses and Pupils", the Nursing School descided that a campaign should be administered to try to 'promote nursing." To do this several administrative preparations had to be done.

1.   Application for permission from the Ministry of Health to carry out this research, with their support all through, and to get access into some hospital wards as well as the School itself for filming.

2.   Application for permission from the Ministry of Education to get access into the schools and classes which had the potential candidates for the Nursing profession for the following year. Those in total amounted to 16 schools: 92 classes and 3,226 pupils.

     The Ministry was also asked to assist in the typing and duplicating of the questionnaires, as well as financial help regarding the stationery for those questionnaires. Permission was also sought for the co-operation of the headmistresses and teachers in administering the questionnaires in the schools.

3.   Application for permission from the Ministry of Information to use the facilities of the Television Broadcasting station to put on the air a number of programmes. This permission had to include the co-operation of some producers, directors and technicians, and filming crew, a specific date for the use of the studios and for the time on the air.

4. Application for permission from the Department of
    Statistics to transfer the data on Hollerith cards
    and later magnetic tapes, so as to be available
    for computer analysis.

Therefore, altogether four Ministries were involved in this
project and each had their own specifications, conditions,
limitations and deadlines.

As the Ministry of Health was actually backing this poject,
the only conditions put by them were to keep the officials
of the Nursing School totally informed of every step to be
taken.

The Ministry of Education demanded a complete check-up of
every questionnaire before letting them through into the
schools. They also specificed a limited span of testing
time, and a deadline for the last test, so as not to
interfere with the pupils' preparation for the exams.

On the other hand, they were interested in any information
that could be handed down to them regarding the pupils'
knowledge about other vocations and the reasons for drop-
outs at the intermediate level. Those points had to be
included in the questionnaires.

The Ministry of Information also specified a time span.
However, they accepted the financial burden of the programmes
to be put on the air, because they were being backed by the
Ministry of Health. (Time for jobs for other Ministries
is usually allocated every year). The officials in this
Ministry were also interested in the design of the campaign
to be used and statistics on television use and preferences.

The Department of Statistics again only accepted to carry out
the "enormous job" of transferring data, simply because it
was a multi-ministerial project. They however set a dead-
line, time limit and special price for overtime work.

F.   PILOT: THE MEASUREMENT SCALES

Bearing in mind the conclusions of Section C, that
further information about the Nursing job
should be investigated, the logical next step was to
construct and pilot scales that would measure the cog-
nitive and affective aspects of attitudes towards the
Nursing vocation. Those scales were also intended to
be used as the dependent variables of the main study.

Construction and Piloting

Three questionnaires were developed to start with:

        information questionnaire
        social image questionnaire
        attitude questionnaire.

The main objectives for piloting those questionnaires,
at this stage, were:

1.   To check the clarity and unambiguity of the
     questionnaire designs as well as items;

2.   To select items that show discriminatory power.

Regarding the scales on which factor analysis was carried,
the basic aim was to get a general idea about the common
variance of the items and the structure of the factors.
The discussion of the analysis was therefore general.

The reason for this decision was twofold:

1.   Although the sample of pupils chosen to pilot the
     study was quite similar, it was not exactly the same
     as the final target population. Some analysts
     argued against depending on factors based on

different populations as the results become
obscure. (Child, 1970).

2.   The total number of subjects was not large
      enough to draw generalized final conclusions.

However, all those scales were analysed again in detail after
they have been administered during the main study on the
target population .

The subjects

Three first intermediate classes were chosen, containing
104 pupils (around 35 pupils in each class). The reasons
for choosing a first intermediate level class, as explained
earlier in Pilot 2, were so as to leave the entire target
population untouched, and to measure, at the lowest standard
possible, the comprehensibility of the questionnaires. As
there is class repeating, age was not regarded as a draw-
back here, for there was an age range of between 12 to 15
years. However, the problem of unstructuredness of
answers, probably due to the fact that the pupils of lower
classes are less sophisticated than the higher ones, had
to be kept in mind all through.

Description and Administration

The first page of each questionnaire included a declaration
of confidentiality. There was also an introductory state-
ment that explained, in each case, that the questionnaire
was not a "test", but an oppinionnaire designed to accumulate
information about how much our pupils know about the require-
ments of specific jobs, how they visualize them, and what

is their attitude towards them.

They were also encouraged to write down comments and criticisms if desired. An example of how to fill each questionnaire was also included in each case.

Item Selection

Two major design aspects dictated the way the items for those questionnaires were chosen. To overcome pre-testing bias and for a further control of the study (as discussed in Chapter VII), the items had to be unobtrus-ive, disguised and buried in other relevant material to be used for further control. Therefore, we had to be selective in choosing general items that relate to at least three other types of jobs; teaching, secretarial work and air hostess, besides nursing. This, in itself, reduced the range of possible questions that could be included about the nursing career.

Moreover, as we were going to measure the attitudes, image and information about the nursing job buried in with four other jobs, we had to be very selective (after piloting the scales) in choosing a few relevant items, around 10 for each scale. We had to choose the items that had the highest loadings, but at the same time conveyed the message desired. Twenty to thirty items for each job and each scale would have definitely created bore-dome and lack of concentration by the respondents.

I.   INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

The objective of this questionnaire was to measure the amount of factual information the pupils had concerning the nursing vocation.

Assumptions and Uses

1.   The pupils' information, in general, about the nursing vocation would be little.

2.   The questionnaire itself might trigger information-seeking behaviour regarding the questions involved.

3.   From the general conclusions about the pupils' information, themes will be drawn for the programmes.

The Dimensions

Most of the information to be tested was compiled from the pilot work concerning the Nursing School's structure and requirements (Section A).

Basically, the items revolved around three main dimensions:

1: ENTRY REQUIREMENTS
Examples::
  Certificate required to apply to the different levels
  of the job.
  Types of Certificates preferred whether Science or
  Arts, etc.

2. TRAINING INFORMATION
Examples:
  Years of training to be completed for qualifying at
  each level.
  The location of the School.
  The affiliation of the School to appropriate College.
  Hours of attendance required during training.
  The stipend given at each level.
  Transportation facilities available.
  The length of holidays and vacations given.
  Whether a uniform is compulsory during training, etc.

3. JOB INFORMATION
Examples:
  Government grading for vocation after qualifying at
  each level.
  Basic salary given after qualifying at each level.
  Possible specialization fields available.
  Hours of work required.
  The possibilities of career mobility, etc.

Description

There were altogether 21 items designed as multiple choice
questions with one correct answer and a "don't know" category.

Results and Analysis

As a whole, the questions in the questionnaire appeared
to be straightforward and simple and the pupils showed
no problems in answering them.

There were a few items, however, which the great majority
either answered correctly or used the "don't know"
category. They did not seem to show any discriminatory
power. For example, the question about the requirement
of wearing a uniform during training got 96% correct answers,
2% not correct and 2% don't knows.

The location and affiliation of the School also received
over 94% of correct answers. On the other hand, most of
the items in the job information dimension category received
a very large proportion of don't know answers. A closer
look into the reasons for this (by asking the pupils them-
selves, the teachers and from the remarks and comments)
brought to light two reasons. One is that the Civil
Service Department was in a transitionary period, re-evalu-
ating and changing the grading system and salaries of its
employees - the nurses included. Secondly, the teachers
commented that the pupils were more interested in their
immediate future and not the one further off. This meant
that knowledge and information about the dimensions of
the "training" category were more relevant at this stage
than the later job dimensions.

II   SOCIAL IMAGE QUESTIONNAIRE

The objective of this questionnaire was to find out what
the pupils thought about the Nursing job; what sort of
image it portrayed; how they visualized it in relation to
their society.

Assumptions and Uses:
1.   The image, especially in relation to societal
     prestige, might be unfavourable;

2.   The resistances found from this scale will be
     used for the development of themes.

Description:
The items in the questionnaire did not portray factual in-
formation aspects, nor were the pupils asked to give an
attitude dimension. They were asked whether they thought
some statement, describing some aspect of the vocation, is
a "true" or "false" one in their opinion. There was also
a "not sure" category.

The Dimensions

The items were mainly constructed around three main dimen-
sions:

1.   Job characteristics and requirements

     Examples:-
             Scholastic achievement required;
             Type of training required;
             Routine, cumbersome and tiring characteristic;
             Irregular working hours characteristic;
             Heavy responsibility characteristic;
             Practical vs. intellectual.

High autonomy characteristic;

Low pay for hard work characteristic, etc.

2.   Job advantages and rewards

Examples:

Development of social and economic independence;

Provision of opportunities for socializing and
making friends;

Availability of opportunities for further career
mobility;

A secure and sheltered job for a lifetime;

Usefulness of information about health problems
for family and children;

Development of character;

Creation of a sense of self-satisfaction, etc.

3.   Job and Societal Influence

Examples:-

Service to humanity and mankind;

Helps society to progress;

Has influence on the welfare of the Nation;

Regarded as socially unprestigious;

Rumoured to be only a stepstone to marriage;

Rumoured that choosers are not really dedicated;

Used as an outlet from home imprisonment, etc.

Results and Analysis

A number of items were found to be unclear and confusing.
For example, the item that described Nursing as a practical
job brought up a lot of questions. In Arabic, there is no
clear-cut word for "practical" as reflected in the English
language, and a lot of explanation and examples had to be
given which made the answers unobjective.

Another realization was that a number of items were undis-
criminatory. Items like "service to humanity"; "helps
society to progress"; "creation of a sense of self-satis-
faction"; "usefulness of information about health problems"
..... all showed over 94% agreement that the statement is
"true". On the other hand, the item that described the
Nursing job as a simple outlet from home imprisonment showed
an almost concensus 97.8% that this statement is "not true".
Therefore, a number of those and similar items were considered
not useful.

Factor analysis was then applied to the items. The final
matrix interpreted was based on orthogonal rotation: Varimax
rotated factor structure after rotation with Kaiser Normal-
ization. The matrix yielded seven factors derived from the
intercorrelations of the items.

Kaiser's criterion was used to extract the factors, (Kaiser,
1959). All the factors having latent roots greater than
one were considered as common factors. This brought down
the number of factors under study to four. As the total
number of items was between 20 and 50, this method is con-
sidered sufficiently reliable (Catell, 1952).

Regarding the criterion for the significance of the loadings,
the suggestion put by Child (1970) was used. This analysis
is not based on any mathematical propositions, except that
it represents roughly 10% of the variance. As the sample
was made up of 104 subjects, all loadings greater than $\pm$ .30
inclusive were considered. Child maintained that this is
actually quite a rigorous level for analysis.

Further loss of items occurred as some items showed moderate
to just significant loadings (i.e., $\pm$ 20 to $\pm$ 35) over three
or more factors. Those items did not seem to have a clear-
cut association to a specific factor, but were mixed. An
example of such an item is the "low pay for hard work" state-
ment, which had a (.26) loading in factor 1, (.34) in factor
2, (-.26) in factor 3, (.26) in factor 6 and (.27) in factor 7.

The majority of the statements in factor one seemed to refer to the social consequences of the job with the highest loadings "it is rumoured that this job is used as a stepstone to marriage" (.82) and "this job is considered socially unprestigious" (.81).

Factor two contained several statements reflecting the jobs advantages and rewards, while factor three contained statements stressing the jobs requirements: "it requires a good academic qualification" (-.56) and "it involves difficult training" (.40).

Factor four included a pair of statements reflecting the Nurse's personality and dedication. However, the proper labelling of the factors was left to the main study analysis where the factor analysis was run on the whole target audience.

Conclusion

Some analysts argued that a factor analysis involving around 40 items on 104 subjects produces unstructured results (Catell, 1952). On the basis of this argument and a general feeling that the factors did not seem to portray a strong structure, the results from this analysis were considered with caution. Firstly, more concentration was put on locating stable discriminatory items than on the structure of the factors.

Secondly, all of the items that had just significant loadings, but were considered intuitively relevant to the study, were retained.

Image: Scale for Prestige Ranking

Another way of measuring the social image of the Nursing

profession was by constructing a Prestige Ranking Scale.
This was a projective technique built on the assumption
that nursing, if it was not a socially prestigious job,
would not be ranked high up the scale. However, those
who liked nursing and desired to become nurses might rank
it higher up the scale than other pupils.

The question presented was as follows:
"In our society, we usually have individual preferences in
attaching specific status to the diverse vocations available.
We would like you to look at those eight vocations, then
write them down gradually from the one which you think has
the most important status to the one which has the least
status in our society."

An example was presented. Eight jobs were mentioned:
waitress, doctor, teacher, cook, lawyer, nurse, secretary
and air hostess.

The preliminary intention was to present this scale both
before and after the campaign, and see if any significant
change in perceived status occurred.

The pilot results of this scale are discussed in Section H.

III ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

The objective of this questionnaire was to find out the attitudes of the pupils to nursing as a job in general, and to specific-profile characteristics of nursing.

The questionnaire was based on a five-point Likert Scale with the categories: strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, and strongly disagree. The items were divided almost 50/50 into positive items and negative ones. No neutral items were included, but the aspect, which was meant to measure the attitude to profile characteristics on nursing, was made up of items like the ones in the Social Image Scale, designed to measure job characteristics. The difference here is that the statements were not presented in a neutral manner, but with a weight on affect in one direction or another. The total number of items to start with was 31.

Assumptions and Uses:
1. General job items might change more easily as a result of the programme than the profile items stressing specific (maybe problematic) aspects of the job.

2. The resistances found to exist on the basis of this scale would be used in designing the "themes" of the programmes to counteract them.

The subjects, the method of administration as well as the examples and explanations given, were all the same for this questionnaire as for the previous two. The only difference was that it was given on the day following the one on which the Social Image Scale was presented.

The Dimensions

The items were mainly constructed on the basis of two
dimensions:

1.   General job dimension

   Examples:
            Ideal job for life;
            Few jobs compare in importance;
            Choose when found no other job;
            The first in importance;
            Like it more than any other;
            Those who don't like it are unfair;
            It is alright if no other jobs are available;
            Always desired such a job;
            Provides respect for those who choose it;
            Not as great as it was in the past;
            Why choose it when there are easier jobs;
            Everyone should admire this job.

2.   Specific job items

   Examples:-
            Involves strict discipline;
            Opportunities for advancement limited;
            Development of character;
            Involves aspect of carrying out orders;
            Interesting;
            Opportunity for ambition development;
            Opportunity for decision-making;
            Career mobility situation;
            Advantages;
            Involves some undesirable aspects;
            Humanitarian;
            Involves heavy responsibility;
            Opportunities for socializing;
            Involves irregular working hours;
            Uniform requirements, etc.

Results and Analysis

The same procedure that was used in piloting the Social
Image Scale was used here. All the unclear and confusing
items were delineated. Most of the items that did not
show a discriminatory potential were eliminated. For
example, the item which stated that "one feels that one
is serving humanity in this job" received 97 percent agree-
ment, and the item which suggested that "everyone should
admire this profession" received 95 percent agreement.

Factor analysis was administered on the rest of the items.
The final matrix interpreted was based on orthogonal "vari-
max rotation method." Ten factors were derived from the
intercorrelations of items. Kaiser's criterion was used to
extract the significant factors. All those which had latent
roots greater than one were considered. This brought down
the number of factors to eight. All the item loadings of
$\pm$ .30 were chosen to start with. A number of items got very
low loadings, below $\pm$ .30, so they had to be eliminated.
For example, the items "I like this job more than any other",
"those who choose this job are not ambitious", "this job
brings respect to whoever chooses it".

More items were eliminated as a result of having low but
significant loadings over a number of factors. For example,
the item which stated that "few jobs compare to this in
importance" showed loadings of (-.02) factor 1, (.29)
factor 2, and (.26) factor 3, (.29) factor 4, (.24) factor
5 and (.35) factor 7. "This job is the first in importance"
received loadings in the (.30)'s on four factors and (.41)
on factor 6. Other items which showed similar dispersion
of loadings were ones like "those who don't like this job
are unfair"; "I have always desired such a job", and so on.
This reduced the number of items for the final version.

I re-emphasise that, at this stage of piloting, the main
objective was to find out what items to retain and have a
general idea in connection with the overall structure of

the factors. The final version of the matrix of items,
plus a detailed analysis of the factors, are discussed
in the Results Chapter of the Main Study.

However, the assumption that the items will divide into
separate factors reflecting general job items and profile
job items did hold in part. Factor one seemed to include
the general items with the statement "this is the ideal
job for life" having the highest loading of (.72).
Factors 2 and 3 included more profile job characteristics,
while the other factors contained unique statements of
each.

This labelling is discussed in detail in the Main Study
Analysis.

IV. CULTURAL RESISTANCES QUESTIONNAIRE

Other independent scales that were piloted at this stage
were the Cultural Resistances Scale. The main objective
of this scale was to find out specifically the attitude
of the pupils towards the role of women and work in our
society. The items attempted to measure whether the
pupils tended to be more traditional or progressive
towards womens' role in this society.

Assumptions and Uses:

1.   The more traditional the outlook of the pupil
     regarding work, the less likely it would be
     that she would choose to work, especially as
     a nurse.

2.   The more traditional the pupils are, the more
     difficult it would be to modify their attitudes
     towards nursing as a vocation.

3.   The items of this scale will also be used to
     develop the appropriate themes for the programmes.

The Dimensions

The items of the scale revolved around the following aspects:

1. Traditional role of women, home and childbearing;

2. Education for women, its worth and uses;

3. Economic independence or dependence;

4. Right to work in untraditional spheres;

5. Contribution to society besides the home;

6. Equality in treatment between the sexes.

Description:
The questionnaire was based on a five-point Likert Scale
with the categories: strongly agree, agree, uncertain,
disagree and strongly disagree. The items were divided
almost equally into those stressing a traditional outlook
and those stressing a progressive one. The first draft
was made up of 39 items.

Results and Analysis

The same procedure that was used in piloting the other
scales, mentioned earlier, was used here.

A few items had to be removed altogether from the questionn-
aire, as the representative from the Ministry of Education
thought they were unfit to propose to the pupils. The items
mainly revolved around the dimensions propagating the
equality of treatment between the sexes and the absolute
right to choose whatever type of work, even in untraditional
spheres. Other items were confusing and had to be dropped
out. One such item declared that "a woman's place is the
home, àlthough she can fill other positions". The argument
around this item was that those who believed that a woman's

place is only in the home argued that she should not and
cannot fill other positions, so they couldn't put an
answer. On the other hand, those who believed that a
woman's place is not the home did not know how to disagree
with the fact that she can fill other positions. This was
a 'double-barrelled' question, and totally useless. This
piloting helped to avoid such items for the main study.

Factor analysis was carried out on the rest of the items
and they fell into as many as 13 factors. Out of those,
10 were relevant, as their latent roots were greater than
one. Of those 10 factors, all items with loadings of $\pm$ .30
were kept to start with. The items which had just signifi-
cant weight over several factors were considered cautiously
and, in some cases, dropped. This brought down the total
number to 16 items. For example, the item which stated
that a working woman is a selfish mother received a weight
of (.34) in factor 1, (.26) in factor 3, (-.26) in factor 6
and (.29) in factor ten; the item stating that only men
should support the family economically received weights of
(.35) in factor 3, (.34) in factor 4 and (-.34) in factor 9.

Factor one seemed to include statements that supported a
woman's right to work and independence, while factors two
and three seemed to have more items referring to a traditional
outlook (womens' place is in the home).

The other factors included two to three statements supporting
either a progressive or traditional outlook.

It was decided to leave the final decision on labelling to
the final factor analysis study carried out on the whole
target population sample.

G. FINAL "TEST BATTERY" SKETCH

THE PRE-TESTS:

A. Dependent Variables:-

    1. Information scale
    2. Social Image scales
    3. Attitude Profile scale
    4. Attitude General scale
    5. Intention of Joining Variable.

B. Independent Variables:

    Background Information.
    School and Work Information
    Media Information: Television
    Cultural Resistances scale
    Medical Resistances scale.

THE POST-TESTS:

Dependent Variables

1. Awareness of programmes
2. Information scale
3. Social Image scale
4. Attitude General scale
5. Attitude Profile scale
6. Intention of Joining Variable.

(The complete versions of the translated questionnaires are presented in Appendices G-P. The original Arabic versions are included at the end of the thesis).

Final "Test Battery" Summary

I.   DEPENDENT VARIABLES

1.   Information Scale

To measure the pupils' general factual information about
the requirements for entry into the Nursing vocation, the
training period, characteristics and other job details.

The main objectives of this scale were twofold:

(a)   to find out how much the pupils know
         and design the programme themes accord-
         ingly;

(b)   to measure the change in information
         (if any) as a result of the campaign
         programme.

The final version of the scale contained 12 items of multiple
choice questions with one correct answer and a "don't know"
category.

2.   Social Image Questionnaire

To measure the pupils' image of the Nursing vocation
in relation to the job characteristics and societal
status.

The main objectives of this scale were twofold:

(a)   to find out how the pupils perceived this
         job and develop the programme themes accord-
         ingly;

(b)   to measure change in image (if any)
as a result of the campaign programme.

The questionnaire involved two parts:

i.   A scale made up of 10 items to which the
pupils were to respond as to whether the
suggestion was "True","False" or "Not sure".

ii.   Table of "Rank of Jobs in this Society".
The pupils were asked to rank the job pre-
sented (including Nursing) from the highest
in our society to the lowest.

The detailed factor structure of the "True-False" scale
is discussed in the Results Chapter.

3.   **Attitude Scales**

To measure the attitudes of the pupils to Nursing as a
job in general and to specific characteristics of the
job.

The main objective of those scales were twofold:-

(a)   to find out the pupils' general attitude
to the job and resistances to its specific
characteristics and develop the programme
themes accordingly;

(b)   to measure the change in attitude (if any)
as a result of the campaign programmes.

The scales are based on a five-point Likert Scale
with categories of: strongly agree, agree, uncertain,
disagree and strongly disagree. The final version
contained 14 items: 5 general job items and 9

specific job items.* The detailed factor structure
of the scale is discussed in the Results Chapter.

It was also intended to use all the above dependent
scales as predictive measures to delineate future
potential nursing candidates.

4.   Intention to Enroll

A question to measure indended job choice of each pupil.

The main objectives were twofold:-

(a)   to measure if any change of choice occurred as
      a result of programmes (i.e., more or less pupils
      intending to join nursing);

(b)   to use as a predictive measure to delineate
      future potential nursing candidates.

II.   INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

1.   Cultural Resistances Scale

To measure the attitudes of pupils towards womens' role,
work and rights.

To start with, the main objectives of this scale were
threefold:-

a)   to find out the standing of those pupils in
     relation to the cultural position of womens'
     roles, work, rights, etc., and develop the
     programme themes on the basis of those findings.

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* The general job items and profile job items have been relabelled
  into advantages and disadvantages items after the last factor
  analysis.

b)   to use this scale as a dependent variable
scale to see if any change in attitudes
towards those cultural resistances occurred
as a result of the campaign programmes.

(However, this second objective was not fulfilled because
of administrative problems as will be explained later).

c)   to use as a predicitive measure to delineate
future potential Nursing candidates.

The scale was based on a five point Lickert scale with
categories of strongly agree, agree, uncertain, dis-
agree and strongly disagree. The final version of the
scale contained 16 items. The complete factor structure
of the scale is described in the Results Chapter.

2.   **Medical Resistances Scale**

An inventory intended to measure fear or distaste for
practical aspects involved in the medical profession
such as hospital atmosphere, infectious diseases,
people in pain, and so on.

The main objectives were:

a)   to find out the position of the pupils on those
items and develop the programme themes to
counteract those resistances.

b)   to be used as a predictive measure to delineate
potential Nursing candidates.

c)   It was also initially intended to use this scale
as a dependent measure of change as a result of
the campaign programmes, but again, because of

administrative problems, as described later,
this objective had to be dropped.

The inventory contained 6 items on hospital resistances
buried in with 31 other items.

It was made up of three choice categories: "bothers
me a lot", "bothers me a little", "doesn't bother me
at all."

The final factor structure of this scale is explained
in the Results Chapter.

The other 31 items of the inventory were not useless
items, but included aspects like anxiety about school
work, and lack of self confidence, as well as specific
job characteristic items like having to make decisions,
having to obey orders, etc.

The intention was to make use of those items as final
predicitive measures of the possible attributes of
potential Nursing candidates.

The complete version of this inventory is presented in
appendix N .

3. Background Information Questionnaire

A questionnaire including a number of items asking for
information on personal characteristics such as age,
socio-economic status, residential area, school perform-
ance, etc.

The main objectives of this questionnaire were twofold:

a)   to be used for comparability purposes in
relation to the experimental and control groups
as they are self selective.

b)   To be used as predictive measures for pinpointing
future potential Nursing candidates.

The complete translated final version of the questionnaire
is presented in appendix G .

4.   <u>School and Work Questionnaire</u>

A questionnaire including the item on intentions for
job choice described earlier, but also intended to
measure several other questions about school and work
such as the intention to discontinue schooling at
what level, attitude to school, school subjects, edu-
cation, work after school, discontinue schooling as a
result of marriage, job type, preferences and so on.

The main objectives are twofold:

a)   To find out the position of the pupils in
relation to schooling, work and education,
and use the information for the development
of programme themes.

b)   To use as predictive measures for delineating
future potential Nursing candidates.

The complete translated final version of this questionn-
aire is presented in appendix H .

5. Television Questionnaire

    To measure availability of the medium, viewing habits
    and tastes, and the viewing atmosphere.

    The main objectives were twofold:

    a)   To use the information on availability, habits
            and tastes to decide on presentation strategy
            and type of programmes.

    b)   To use the information on viewing atmosphere
            to decide upon the best strategy of appeal
            based on the results of the communication
            setting and the influence of other viewers.

    The complete translated final version of this questionn-
    aire is presented in appendix I .

    Comments

    As the main objective of this study was to measure the effect-
    iveness of television information programmes in a natural
    setting, it was decided, as explained in the Design Chapter,
    to disguise the purpose of the research and minimize
    contact with the target audience. Great care and expense
    has been spent to avoid disclosing the intent of the research
    and to avoid making the pupils feel that the television pro-
    grammes were simply propaganda campaigns. Moreover, special
    care has been taken to avoid asking specific questions about
    Nursing alone and the television programmes in particular.
    Everything of relevance shown on the television programmes
    was inbuilt into the questionnaires and scales disguised
    with loads of other material.

The questionnaire, given after the television programmes, was intended to measure the "change" in those items on information, image and attitude towards Nursing inbuilt with the other items.

However, to be able to delineate the experimental and control groups, two very general questions were included enquiring as to whether the programme series "The Merciful Hearts" was viewed, and how many of those programmes were seen. No other reference to the programmes was done, to avoid alerting the pupils about the intentions and thus biasing their reactions. Moreover, those questions about the programmes were put in such a way that "this programme series accidentally and 'fortunately' happened to be put on the air during our research and it would be of interest to us to know if you happened to see it".

As for "feedback" in connection with each of the series of programmes as to whether the intended message got through, and whether it was interesting, entertaining, easily informative, emotionally effective, etc., "interviews" were carried with a designated group of 27 pupils (initially 49) chosen specifically for a Panel Study to be carried congruently with the Experimental Design.

The reactions of those pupils is discussed in the following Chapter under: The Panel Study.

H.   DEVELOPMENT OF TELEVISION PROGRAMME THEMES

To deal with this section comprehensively, the outline of
elements affecting the success or failure of mass media
persuasion campaigns discussed in Chapter VI was used as
a guideline for developing the programmes.

Although the description of the administration and analysis
of the pre-programme questionnaire is presented in the follow-
ing Chapters, it has to be explained that, for the development
of the programme themes, "frequency tables" for all the
relevant items were drawn up during the field work and exam-
ined. These frequencies of the relevant questions on 3110
subjects showed us where the pupils stood in relation to
the aspects of interest and determined what themes should
be developed and what should be avoided.(The relevant frequen-
cies are presented in the Appendices).

I.   EXTERNAL EVENTS

As our main concern was with female pupils and the profession
of Nursing, it is vital to explain briefly the place of women
in the society and the status of working women particularly.
To develop campaign themes, we had to be very careful to
account for the external influences and help make them enhance
the campaign effects, instead of work against them. As
discussed in Chapter VI, external events were to a very large
extent beyond the direct control of the communicator, but an
understanding of the total situational trend might help
avoid mistakes such as pushing the wrong themes in a specific
atmosphere.

The change of the status of the Bahraini women from being
largely uneducated wives and mothers to taking an active
part in social activity developed gradually. There was no

fighting feminist movement at any point;   the women were
granted more and more rights with time, with little but
irrelevant opposition. Dr. Ali Taki, in his doctoral
thesis "L'evolution de la Societé du Bahrain" (1970),
while analysing how this gradual liberalization took place,
suggested that four possible factors have contributed to
this gradual process:

Bahrain's geographical position, early wealth (flourishing
pearl industry before the discovery of oil in the 1930's)
settled society (no Bedouins), has made it a centre of
influence from the outside world, thus the society was more
cosmopolitan and sophisticated than its neighbouring
countries.

The starting of the first school for girls in 1928 played
a major role in the latter social change.

a)   Female education gave rise to a demand for female
      teachers;

b)   The demand for female teachers led for a demand
      for higher education for girls.

c)   As the earliest institute for higher education for
      women was established as late as 1967, before that
      women had to go abroad for their further education,
      mainly Beirut.

This latter point brought about the next factor in this
emancipation process. In the 1950's, many young girls
went to Lebanon for their higher education; there they
took off the veil, and on their return to Bahrain, refused
to wear it again. This was the beginning of the unveiling
of women.

Another aspect which could have contributed to this eman-
cipation process was the growth of the mass media since
the 1950's.

Finally, the political, social and cultural openness adopted
by the Government of Bahrain since 1965 eased the atmosphere
for young and educated people to participate in Government
administration. Commerce flourished, modernization and
industrialization was started, better social conditions,
standards of living and recreational facilities. Women took
part in all this, and many "organized" womens' associations
emerged during this period.

Today, emancipation has gone a long way. Many women are
unveiled, many are highly educated, many drive cars and
there exists co-education in all higher education institutes.
It has to be stressed here that mens' attitudes towards
this development (except for some fanatic Muslims) have
been unopposing, in fact encouraging.

Economic Activity

Teaching was the first economic activity open to women. For
social and cultural reasons, this type of activity was
accepted and looked upon favourably by the community. It
remained the only remunerative activity for women until the
early 1950's. Nursing was the second venue for economic
activity open for women. With the demand for Bahrainization
of jobs, the first obvious sector to be affected was the
medical sector.

In the late 1960's, the oil company BAPCO started to run a
secretarial course and many Bahraini girls enrolled. There-
fore, by the end of the decade, there were three major
sectors of activity open to women: education, medical
services and secretarial jobs.

Between 1967 and 1973, other major political and economic
development changed this situation further. American
businesses shifted their central activity to the Arabian
Gulf in general, as the economic importance of the Gulf
States became relevant. Bahrain gained its total inde-
pendance from Britain in 1971, and Iran abandoned its
territorial claim to the Islands accordingly. The
government started to diversify its economic resources
and to boost the wealth of the country. In 1975, during
the Civil War of the Lebanon, a very large number of
foreign businesses - banks, companies, etc. - moved to
the Gulf, especially Bahrain. Banking and the hotel
industry flourished.

This development opened new sources of employment and
women took part in this. Between 1965 and 1971, the number
of Bahraini women working nearly doubled from 995 in 1965
to 1,848 in 1971. After 1971, the economically active
Bahraini women increased even further* and their sectors
of economic activity varied.

Therefore, not all women in Bahrain are homebound; a very
large number are educated, quite a number work for a living,
some drive and a few are totally independent and occupy
important positions. To develop the programme themes, these
points have to be kept in mind, but it is more important not
to overlook a major point. Despite this gradual emancipa-
tion of women, they are still, to a very large extent,
religious, or influenced by religious norms. Therefore,
emancipation should not be confused with Western emancipation.
A conservative attitude to women's clothes, private lives and
recreations are still dominated by traditional societal norms.
Economic independence is not viable for a woman (though she
might receive a sustaining income). She is always considered
as a dependent of some "male" relative, who is considered
her guardian and responsible for her activities.

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*These figures were based on the population census in 1971.

II. THE MASS MEDIA COMMUNICATION SITUATION

The Pilot results on the use of media indicated that tele-
vision is the only medium used in a structured manner.
The cinema, radio and newspapers were found to play a
less significant part in both the information seeking and
leisure activities of the pupils. Television was not only
found to be the medium used most, but also enjoyed and
trusted most.

Both the Pilot Studies and the pre-tests indicated that the
viewing atmosphere was usually in the home, and mostly with
sisters and brothers. Chaffee & Tim (1976) pointed out
that the typical setting for watching television is the
small family group, including parents and siblings, although
youngsters may also view alone or with friends. However,
in Bahraini society, as the average family is made up of
as many as seven children, it is obvious that the majority
of the time viewing is accompanied with sibling interaction.
83 percent of the pupils indicated that they usually viewed
with brothers and sisters, 22 percent with parents, 14 per-
cent with relatives (who might be living with them in their
homes), 9 percent alone and only 8 percent with friends.
Although in the Pilot Studies the pupils argued that their
parents viewing habits were unstructured and occasional,
quite a number of them said that one of the best things
about having a television was that their parents and elder
brothers spent more time with them at home.

The television set is kept switched on most of the time;
it is switched to another channel when the programme is
disliked. Just over half the pupils declared that no
specific individual decides what should, and what should
not, be watched (53 percent); of the other half, some
said it was their brother (17 percent), their sister (12
percent), their father (11 percent), the mother (5 percent,
a relative (1 percent). However, when asked whether they

can watch what they liked, or whether others have to agree first, 61% declared that they usually all liked the same things, 27% argued that others have to agree first, and 12% stated that they can watch what they like.

The majority of the pupils just sit and watch the programmes (50%), some others converse with whoever is around (23%), some others do their homework (14%), while the others do other things. (See Appendix C).

Chaffee and Tims (1976) and others emphasized that interpersonal factors in the communication setting offer a potentially important focus for modification of exposure and reactions to programme content.

Although our results show no "specific", or structured source of influence that might play a central role in this modification process, we are going to assume that older brothers and sisters and parents may play a part in this process.

Therefore, the television campaign programmes should be designed to account for the points of view of those subjects besides the target audience.

III. AUDIENCE PSYCHOLOGICAL ELEMENTS

When discussing the conditions under which mass communications can produce direct change effects, several suggestions were put forward which summarize the strategies that could be used.(p. 140). This was previously discussed in the Model of Communication Effects based on Schramm's (1973) analysis (p. 104), theoretically explained by De Fleur's Socio-Cultural Persuasion Model. (p. 98).

NOTE: The percentages on television viewing habits of the pre-tests on the actual population were very close to the percentages found in our pilot of 84 respondents. So, it can be said that our pilot results were reliable.

However, all those suggestions depend basically on one
important aspect, and that is knowing thoroughly before-
hand the attributes and predispositions of the target
audience under study.

Before developing the programme themes, it was necessary
to find out how to get the message through to the audience
by overcoming the first, and perhaps foremost, intervening
variables: the psychological motivations creating select-
ivity in attention, perception and recall.

In general, previous experimental research suggested that
to accomplish this, the communication should not raise the
ego-defences of the recipients outright. It should be made
to fit into the cognitive structure of the individual,
without encountering strong conflicting beliefs and atti-
tudes, thus simply confirming, clarifying, extending or
slightly canalizing a part of the individual's cognitive
and motivational structures. The suggestions made should be in
harmony with valued group norms and loyalties. The change
propagated should be guaranteed (or shown to have) social,
and cultural support.

It should be made to look as the accepted norm or "reality",
and the persuasive messages put through the media should
"provide the appearance of consensus with respect to a
given object or goal of persuasion". (De Fleur, 1972).

Therefore, the information should not seriously challenge
existing positions, but simply confirm, clarify or enlarge
upon them.

Those "existing positions" can be divided here into two
general aspects:

1.   Aspects related to the social context of the indi-
     vidual involved, ie. the culturally defined and
     shared values, roles, expectations and beliefs, social
     controls and social norms.

2.   Aspects related to the object of persuasion itself
     (here the Nursing profession) and how it stands
     from the individual's and society's point of view.

The first of those aspects will be referred to as Cultural
Resistances and the second as Specific Job Resistances.

1.   CULTURAL RESISTANCES

     Selectivity in attention, perception and retention
     can be overcome if the themes of the campaign are
     designed with consistency and congruity in mind,
     as well as uses, needs and gratifications, and
     tastes and habits(as discussed in Chapter 4).

     (1)   Consistency and Congruity

     In our discussion on the ways to get through to the
     target population our first suggested strategy was
     that the target population are more likely to accept
     change when it is not in conflict with their trad-
     itional and normative beliefs, etc.

     What cultural values, norms, beliefs and expectations
     should not be antagonized, or in fact, used?

     (a)   Religion:
             As "being religious" is something taken for
             granted in this culture, it would have been
             useless and improper to try to measure how

religious the pupils were. However, the norma-
tive influence on the position of religion in
the society can be inferred from two questions.
One asked for the rating of each school subject
(course) taken in class, whether it was liked, not
liked, or whether it was not minded. Religious
studies are not easy, they involve laborious rote
learning and interpretations and analysis; yet,
85 percent said they liked the religious studies,
15 percent said they did not mind them and only
4 percent (10 subjects out of a total of 2,719)
declared that they did not like them.

As for the second question, which enquired as to
what subject (course) is liked most, religion came
second only to English language. This meant that
the campaign programmes would have to be consistent
and congruent with religious teachings. As they
have to appeal not only to the pupils but the
parents and brothers and sisters, being congruent
with the accepted normative teachings will give
them more potency.

(b)   Cultural Values

In the Pilot Studies, a question was included
which enquired about the pupils' opinion as to
what is the most important characteristic or
quality for advancement in life. A number of
characteristics were listed, but the one which
received the highest percentage was moral and
ethical qualities (35.5 percent). The next in
line was Education (14.3 percent), followed by
Brains (11.9 percent). The whole table can be
referred to on page 292.

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line was Education (14.3 percent), followed by
Brains (11.9 percent). The whole table can be
referred to on page 292.

Although the number of pupils in this pilot
study was rather small (N = 84), and they were
slightly younger than the target audience,
those results can be taken to reflect the
existing normative and cultural values. Moral
and ethical qualities are beyond doubt the most
important characteristics, especially for women,
who are taught since childhood how they are
expected to behave.

While searching for the possible reasons that
made parents or older brothers resist allowing
their daughters or sisters to join Nursing, I
enquired of several ordinary people at several
occasions why Nursing was not sought for.
Besides a number of practical work problems
(as explained earlier), quite a number of them
stated that the image of a Nurse they had was
that of a "loose woman"; all she is after is
to meet doctors and other men! When I put
this statement to the Staff Nurses I interviewed,
they explained that unfortunately, as is the case
in any other job, 'one rotten apple can give the
impression that the whole bowl of apples will
get rotten soon'. Bahrain is a very small
country, and rumour travels fast. They added
that this image of loose sexual (ethical and
moral) standards possibly exists. Moreover,
what makes it worse is a number of Egyptian
drama series put on Bahrain television lately
portraying such an image of a nurse. They
explained that what the ordinary people do not know
is the comparatively high standard of education and
difficult training involved in a Nursing job.

Education is a highly respected quality, even
for women, in Bahrain. This was shown

in Table 2 (discussed earlier) and can be inferred
from a number of questions put in both the
pilot and main pre-tests. When the pupils
were asked when they intended to stop their
education, 54% declared after University,
22% said after completing their secondary
education and only 1 percent after their
intermediate education. Moreover, when
asked when their parents' wished them to
stop their education, the answers were almost
congruent with the pupils' intentions: 52%
after University, 21% after secondary school
and 9% after imtermediate school.

These questions contained a large percentage
in the "don't know" category (25 percent) and
the answers do seem unrealistic, but still they
do reflect at least a desired and respected
ambition.

Teaching is consequently a highly respected
job. This is true not only of Bahrain, but
the Arab culture as a whole. One famous Arab
poet wrote that a teacher should be respected
just as a prophet! For women, teaching has
always been a highly (even the highest)
respected job, as explained in the Economic
Activities of Women. On the rating scale,
which asked for the ranking of jobs in our
society from the most prestigious to the least,
the teacher was ranked second highest only to
doctor. Besides, when asked what job each
pupil intended to do after graduation, the
teaching job received the highest percentage.*

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* p.335 after p. 337

Therefore, those culturally based qualities,
ethical or moral standards and education were
going to be linked to the programme themes.
We hoped that, if those characteristics did not
appeal to the pupils, we could at least be sure
they would appeal to the parents and guardians
who might influence the pupils' decisions, or
stop resisting them.

(c)   Womens' Roles and Expectations

The third category of cultural expectations or
resistances postulated to be of relevance
revolved around the woman's place in this
society.

A description of the evolution of the Bahraini
womens' role, in general, was presented in the
section on external events. Still, it was thought
important to have a definite or clear picture
of   how womens' role is perceived by the pupils
themselves. This will show us whether the image
we intend to propagate is the correct one.

As quite a number of women work in Bahrain, it
was initially assumed that their role as simply
housewives is a fiercely resisted notion. The
items of the   Cultural Resistances scale
(described in Sections E and G)
were used to find out more about this position;
as it will be seen, the assumption was not totally
true.

Frequency tables were drawn up to find out where
the majority of pupils stood on each category

of items of interest. (See Appendix D, p. 549).

The items can be categorized into four aspects:
womens' role in general; women and work;
womens' rights and capabilities, and education
for women.

To start with Education, the answers on the items
here reinforced the statements above about the
respectability and importance of education.
The statement that "further education is nec-
essary for women" received a 96 percent agree-
ment with the majority, 64 percent strongly
agreeing. As for the item declaring that "a
girl should only marry after graduation", 87 per
cent agreed, 8 percent were uncertain and 6 per
cent disagreed. In the questionnaire on "school
and work" the pupils were asked that, if they
had the choice to marry and leave school, at
what level of their schooling would they leave?
Only 2 per cent said before their secondary
certificate, 15 percent after their secondary
schooling and as much as 46 percent after Uni-
versity. Of course, those figures seem unreal-
istic in practical terms, but again this shows
the esteem those pupils have for University edu-
cation.

The items on womens' role, however, did not
present such clear reactions. but showed mixed
up feelings.

The statement that "housework is womens' real work"
showed a response of 71 percent agreement,
11 percent uncertainty, and only 18 percent dis-
agreed! But, when the declaration that "womens'

place is in the home" was put forward, 64 percent
agreed, 11 percent were uncertain and 25 percent
disagreed. Moreover, when the statement was pre-
sented in a more emotional nature, "womens' role
is to marry and get children", only 11 percent
agreed, 12 percent were uncertain and 77 percent
disagreed.

So, it can be concluded that, although the pupils
would not accept a blunt declaration that womens'
role is to marry and get children, they still
(in the majority) think that her place is the
home, and housework is her real work!

The items on women and work also showed surprising
results. The statement that women should have
freedom of choice received an .agreement of
34 percent, 16 percent were uncertain and a
staggering 49 percent disagreed. In addition,
91 percent declared that "women should choose
only secure and sheltered jobs". This is sur-
prising, because Bahrain is the only country in
the Gulf which has policewomen, traffic wardens
and site engineers! Of course, the numbers are
very small and it seems if the majority were to
choose, a secure and sheltered job is more app-
ropriate.

When the work conflicts with marriage, the
reactions again were not clear cut. The statement
that "if a girl gets married she should leave work",
received 33 percent agreement, 19 percent uncert-
ainty and 48 percent disagreed. This reaction is
partly reinforced by another question in the
questionnaire on "school and work", where the
pupil was asked that, "if she was working and
had to get married, would she leave work?" Here,

47 percent stated that they planned to go on working, 6 percent said they will leave work and 46 percent did not know. The uncertainty on this aspect is quite high, which might reflect conflict in decisionmaking. However, it seems that the reason for this uncertainty is partly economical. When asked that "if the husband is well-off, a woman should leave work", 49 percent agreed, 16 percent were uncertain and 35 percent disagreed.

Another point which might explain the mixed re-actions on this aspect of women and work is the "type" of work involved. In the questionnaire, "School and Work", the pupils were asked that, if they were planning to choose a job, what type of job would they choose.

TABLE 3

Type of Job	Answer %
1. A job having adventure, future but no security	24.2
A job having no future, but security	75.8
2. A job requiring thinking abilities	28.8
A job, once learned, one will know always.	71.2
	N = 2,773

It can be inferred from those answers that the point of argument is not "work"; this seems to be alright, but it is the "need" for work and the "type" of work that is of relevance.

The items on womens' rights and capabilities
also show mixed reactions.

Let me first explain that at the end of each
academic year, the local newspaper publishes
the names of all the pupils who passed their
secondary school exams (both females and males).
Moreover, it carries interviews, and puts the
photographs of the pupils who ranked highest
in each of the sections: arts, science, business
and industrial. Those high ranking positions
are almost alternately acquired by females and males
and the competition between the girls' schools
and the boys' schools for those positions goes
on. However, during the year this research was
carried, all those highest ranks were acquired
by the girls. Still, when the statement was put
that "women are less intelligent than men", 28
percent agreed, 26 percent were uncertain and
45 percent disagreed!! It was expected that an
over-riding majority will disagree.

Coming back to womens' rights, "should they
become economically independent?", 64 percent
thought they should, 14 percent were uncertain
and 21 percent disagreed. When they were asked
whether "women should use their talents outside
their homes", 93 percent agreed, and when asked
if women   were capable of both housework and
work, 72 percent said they were,20 percent were
uncertain and only 7 percent disagreed.

(2)   Uses, Needs and Gratifications

If a mass communication is to have direct change effects,
it should relate to individual needs, wants and inter-
ests, or it should be shown to be capable of satisfying

existing needs and motivations. The needs that can be
satisfied (a goal) should be made apparent and some
incentive to take action made active.

How can those suggestions be integrated into this Study?
Let us first consider three general uses and needs that
are going to be worked for in this programme. They are
as presented by Blumler & Brown (1972), and Katz &
Gurevitch (1973): cognitive needs, affective needs and
individual psychological stability needs.

(a) Cognitive Needs:

The cognitive elements of an appeal usually involve
the portrayal of the factual information about the
topic which will help the recipients to rationalize
and justify their actions. It was thought that the
cognitive needs of the audience (in this case) can
be satisfied by portraying the advantages of the
nursing career.

(i) The first advantage to be put forward will be
knowledge and education. As the previous Section
showed, knowledge and education are highly esteemed
in this society, and therefore they will be useful
to develop into the themes. Moreover, the nursing
staff indicated that the public considers the
nursing job as a "serving job": they do not realize
how much academic work is involved (at least, at
the General Nursing level). We argued that stressing
the academic aspect might decrease the number of
applicants as it will frighten away the less
academically oriented pupils. However, the Nursing
School emphasised that they needed better qualified
pupils to reduce eventual dropouts, so the argument
was dropped.

Medical knowledge is again something highly esteemed
in this culture. From the answers of the

pupils we found that a " doctor " was
ranked first in the prestigious jobs of our
society and was the second highest choice(in
percentage terms)of jobs intended and wished,
after teacher. It was decided to highlight this
aspect of the Nursing job, especially as there
existed (at the time) social dissatisfaction in
connection with the small number of doctors
available and the lack of efficient personal
treatment by doctors. It was also decided to
emphasize the endless uses of this medical know-
ledge at home with parents, children, friends,
on the road, everywhere in the country and
internationally.

Besides medical knowledge, it was decided to
emphasize the proficiency in English language
attained by joining the Nursing school.

Therefore a new image was to be pushed in the
programmes, the image of one with the basic
knowledge to be of use always and everywhere
and for everybody.

(ii) Another advantage which was thought useful
to emphasize (an opportunity possible at the
Nursing School alone), is one connecting work
with learning. It was decided to clarify to
some pupils that, if for some reason or another,
they couldn't get their Secondary Education
certificate, this does not mean the end of their
chances. They can join Nursing at the Practical
level, "get paid" and, at the same time, study
at home for sitting again for this exam. When
attained, they automatically can go up the
career ladder to become General Nurses and
further on.

(iii) The usefulness of being paid while
training, and the feeling of independence
it brings, the other job advantage to be
put forward is the chance to go overseas
for further education. This is an aspiration
every pupil has and dreams of: "going abroad".
It is partly reflected by the high number
of pupils who wish to become air hostesses
(13.7 percent), the third highest percentage
after doctor and teacher. Therefore, it
would present a good base to work upon for
the themes.

(b)   Affective Needs:

Besides the cognitive elements of an appeal,
the themes should also be designed and devel-
oped to get through the "emotions" of the
target audience. To do this, two aspects
were contemplated to be useful here, to push
a "low fear threat" plus an humanitarian
appeal in the message.

It was intended to develop the low fear threat
into the storyline of the programmes. The
objective was to explain that: although
people usually feel that nothing can go wrong
for them or their families, accidents happen
when they are least expected, and it is
advantageous to have someone who would know
how to act in such situations. However, the
emphasis should be put on "low" threat only
because it would be undesirable to frighten
or horrify the pupils away from such a job by
creating an association with disasters. It
was hoped that this threat would activate a
"motivation" to want to know how to be of use.
For the family, it would show the advantages
of having someone available in emergencies
with the expertise to act.

As for the humanitarian appeal, obviously it
is one of the few emotional advantages that
can be played on for this job. It was
intended to dramatize this appeal through
the storyline.

Affective needs are described to be the needs
that should satisfy the æsthetic aspects of
human imagination. It was contemplated here
to push through another image of the nurse
besides the "knowledgeable one": "the merciful
one" and an "angel-like figure". One should not
forget here the age and sex of the target audience
and what would appeal to them. The pedagogue
presentation of a programme might not be appealing,
especially for this audience type. Therefore, one
way of getting through to the emotions is to make
sure that the programmes are of dramatic content.

To emphasize the æsthetic aspect, it was thought
relevant to start each programme by a quote
from an Arab poet or writer about a nurse or
the nursing job, and dramatize it by a loud,
echoey male voice. This would be repeated
for each programme. (The visual accompaniment
for this quote was discussed with the producer
and will be described later). Besides this,
the programme should be concluded by a verse
from the Qura'an, reinforcing the theme of the
programme.

Those suggestions, plus considerations of titles
for the programme series, were discussed with the
producer. A description of the programmes later
will show how these aspects were integrated to
satisfy the affective needs of the target audience.

(c)   Individual psychological stability needs:

This aspect usually emphasized such individual needs
as confidence, reassurance, ability to understand
oneself and confer status, feel important, gain a
sense of personal identity and so on.

From the interviews with the nursing staff, two
points were brought up again and again, and they
were that the nurses felt that "Nursing as a job
was not really appreciated", and that "the
nurses do not have a binding feeling of identity".

(i)   Approval and appreciation of job:

It was argued that, if the public does not seem
to appreciate the nursing job, the programmes will
be made to help confer this appreciation. It was
contemplated to apply the socio-cultural model of
persuasion to help push this point. The programmes
would put forward all the socially relevant points
for its approval: Qura'an verses (religious approval);
Arabic writer's quotations and verses (cultural
approval), and knowledgeability (social approval).
It was hoped that these points will portray the image
of a job which is appreciated and approved of socially
and culturally, and therefore the one who does not
agree would be made to feel a "deviant" from the
accepted norm.

(ii) Feeling of personal identity and status:

While attending the interviews with the new applicants
for the nursing job, it was found that the pupils had
very little information about the nursing job and,
moreover, the pupils did not seem to know what they really

wanted or expected of a job. Therefore, it was
decided that the programme would be designed to
suggest that if one wanted "meaning to life"
and a "worthwhile job", Nursing would be the
answer. This would confer status and a feeling
of importance for joining Nursing. To add to
that, the programmes would portray the theme
of a group of people ready to sacrifice something
for the sake of humanity, as the title of the
series described them as "The Merciful Hearts".

To emphasize this feeling of identity further,
it was intended to design the programmes to show
the Nurses as an integrated group of friends
enjoying both the academic and socialization
aspects while training for Nursing.

The School of Nursing has been integrated into
a wider atmosphere of a College for Health
Sciences. This "College atmosphere" would be
pushed and stressed upon. (This would probably
appeal to the parents as well, who respect
the academic aspect of a job). The formal teaching
requirements for Nursing are not much different
from school routine, this might be a factor
making the pupils hesitate to join. Therefore
the other facilities available as a result of
being a student in the College of Health Sciences
will be shown and explained to attract the pupils.

Everything in the programmes was to be geared
to show that Nursing confers a feeling of
psychological satisfaction and happiness and
gives meaning to life.

(3)   Tastes and Habits

Both the pilot studies and the pre-tests of the main
study measured the television viewing habits and are
fully discussed in the Mass Communication Situation
Section.

As for tastes, we had to take into consideration two
aspects of this audience group: their age and sex.

Adolescent females usually have a specific preference
in relation to television programmes and if selectivity
is to be over-ruled, programmes which are more to their
liking should be included in the campaign.

When the pupils were asked which 3 TV programmes did they
like most of all, 72 percent said the daily Arabic serials.
58 percent said Arabic films and 34 percent Indian films.
All those programmes involve romantic dramas (or soap
operas) and are very much culture-bound. When asked
which programme they would try not to miss, 79 percent
said the daily Arabic serials. Documentaries and Western
series were not scored very highly among the three
programmes enjoyed most. Documentaries were claimed
to be among the 3 enjoyed most by only 13 percent of
the subjects which is an absolute number of 400 subjects
from a total of 2,710. (It is surprising why the
Nursing School chose documentaries to get through to
the pupils in their previous attempts). Moreover,
Western series and Western films were chosen by 19 per-
cent and 20 percent of the subjects consecutively. One of
the alternatives thought about when considering what type
of television programmes to put on the air was to import
"Angels" or some other similar series from the West.
However there were 3 main reasons why this was not done.

i)   The language problem:

The majority of pupils and people in Bahrain do speak
and understand English, still, the exact meaning of the
message being conveyed by a Western film is not usually
fully understood. The overall plot or picture may be
grasped, but not the in-depth meaning. Moreover, the
aim of the programme was to convince the parents as
well as the pupils about the Nurse's mission . The
choice of a Western programme might limit the con-
veyance of the message to those who understand
English only.

ii)   Cultural Problem:

Although the programme series "Angels", for example,
does portray the image of a nurse in a favourable
manner, there are some sections which, in our culture,
would look too outgoing or improper. A Nurse who has
dates and goes out with boyfriends in the evenings
might give the wrong impression to the parents of the
pupils involved. It was decided that it is very
important to present a programme which is conservative,
brings up no defenses at all and is at the same time
appealing.

iii)   Tastes:

The pupils themselves preferred local or Arabic films as
compared to Western programmes. When asked what "types"
of television programmes they liked, did not like or
did not mind, home life and society problems were liked
most (80 percent); so were comedies (78 percent),
school life (65 percent), and Bedouin stories (61 percent)
and village life stories (63 percent). Musicals as a
whole were liked a lot, especially Arabic musicals,
which scored 78 percent. These give a clearer picture
as to the types of programmes that should be developed.

2. AUDIENCE PREDISPOSITIONS - JOB RESISTANCES

Besides examining and making use of the cultural
elements to determine the development of the themes,
there were specific job elements, particular to the
position of the target audience, which were thought
to be of relevance to theme development as well.

The pilot studies showed a number of disadvantages
or drawbacks to the nursing vocation itself which
could be regarded as resistances to the job.

It was decided to find out the position of the pupils
on those resistances, whether in connection with the
job itself, or the social status of the job. The
findings will help us decide what resistances to
counteract in the programmes.

Frequency tables were drawn up for the items of the
three dependent variable scales: information about
nursing, the image of nursing and attitude towards
nursing as described in Section E. These frequencies
were done on the pre-test results, which have been
carried out on the whole target population before
showing the television programmes.

The main objective of this investigation was to find
out whether it would be necessary to "convert" the
subjects to a new position regarding nursing, or
simply reinforce and strengthen their existing
positions and provide a new motivation for action.

(1)   Information about the Nursing Vocation:

As Table 5 (p. 357) shows, a very small percentage
of the pupils know enough about the requirements,
training and basic information of the nursing voca-
tion. In the majority of cases, less than a third
of the pupils have chosen the correct answers for
the questions involved except for two items, one on
the location of the College, 67 percent correct, and
the length of vacation period, 49 percent correct.
More than a third of the pupils chose the "don't know"
category. Answers in the wrong category are all
relatively high.

This showed that the programmes, to start with, should
at least try to present the pupils with more basic
information about the nursing profession.

(2)   Image of the Nursing Vocation:

As explained in Section E, this was measured
in two parts: a scale made up of a number of
items where the pupils were asked to express
their opinion as to whether the statement
was true or false; and a rating scale made
up of a list of jobs and where the pupils
were asked to rank those jobs from the most
prestigious to the least prestigious in our
society.

Table 6 (p. 358) presents the frequencies
of the answers for the true-false scale.
The items measuring the pupils' image of
the job characteristics and requirements
seemed to show the "desired image". The maj-
ority of pupils did think that the nursing job
required a good academic qualification - 69.7
percent, and they did acknowledge that it

involved difficult training, 64.5 per cent.
This seemed to contradict ourprevious assump-
tions, that the population did not realize
the qualifications required for becoming a
nurse. It seemed,therefore,that the idea of
pushing through a "new" image of a nurse as
the one with academic knowledge will not be a "new"
image, but a remodelled image.

The ⁻items measuring the pupils
image of the jobs advantages and rewards also see-
med to portray the "desired image". The fact
that the job helps to gain independence was
rated true by 82.7 percent of the pupils, the
fact that it is a secure and sheltered job,
68.5 percent, the fact that it does provide
opportunities for socializing, 79.6 percent.
However, the item on career mobility did not
receive the same consensus. The pupils were
divided around a third in each category of
thinking it is true, false and not really being
sure.

Therefore, besides reinforcing the position of
the Nursing vocation in relation to independence,
security and socialability, the situation on
career mobility has to be clarified and pushed
in the programmes.

The items measuring the image of
Nursing in relation to its social status again
surprisingly showed an inclination towards
the "desired image". The majority of the pupils
refuted such statements reflecting rumours that
the job is perceived as simply a stepstone to

marriage 69.2 percent, and that it is socially not prestigious 62.7 percent, and that nurses are not really dedicated 60.7 percent.

This again showd that(contrary to the claims of the Nurses that the job is not looked upon favourably) the image seems to have the desired standing among the pupils, at least.

However, when the Nursing job was compared to other jobs in relation to social prestige and status, it was ranked "quite low", below secretary and air hostess, and just above waitress and cook!

TABLE 4

JOB	RANKED 1st IN IMPORTANCE PERCENTAGE
Doctor	57.8
Teacher	14.7
Lawyer	14.4
Air Hostess	5.8
Secretary	3.0
Nurse	2.3
Waitress	1.0
Cook	1.0

Therefore, if Nursing seems to have the desired social status, from the point of view of the pupils, why are they resisting it?

(i)   It could be argued that the low social status is held by their parents who might influence their final decision. So the lifting of the social

status of Nursing should be directed to parents
as well in programmes;

(ii)   The social prestige table ranks Nursing low,
         which brings us to the argument that whenever
         Nursing is compared to other jobs it is scored
         low, while on its own, it is all right.
         Therefore, the programme themes should concen-
         trate on Nursings' advantages vs. other jobs.

(3)   Attitudes to the Nursing Vocation

         The   items   measuring   the   attitude
         towards Nursing can roughly be divided into two di-
         mensions, those measuring general job aspects
         and items measuring specific related job aspects.
         (See Table 7,   page 359)

         The items attempting to measure general job
         dimensions showed that quite a large percentage
         of the pupils had favourable attitudes towards
         the Nursing job. The item that the Nursing job
         "has several advantages" was rated favourably by
         80.4 percent of the pupils, 58 percent agreed
         that Nursing is an ideal job, 85.6 percent liked
         the uniform.

         However, again when the job was compared to others,
         the concensus was not so high. The item that
         stated why should one choose this job when there
         are better and easier jobs, received an agreement
         of 44.1 percent, 26.4 percent were uncertain and
         only 29.5 percent disagreed.

         These findings seem to reinforce the previous
         findings in the connection with the image of
         Nursing :when it is on its own the job is

looked upon favourably, but when it is compared to other jobs it seems to lose ground.

The resistances to the Nursing profession cannot be totally examined by general job items, but by specific related ones usually portraying the disadvantages of the job.

The stand of the pupils on such items would probably present a better picture as to what resistances are to be specifically neutralized.

Such possible resistances as:

i. Too much discipline is involved;

ii. A heavy responsibility;

iii. Having to carry orders from superiors, eg. doctors, matrons, etc.;

iv. Some undesirable aspect (like bed-pans);

v. Work at irregular and unsocial hours;

vi. The routine making the job boring.

Of course, the combination of those, and other, resistances, would differ from person to person. However, these are the principal ones for this job and the results on the frequency tables were as follows: only 25.2% of the pupils declared that they disliked the fact that the job involves strict discipline, 14.2 percent were uncertain and 60.6 percent liked the discipline. 44.7 percent declared that they disliked the fact that heavy responsibility is involved, 26.7 percent were uncertain and 27.6 percent liked the responsibility; 39.9 percent declared that they disliked the fact that having to carry orders is

involved, 23.3 percent were uncertain and 36.7
percent did not mind carrying orders; 37.1
percent disliked certain aspects of the job,
34.4 percent were uncertain and 28.5 percent
did not dislike anything.

As for irregular and unsocial working hours,
38.2 percent declared that they disliked this
aspect, 28.8 percent were uncertain and 32.9
percent didn't mind it, and finally, 64.9
percent declared that the job involved routine
and was boring, 23.8 percent were uncertain and
11.3 percent disagreed with this routine aspect.

Therefore, discipline and heavy responsibility
did not seem to be major resistances; however,
the pupils were divided in connection with aspects
of the job related to carrying orders, unsocial
working hours and some other undesirable aspects.
But, the major resistance that showed up is
that the job was perceived as routine and
boring.

These findings strongly suggest that
the programme themes should reinforce existing
positions in connection with discipline and
responsibility, they should clarify further the
position in relation the necessity to carry
orders, and portray the other advantages of this
irregular working hour scheme. But, above all,
they should re-model the image of a Nursing job as
one which is relatively exciting and challenging,
different from day to day, and not routine and
boring as the pupils visualized it.

(4)   Medical Resistances Factor of Nursing Vocation

The items in this inventory were attempting to
measure fear or distate to specific aspects of
Medical Professions.

As the Table 8 (p360) shows, the majority of
pupils indicated that the specific items on
medical resistances did "bother them a lot".
The highest percentages were, "being in contact
with infectious diseases" (90.6 percent), "the
sound of people in pain" (85.7 percent), and
"seeing victims of an accident" (71.2 percent).

It can be argued that this is expected of every-
one who does not have direct contact with such
situations on a regular basis, and one gets
used to those medical aspects "with time".

However, it is obvious from those resistances
that, if something is to be "avoided" in the
programme themes and visual accompaniments,
it should be horrific sights of blood, accidents
and so on, as these might put off the target
audience outright.

SUMMARY OF THEME DEVELOPMENT

The television programmes should be directed not only to
the pupils (target audiences) but also to their parents,
brothers, sisters and other influential figures. The aim
is to present a remodelled image of the nursing job con-
sistent with the society's approved cultural norms and
traditions.

1.   The programmes should present the nursing job in a
      culturally and religiously approved role, yet
      relevant to the modern world. The themes should

avoid any aspect that conflicts with culturally approved moral and ethical standards. They should portray the womens' role in the respected educational sphere and emphasize the security of the job.

2. The advantages of the nursing job should be presented, especially as compared to other jobs. A job involving basic health knowledge of use not only at work but also for friends, family and in the home. Other advantages we should clarify are the position on career mobility, chances to go overseas for further education, and economic independence, but they should be carefully presented within an accepted cultural mode.

3. The programme should emphasize an humanitarian appeal of real-life incidents in our society. Horrific sights of blood and disasters should be avoided, but a low-threat in the message referring to the consequences of ignorance of basic health problems should be stirred.

4. The programmes should emphasize how this job was appreciated by religion and famous writers, the socially approved values of knowledge and education. Feelings of personal identity and status should be reinforced by the humanitarian appeals and the promise of a worthwhile job, and conveying meaning to life and existence in making others happy. The importance of friends and group integration should also be conveyed, together with the College atmosphere which is much respected in this society.

The majority of items measuring the image and attitudes of the respondents towards the topic showed a favourable position (as was discussed in the Job Resistances), so they should only be reinforced or remodelled. The aspects that should be examined further in the programmes are: explanations on career mobility; the irregular working hour scheme; subordination to superiors; and the fact that nursing is not a boring but challenging job.

TABLE 5

INFORMATION ABOUT NURSING

General Frequencies Before the Programmes

STATEMENT	ANSWER %		
	Correct	Don't Know	Wrong
Certificate required for Practical Nurse	17.1	27.1	55.7
Certificate required for General Nurse	30.1	31.8	38.2
Years of Training for Practical Nurse	22.9	22.7	49.4
No. of years of training for General Nurse	17.8	33.5	48.7
Vacation Period	49.8	27.2	23.9
Location of College	66.8	12.8	20.4
Stipend for Practical Nurse	20.0	34.5	45.5
Stipend for General Nurse	20.0	39.0	41.0
Transport Facilities	35.6	16.7	47.7
Hours of work per week	19.8	40.5	39.7
Starting salary for Practical Nurse	19.7	34.9	45.5
Starting salary for General Nurse	12.4	38.3	49.4

Note: The statements are abbreviations of original wordings of questions.

N = 2,810

TABLE 6

IMAGE OF NURSING

General Frequencies Before the Programme

STATEMENT	ANSWERS %		
	True	Not Sure	False
Requires good academic qualifications	69.7	12.2	18.2
Involves difficult training	64.5	16.4	19.2
Provides good opportunities for career mobility	37.8	31.3	30.9
Helps gain independence	82.7	10.4	6.9
Secure and sheltered	68.5	19.8	11.7
Provides good opportunities for socializing	79.6	10.2	10.2
Not socially prestigious	18.4	18.9	62.7
Rumoured to be a stepstone to marriage	10.1	20.7	69.2
Said that choosers are not dedicated	23.2	16.1	60.7

N = 2,860

Note: The statements are abbreviations of original wording of questions.

TABLE 7

ATTITUDE TOWARDS NURSING

General Frequencies Before the Programme

STATEMENT	ANSWERS %				
	strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	strongly disagree
Ideal job for life	29.2	28.8	23.0	14.8	4.2
Advantages several	40.7	39.7	13.4	4.9	1.3
Like the uniform	45.6	40.0	4.9	6.7	2.8
There are better jobs	17.4	26.7	26.4	19.6	9.9
Like discipline involved	25.4	35.2	14.2	17.8	7.4
Dislike responsib- ility aspect	14.7	30.0	26.7	20.8	6.8
Dislike carrying orders	13.7	26.3	23.3	26.6	10.1
Dislike certain other aspects	8.7	28.4	34.4	21.2	7.3
Dislike irregular working hours	12.4	25.7	28.8	23.0	9.9
Routine & Boring	24.2	40.7	23.8	8.5	2.8

NOTE: The statements are abbreviations
of original wordings of questions.

N = 2,7850

TABLE 8

MEDICAL RESISTANCES TO NURSING

General Frequencies Before the Programme

STATEMENT	ANSWERS %		
	Bothers me a lot	Bothers me a little	Does not bother me at all
Sight of blood	47.1	32.8	20.0
Smell of Anticeptic and Disinfectants	48.4	34.1	17.5
Ambulance siren	57.6	29.7	12.7
Sound of someone in pain	85.7	11.4	2.8
Hospital atmosphere	48.5	39.3	12.2
Sight of victims of Accident	71.2	20.8	8.0
Close contact with infectious diseases	90.6	7.7	1.8

N = 2,860

NOTE: The statements are abbreviations
         of the original questions

CHAPTER IX

ADMINISTRATING THE MAIN STUDY

A.   THE SCHOOLS (THE PRE-TESTS)

As discussed in the Section dealing with the Pilot Studies,
it was decided to approach all the potential female candi-
dates for the nursing vocation for the Main Study.

This involved:-

              Number of schools   : ˙16
              Number of classes   :   92
              Number of pupils   :3,226
(see page 268 for complete description)

Type and Location of Schools

All the sixteen schools   involved   were run by the Ministry
of Education. Three of the schools contained Secondary Class
pupils only and they were located in the main towns: two in
the Capital, Manama, and one in the second largest town,
Muharraq. They contained three Secondary Class levels (as
described in Chapter VIII).

Two of the schools contained a combination of Secondary and
Intermediate Class pupils. They were also located in the
main towns: one in the second largest town, Muharraq, and
the other in the third largest town, Issa Town.

Some of the eleven other schools were only made of Intermedi-
ate Class levels, while the others were a combination of
Intermediate and Primary Class levels. They were located
all over the island, five in the capital and its suburbs,

three in the second largest town, and the rest in the
other towns and villages.

It has to be explained here that most of the higher level
of schooling - that is, the Intermediate and Secondary Class
levels - are centralized, with the majority of the schools
found in the capital or major towns. However, primary level
schooling for both girls and boys is distributed in almost
every corner of the country.

The reasons for centralization are probably twofold:-

    1.   The capital is very densely populated and
            contains almost half of the population of
            the whole country;

    2.   The majority of the teachers prefer to live
            in the capital or the major towns.

Even more relevant is the fact that Bahrain is relatively
a very small country, and communication to and from one
area to another is not a serious problem. This fact - the
size of Bahrain - has to be kept in mind continuously.

Classroom Climate

The teaching system is formal, the pupils stay in their
classes while the teachers change for each specific subject.
Each class still has its own form teacher, responsible for
all the other problems of the class. There is also a lady
in each school responsible for all extra-curricular activities.
Those ladies were assigned to be the Supervisors for this
study in each school. (This will be further explained later).

Class Size

Because of the rapidly-growing number of children of school
age, the majority of the classes are quite large, especially
the lower levels of schooling. The mean number of pupils

in the Second Intermediate Class for that year (1977)
was 35, with a range of 31 - 56. The two largest classes
(55 and 56 pupils in each class) were in the village-town
of Sanabis, and this was the only school for girls in that
area. The mean number of pupils in the Secondary level
classes for the year 1977 was 29, with a range of 20 - 44.

Session Timing

Teaching starts at 7.45 a.m., each class session involving
45 minutes. The timing is as follows:-

7.45 a.m. - 10 a.m.	:	3 sessions
10.00 a.m. - 10.45 a.m.	:	mid morning break
10.45 a.m. - 12.30 p.m.	:	3 sessions

Questionnaire Administration

As there were 16 schools and 92 classes, it would have been
very difficult for the researcher to supervise each class
individually. However, the researcher wanted to ensure
maximum reliability in the answering of the questionnaires.
The agreement with the Ministry of Education ensured
excellent co-operation from the Headmistresses and class
teachers of the schools. In the discussion of the design
of the research (Chapter VII), it was argued that it would
be more desirable to have the whole research carried out in
the normal everyday surroundings of the pupils, and to avoid
uprooting them and putting them into a laboratory-type
situation, like an Examination Hall.

The decision to allow the class teachers to administer the
questionnaires was meant to help maximize the natural
surroundings versus introducing a stranger into the class
(the researcher). On the other hand, a lot of effort has
been made to make sure that no possible bias was created
by the pupils' fear that the teacher might read their

answers. As it was explained in the Pilot Studies, each
pupil had an individual code number - no names were
required - a statement emphasizing anonymity at the
beginning of each questionnaire, and all the questionnaires
after completion were sealed in front of the pupils before
leaving the class.

To ensure objectivity, it was also necessary to make sure
that the teachers did not help the pupils in any way, and
that the questionnaires were administered in a specific
manner.

So, before the questionnaires were distributed to the schools,
the researcher visited each school individually and had long
discussions with the Headmistressses and the class teachers
involved, plus the lady responsible for extra-curricular
activities. The researcher drew up two very detailed infor-
mation sheets to be discussed and given to each class
teacher concerning the procedure for administration.

To organize the administration of the questionnaires, it
was agreed that each Headmistress or extra-curricular
organizer of the school would introduce the study to each
class individually. (This, it was argued, would make the
pupils more conscious of the importance of the research).
Then, each class teacher would be responsible for distrib-
uting the questionnaires to her class, explaining the
instructions, giving examples and answering any relevant
questions.

On the completion of the work, she would collect the
questionnaires, put them in an envelope and seal them in
front of the class.

Although each teacher was presented with detailed sheets
of information about everything regarding the procedure
above, the researcher emphasized several times during those
meetings the importance of the objectivity of the research

for its success. The researcher explained that it was
necessary to follow the instructions to the letter, to
encourage the pupils to give their own points of view
and take their time in answering. The teachers were
referred to the several examples given in their instruc-
tions to avoid pitfalls when asked leading questions.
The whole version in its original Arabic form is attached
at the end of the thesis.

The instructions given to the teachers involved basically
the following points:-

1. An introduction to the research which was read to
    the pupils by the Headmistress of the school, or
    the extra-curricular organizer.
    The text introduced the researcher as a Bahraini
    Ph.D. student carrying out research in connection
    with women in our society. The research, it was
    explained, mainly involved 3 aspects:

    a) finding out our problems and ways to help
        our female pupils towards vocational guidance;

    b) finding out how our pupils use the media and
        their tastes, etc;

    c) finding out their personal points of view about
        womens role in our society, their schooling and
        work prospects.

It was emphasized that a lot of time and effort had
been put into preparing this study, and that the
researcher would be grateful if the questionnaires
were answered frankly and with care and interest.

It was explained that anyone interested in further
information could contact the researcher at a specific
telephone number - or talk to her when she came to
visit the school.

The teachers were asked to re-emphasize the importance

of answering the questionnaires carefully. They were
also asked to tell the pupils that, during the admini-
stration, the researcher would visit them individually
to ask for any specific interests or questions. Each
pupil was given a code number which she was asked to
keep in a safe place until the end of the research.
The teacher was asked to explain that this individual
code number ensured the anonymity of the pupil as no
names were involved, and this meant that the pupils
should state their frank opinions always.

2. The second sheet of instructions contained a "point-
by-point" description of the procedures required to
administer the questionnaires of the study. This
briefly involved instructions on how to enter the
pupil's individual code number, the school number and
the class number in the space allocated on each
questionnaire. It included reference to some printing
errors for correction, examples of the way to answer
each questionnaire and the different types of questions
involved.

3. There were further instructions to remind the teachers
not to give answers to the pupils, but to help them
(if necessary) by giving examples. They were asked
to emphasize that the pupils should attempt to answer
all the questions and to avoid leaving blanks. The
teachers were also alerted that the pupils might
find that they did not know the answer to a number of
questions in the Information questionnaire. The
teachers were cautioned to avoid answering those
questions, but to ask the pupils to guess the most
reasonable answer, otherwise to tick the "don't know"
category.

The teachers were advised to try to keep the atmosphere
during administering those questionnaires quiet and
relaxed, and to discourage the pupils from discussing

the answers with their neighbouring friends.
As discovered during the Pilot Studies, some
pupils take a much longer time to complete
an individual questionnaire than others. The
teachers were advised to find a way to keep
those pupils busy while the others quietly
completed their papers. Before collecting
the completed questionnaires, the teachers
were asked to remind the pupils to check that
they had filled in their own number, plus the
school and class numbers. Then the pupils
were told to retain their code numbered cards
for future tests. The teacher was also asked
not to forget to seal the envelopes provided,
with the completed questionnaires inside, in
front of the class.

The Pilot Studies played a major role in determining
how those instructions were organized, and how to avoid
problems and pitfalls. Utmost care has been taken to
make the questionnaires easy in relation to content,
language and readability, as well as interesting in the
way the questions were presented. Besides, the order of
presentation of the questionnaires was done in such a
way that no two boring questionnaires followed each other.
The first questionnaire to be given out was the one on
womens' role; as this was a subject of interest to the
pupils, it was hoped that this introduction would spark
off the interest for the rest of the study. The last
questionnaire given out was the one on general background
information. The reason for keeping it to the end was to
avoid possibly antagonizing some pupils at the start of
the study with requests for personal information.

Date and Timing for Presentation of Questionnaires

It would have been ideal if a whole day had been allocated
to answering all the questionnaires. Primarily, this would
have overcome the problem of absenteeism. As each question-
naire took approximately 30 minutes to be answered by the
younger pupils in the Pilot Studies, there would have been
plenty of time to answer the questionnaires (eight in number)
and have breaks in between.

Initially, permission was asked from the Ministry of Education
to have such a day allocated, as this would present an ideal
situation. However, the Ministry did not show much enthusiasm
for the idea, and emphasized that the final decision should
be referred to each Headmistress and school to suit their
individual schedules.

The discussions with the Headmistresses and teachers of the
schools also showed little enthusiasm about a whole-day
allocation. The Headmistresses of the Intermediate Class
pupils argued that the pupils might become bored, tired
and less enthusiastic with time. Therefore, giving them
the questionnaires over a number of consecutive days might
produce better results. The Headmistresses of the Second-
ary Class pupils were strongly against a one-day project.
They argued that the pupils of those classes were in their
final year of schooling and their examinations for the
General Secondary Education were at the end of June: there-
fore, they were under a very tight time-schedule - it would
be more advisable to fit the questionnaires into four con-
secutive days during school subjects which could be missed.
Although this argument would mean 'absenteeism', the
researcher had to agree to the arrangements proposed by
the school staff involved. However, the researcher wanted
to avoid interaction among the pupils of a specific school
regarding questionnaires given to one class, and not yet
to another. Therefore, agreement was reached with the Head-
mistresses to have the same questionnaires given out either
before or after the mid-morning break for all the classes
of one specific school.

Absenteeism

As the questionnaires were not all answered on the same
day, obviously there was some absenteeism and some pupils
did not answer all the questionnaires. However, as the
number of pupils to start with was quite large, this did
not create any major problems.

School Visits

The researcher did manage to visit each of the 92 classes
individually and introduce herself, and enquire as to whether
or not the pupils had any questions, comments etc. They
were also thanked personally for their help and co-operation.
The researcher also asked the pupils to contact her if they
were interested in the research and needed more information.
The teachers later commented that this personal contact
increased the interest of the pupils in the study.

Comments

The researcher got together with all the class teachers,
extra-curricular organizer and Headmistress of each school
after the completion of the questionnaires and asked if there
were any comments - for example, about boredom, fatigue,
difficulty etc. The teachers of the classes said that,
because this was the first thing of its type done by the
pupils in school, the majority of the Intermediate Class
pupils showed great interest and enthusiasm; the teachers
saw a number of pupils go over their questionnaires check-
ing them in case they had missed anything, with obvious
concern. Some of the pupils enjoyed answering the questionn-
aires so much that they asked if there were any more!
Some teachers said that a few of the pupils, to start with,
were worried in case this was a test, but when the teachers
explained that in the majority of questions there was not

necessarily a right or wong answer, but their opinion of
what was right or wrong etc., their fears subsided.

The teachers explained that the Intermediate Class pupils
asked no specific questions about the researcher herself,
but the Secondary Class pupils did. Some were also concerned
about their tight schedules, and it took some persuasion
to convince them that the questionnaires were, for them, a
change from serious book-work, and it provided one of the
few chances they would have to express their frank opinions.

When the researcher visited those classes, some of the pupils
asked for information about vocational guidance, and some
said they would be interested to know the results.

The working atmosphere as a whole was relaxed (especially
at the Intermediate Class level). The Headmistresses, extra-
curricular organizers and teachers were all extremely help-
ful, and the general reaction from the pupils regarding the
study was one of curiousity and interest.

Questionnaire Checking

At the completion of the questionnaires, the researcher
collected the 25,808 questionnaires from the 16 schools.
Together with four volunteers, they were all re-checked
in relation to the completion of the subjects' number,
class and school. They were then taken to the Statistics
Department (computer services) to be transferred onto
punch cards.

B.   THE TELEVISION PROGRAMMES

The main objective in designing the television programmes
was to produce programmes about nursing that were realistic
yet interesting, and at the same time reflecting true
culture-bound situations. It was intended to avoid the
dull, documentary type of programmes, and to avoid the
blatant propaganda-type message.

After a lot of thinking, it was decided to ask the student
nurses in the Nursing School to write "short essays"
telling the reader why and how they became nurses. No names
were requested, so the students were encouraged to be very
frank and open. Within one week I received 23 short essays,
some written in Arabic and some in English. It was sur-
prising how useful those essays were, and it was some of
those life stories that were made into the television
programmes.

The majority of the essays seemed to revolve around four
types of situations:-

1.   Accidents:
     They mainly involved a family member or friend,
     e.g. road accidents (very common in Bahrain); a
     family member suddenly taken ill and dying in
     hospital, or being saved; a pregnant friend pre-
     maturely in labour, etc.

     The questions the students asked themselves
     in such situations were mainly of two types:

     a) SAVING LIFE - what could I have done
                     - how could I have helped
         They continued that they found in nursing a
         way to help save life, not only in hospitals
         but at home, on the road, in schools, in
         industries; they can help children, neighbours,
         friends, etc.

b) WANTING TO KNOW - why did a specific person die?
                     - why was it too late?
                     - why is there lack of trust in
                       the doctors we have, and fear
                       of the hospitals?
                     - why do we have hereditary diseases?

2. Incidents:
    A childhood experience in the hospital and a nurse's
    help.

    A film or book initiating childhood interest.

    Living near a hospital - impressed by nurses passing
    by.

    Having relatives or friends in nursing and wanting to
    be with them.

    Impressed by the interaction of doctors and nurses.

3. Opportunity
    Wanting to become a doctor, being unsuccessful and
    subsequently joining nursing.

    Last choice, wasn't accepted anywhere else.

    Wanting a chance to go abroad for further education,
    having a cousin who got this chance through nursing.

4. Justification for joining
    Psychological satisfaction - "All jobs are tiring,
    but some are worthwhile and give meaning to life,
    as opposed to those who revolved around self and
    material interest only."

    Country needs nurses - joined to help save country
    and people.

Those were the main reasons for joining nursing. The majority
of the students declared that they faced resistance at home
and that they found the first year of training very difficult
and laborious, specifically the English language and the

medical aspect.

Some stated that they learned self-reliance and patience, and that they found nursing was not a machine-like job but needed understanding of patients' needs, personalities, etc. Some stated that a nurse had to be a teacher, a social worker and a friend.

From the above essays, four incidents were found interesting as they had a dramatic appeal, and at the same time were true and could convey the message integrated with a lot of information.

A script of the suggested stories was drawn up, designed to integrate the relevant information and the themes as discussed in the development of programme themes (page 324). A summary of the findings from the pre-tests was also prepared, taken from the same section, and all were presented to the supervisor and producer. , pointing out what should be emphasized or avoided, and the 'overall idea' of how the programme should be done.

In April 1976, one year before the field study was carried out, permission was sought from the Ministry of Information to broadcast such a programme. In October 1976, arrangements were finalized, a supervisor was assigned for this programme, and the time assigned was as follows:

    March 1977 - design the programmes
    April 1977 - put the programmes on the air.

The researcher kept to the schedule only to find that (due to an overload and backlog of work, the supervisor explained) the programmes could not be completed and put on the air before June 1977. As the Ministry of Education's deadline for post-testing (administering the final questionnaire) was May 5th 1977, and the schools actually closed on June 3rd, this would have meant a total loss of effort and money on

the pre-testing work for that year. An emergency meeting
with the Minister of Information was the only way to get
the programmes started.

The atmosphere of work on the programmes was therefore un-
easy, and under immense pressure from the start. It took
a lot of explanation and persuasion to make the atmosphere
relaxed, although the pressure of working in the television
studios was there all through.

Discussion of the programmes eventually took place. The
producer (an Egyptian), supervisor (British), and the
researcher spent several sessions discussing the researcher's
findings and suggestions for programme design, taking into
account:

1. A deadline to adhere to;
2. Limited material means;
3. Limited technical facilities;
4. No professional actors or actresses available;
5. Adhering to the researcher's findings and
   suggestions on the themes.

The Final Decision

1) To make five 10 to 15 minute programmes to be put
   on the air once a week, over a period of five weeks,
   each having a different story but revolving around
   the same theme; the last programme would be a
   finalé.

   It was agreed that the programmes should be relatively
   short, yet frequent thus avoiding boredom and attracting
   further viewing.

   The researcher wanted the programmes to be broadcast
   just before the daily Arabic serial broadcast at 7 p.m.
   every evening and which attracted over 90% of the

target audience. Having the programmes before,
rather than after, the daily series was meant to
avoid the problem of 'closure' as discussed on
pages 193-194.

However, the issue of peak-hour presentation was
not agreed upon and remained undecided at this
stage.

2) The first four stories would be dramatizations of the
chosen essays written by the student nurses. The last
programme would be an interview with some Bahraini
nurses who had just come back from studying abroad,
and therefore had experience of a lot of upward
mobility in their careers. It was agreed that, as
the interviews went on, extracts from the previous
programmes would be shown in the background.

The fact that the four stories were true would be
emphasized. However, the message would be conveyed
in the story with no specific reference to the fact
that this programme was intended as a recruitment
campaign.

The message would also be conveyed through an
emotional appeal, but at the same time a reasoned
analysis of the problems as well as relevant
information would be included.

A low-fear threat would also be conveyed in the
message. The threat would reflect the fact that
what those stories said could happen to any of us.
However, it was agreed to avoid horror views of
blood or accidents as dicussed in the previous chapter.

The last programme would contain the presentation of
facts and information, but the extracts of the films
in the background would add some emotional flavour to
the message.

Each story would correspond to one true social
problem, and would show how nursing can provide
an answer to it.

3) Presentation:

The programmes were called "The Merciful Hearts",
which sounds much more dramatic in Arabic than it
does in English! Several other titles were considered:
"The Lady with the White Robe" was one possibility,
but it was dropped because there was another Egyptian
series with a similar title, and nurses could be
males as well. "The Angels of Mercy" was also con-
sidered, but it was dropped as it was too familiar
a cliché, and not original.

The format for the four stories was agreed to be the
same.

a) The beginning: a saying taken from an Arabic
    writer about a nurse;

b) The middle: the story of that nurse;

c) The ending: a verse from the Holy Qura'an linked
    to the theme of the story.

The visual accompaniments of each section were left
to the producer to create. It was emphasized that
the beginning (at least) should be attention-catching
to create interest in the programmes, and as they were
short, it was hoped that there was less fear of their
being abandoned half-way.

The ideal way of producing those programmes was not
feasible because there were no professional actors or
actresses in Bahrain. Those who could take part
in the programmes had to be ordinary people. After
a great deal of argument, it was decided to ask the
student nurses who had written the chosen essays to
act their parts.

Actually, "acting" was out of the question. There was
no time to train those girls, and as we did not want an
artificial presentation (which is common for local pro-
grammes) we had to think of another way of presenting
the programmes.

The girls who wrote the stories were approached, but
only one (after a lot of persuasion) agreed to act her
part. Although it was explained to the girls that the
programmes were rather conservative, they declined,
and we had to depend on other volunteer student nurses
who agreed to take part.

Although this final group was not ideal,(looks etc.), they
were representative of Bahraini society.

The researcher and producer agreed that the best way
to present   the programmes and yet avoid artificial
situations was to have the nurse involved in the story
do her usual work in a specific hospital ward - the
Nursing School or College; the Maternity Hospital or
the village clinic - while the story is being narrated
in the background. This became the basic format for
the programmes.

At first, it was decided that the student nurses should
also narrate the stories themselves, but as the nurses'
voices and presentation was not good enough, it was
agreed to allow Bahraini female news broadcasters to
narrate the stories as their presentation was good.

Although the design of the programmes was agreed upon, the
scripts finalized, the nurses to take part in the films con-
tacted, and permission from the Hospital Authorities for
filming received, several difficulties were still encountered
when filming.

Some of the problems faced were due to technical shortcomings,
punctuality of workers, other emergency Government projects,

and so on. It would not be feasible to explain here the
problems faced, which are typical of most developing
countries. However, those difficulties meant that the
schedule for the five films designed could not be com-
pleted before the deadline. We had to improvise. It
was agreed that three programmes could be completed,
two 15-minute programmes and the final programme of 30-
minutes. Because of the problems faced, special permission
was granted to broadcast these programmes during peak-time
viewing. Last-minute reorganization had to take place to
transfer the information distributed over the five pro-
grammes to the three chosen ones. The design, format and
major themes were kept as before, only the extra
information included in the two stories on the village
clinic, maternity and eye hopital had to be added to the
other programmes so the only losses were two interesting
stories. However, there was no alternative at this stage
and within the means and time available, this was the best
that could be done.

THE GENERAL PROGRAMMES' CONTENT

(A complete version of the original scripts as produced in
Arabic is attached at end of thesis.Although the films were
in colour, the stills presented at the end of this Section
are in black and white.)

Title: "THE MERCIFUL HEARTS"

Programme 1:   "The Accident"

The Visual Accompaniment	The Recorded and Natural Sounds
Shot of a student nurse passing through the beautiful hospital gardens (see still 1)	The Arab writer's selected saying about a nurse (in a deep, slow, echoey voice)*
Close up to nurse's face entering childrens' ward	The story begins. The student nurse narrates her story as if remembering...
Shots of the childrens' ward, the children, the toys, the colourful walls, the total surr-oundings.	The story was about a pupil who had a good job at a bank and was generally contented. She relates how fate trans-formed her life as a result of a car accident to her youngest brother. She relates in detail how the accident happened and how she was involved. She explains how not being able to help save her brother at the site of the accident and her later experiences with
Shots of the Nurse at work: *- Talking to patients while tidying beds* *- Helping doctor check a little frightened and*	him in the childrens' ward had reversed her attitude towards work completely. Her job never meant the same to her again. She questioned her own usefulness, the meaningfulness of life and job satisfaction, etc.

crying child (see *Still 2)* *- Feeding children* *- Soothing children* *(see stills 3 & 7)* *- Reading comics to child* *(see still 3)* *- Checking plasma infusion* *(see still 4)* *Shot of childrens' smiling* *faces*	She explains how she left her job and joined the College of Health and Sciences, and after graduation, specialised in Pædiatrics. (Here a lot of step-by-step information of how she joined and what she did was included).
	Her last words were how useful she felt (now), not only at work, but everywhere and always, and how good it felt to bring back the smile to every child's face...
Nurse pushing a paralyzed *child in a pushchair* *along hospital balcony* *(see still 6)*	Qura'an verses in a deep, slow, echoey voice.

Note:
All through the recorded story there were intermittent live sound of children cry-ing, laughing, asking questions; a nurse talking, telling story; doctors talking and other hospital sounds. There was no music in the background, so there were some quiet moments.

General content of Arab writer's saying:
He explains (in rhetoric Arabic prose) that if he could give all he owned to the Lady in White, he could not repay her for her care and love . . . she brought him hope and solicitude . . . she reawakened his trust in life . . . how rare it is to find someone who gives, and doesn't expect much in return . . .

Programme 2:   "What happened in our Home?"

The Visual Accompaniment	The Recorded and Natural Sounds
Shot of the same nurse as in Prog. 1 passing through the hospital gardens. (There were no close-ups so it was only a symbol representing the theme)	The Arab writer's selected saying about a nurse (same text as in Programme 1)
Shot of nurse giving an old man a glass of water for the pills in the Surgical ward (see Still 8)	Live sounds
Nurse taking patient's pulse while he talks of his problems. (see Still 9)	Live sounds
Close up of nurse's face.	The story begins. The student narrates her story while looking at the man kindly as if remembering....she explains how she came to choose nursing. She talks of how her "father" died during an operation. The doctor explained how he could have
Intermittent shots of nurses working in the ward, the old man talking and the nurse's face.	been saved, had the family been aware of the seriousness of his condition and brought him for treatment earlier. The state of fear, distrust, disappointment, lack of knowledge, and helplessness bothered her ever since. When her mother's grief led to her falling ill too, she used all her powers of persuasion to help overcome her mother's fear and distrust of hospitals. With her mother in hospital, she had the chance to get in contact with those working there, and this

Programme 2:   "What happened in our Home?"

The Visual Accompaniment	The Recorded and Natural Sounds
Shot of the same nurse as in Prog. 1 passing through the hospital gardens. (There were no close-ups so it was only a symbol representing the theme)	The Arab writer's selected saying about a nurse (same text as in Programme 1)
Shot of nurse giving an old man a glass of water for the pills in the Surgical ward (see Still 8)	Live sounds
Nurse taking patient's pulse while he talks of his problems. (see Still 9)	Live sounds
Close up of nurse's face.	The story begins. The student narrates her story while looking at the man kindly as if remembering....she explains how she came to choose nursing. She talks of how her "father" died during an operation.
Intermittent shots of nurses working in the ward, the old man talking and the nurse's face.	The doctor explained how he could have been saved, had the family been aware of the seriousness of his condition and brought him for treatment earlier. The state of fear, distrust, disappointment, lack of knowledge, and helplessness bothered her ever since. When her mother's grief led to her falling ill too, she used all her powers of persuasion to help overcome her mother's fear and distrust of hospitals. With her mother in hospital, she had the chance to get in contact with those working there, and this

helped form her decision to join nursing. She explains how she realized it was hard work, but she would rather do this than live in a state of ignorance and helplessness.

Shots of College buildings and interior.	She relates how she joined the College of Health Sciences.
Shot of class in session (see still 10)	She explains how she was impressed by the amount of information she was gaining. (Life sounds of Class in session).
Shot of language laboratory (see still 12)	A chance to learn English. (Live sound of tape in laboratory).
Shot of coffee room, nurses socializing (see still 11)	Made some of her best friends. (Live sound of nurses chatting).
Shot of College Library (see still 13)	Curiosity led to more and more seeking of information...... Last words - "How wonderful it is to know...."
Back to nurse helping fatherly old man in hospital (see stills 8 & 9)	Qura'an verses. (This programme included music in background).

Programme 3:   The Interview

(A popular Bahraini female broadcaster was chosen to carry out this interview).

The Visual Accompaniment	The Recorded and Natural Sounds
Shot of the same nurse as in Progs. 1 & 2 passing through the hospital gardens. (There were no close-ups, so it was only a symbol representing the theme)	The Arab writer's selected saying about a nurse (same text as in Programmes 1 and 2)
Selected shots from the previous two programmes	The broadcaster introduces this interview as the last in the series "The Merciful Hearts", relating that the first two programmes in the series were true stories that actually happened to the nurses involved. She explains that the programmes were directed to our young generation and parents to make them aware of some of the problems of our society, and more specifically to direct their attention to the humanitarian, academic and cultural aspects of the nurses' job. She then described briefly the aspects of the job dealt with in the programmes and adds that there are still several questions that would arise about nursing .
Camera directed to broad-caster and nurses	She then introduces the four nurses who were going to deal with those questions and explains that they are four out of the ten nurses who have just arrived from a training course overseas.

Intermittant shots from previous programmes as related to topic discussed

She then starts questioning the nurses. The interview revolved around the information, attitude and image questions as presented in the question-naires of the study. Information questions, like academic and training requirements, vacation period, etc. Attitude questions like the necessity for the discipline involved in the job, how to cope with the irregular working hours and whether the job involved a boring routine. Image questions like the social prestige of the job, social-ization opportunities and security. . .

Ended the interview by asking the nurses of their adventures overseas.

(There was music in the background at the beginning and end of programme)

As it was explained earlier, the series "The Merciful Hearts" was initially intended to cover five programmes. Although the last two programmes were not completed on time for this study, it is interesting to note the stories chosen for those last two programmes.

Programme 4 was the true story of a village where there was an emergency maternity case. It was intended to stress the necessity for midwives, especially residents of remote villages, and work at village clinics.

Programme 5 was the true story of a school-girl who spent quite some time in the hospital suffering from an eye ailment. The loving care of a nurse helped her recovery. It was intended to show the diverse fields of specialization available and other aspects of nurses' work, lives and personalities.

Stills Taken From The T.V. Programmes

"The Merciful Hearts"
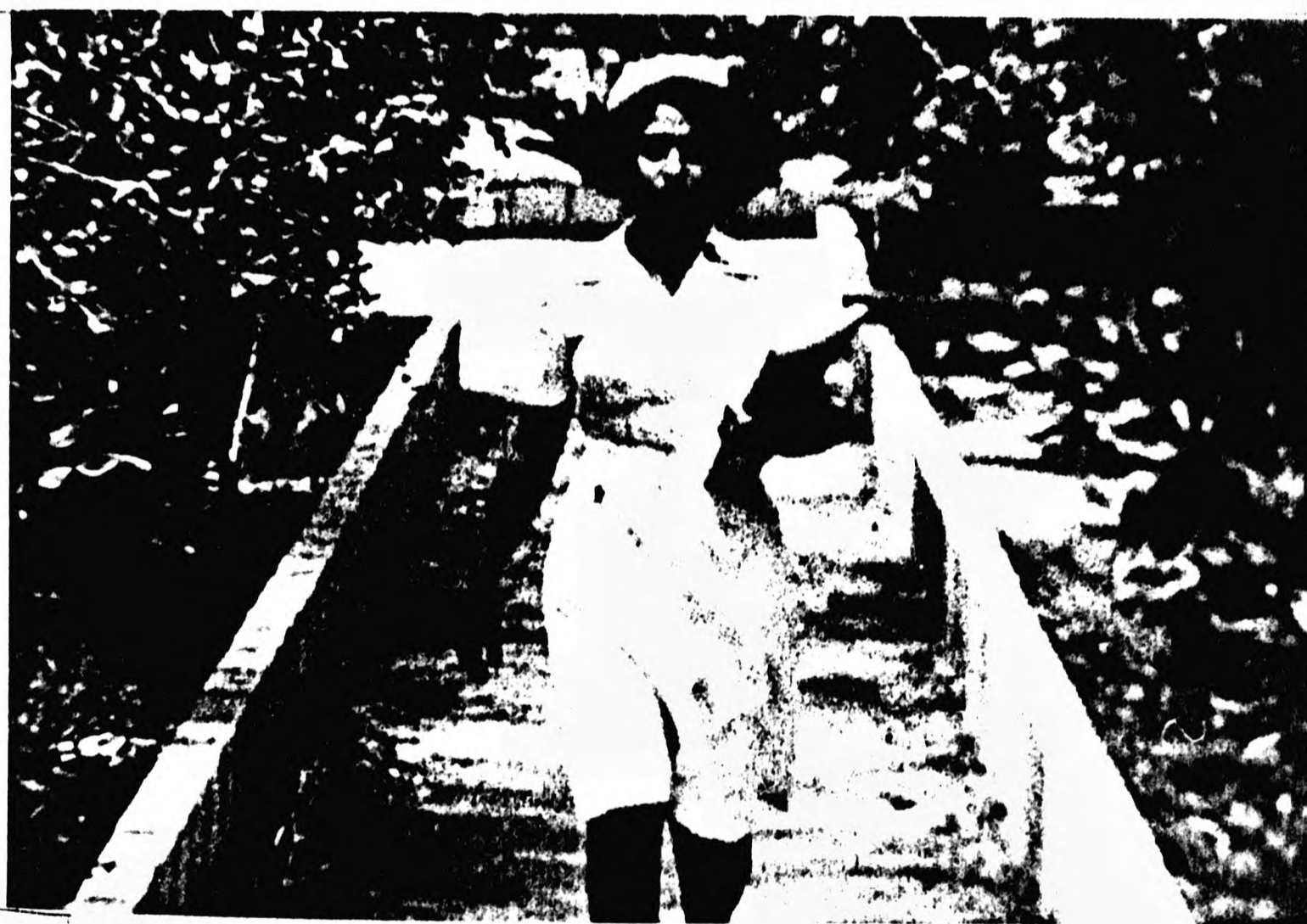
Still 1

Stills Taken From The T.V. Programmes

"The Merciful Hearts"

Still 1

Still 2

Still 3

Still 2

Still 3

Still 4
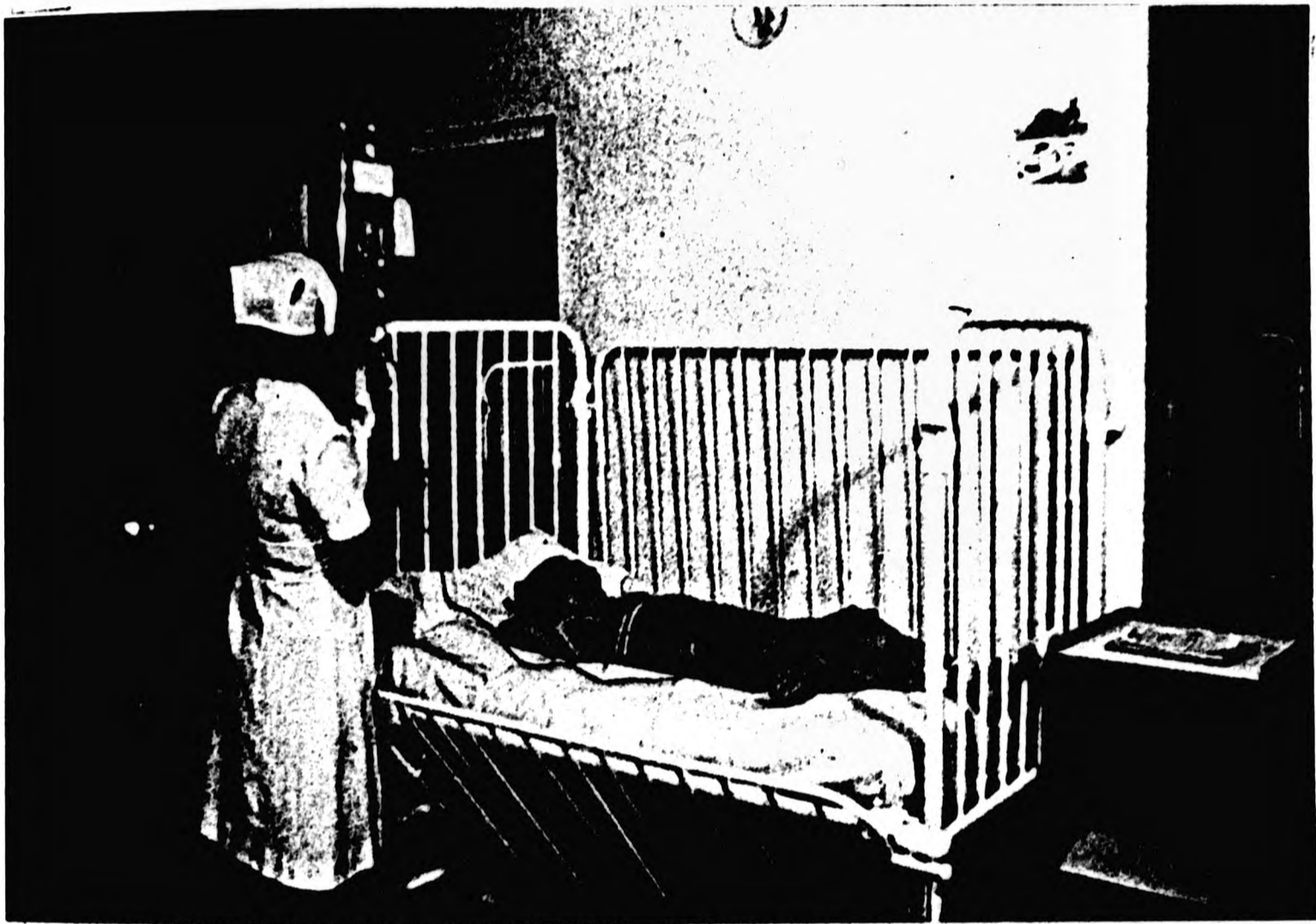
Still 5

Still 4
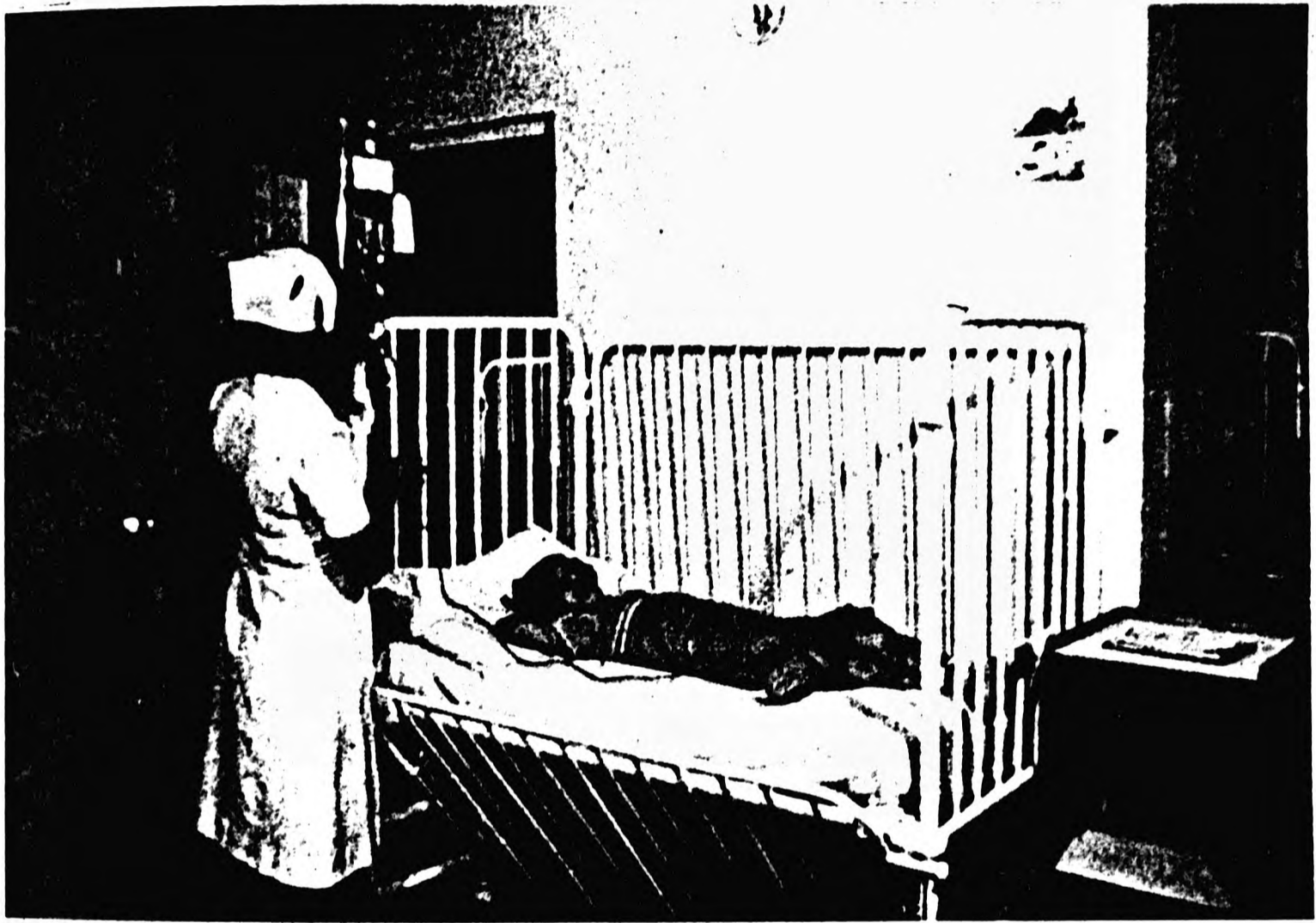
Still 5

Still 6

Still 7

Still 6

Still 7

Still 8

Still 9
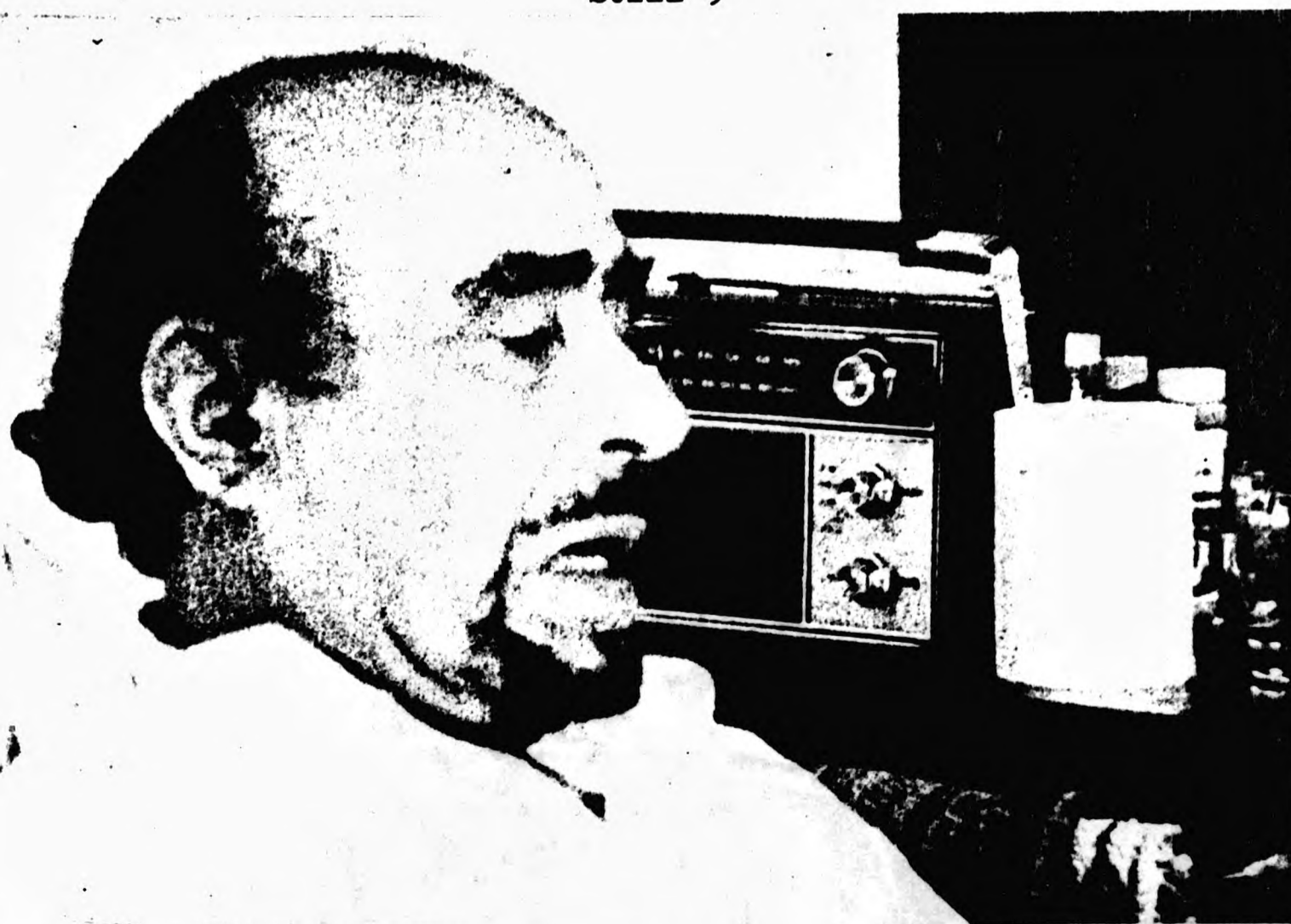
Still 8

Still 9

Still 10

Still 11

Still 10

Still 11

Still 12

Still 13

Still 12

Still 13

C   THE PANEL STUDY

The main results of the effectiveness of the television pro-
grammes in relation to the main sample are discussed in the
following Chapter.

However, a panel study was carried out concurrently with the
presentation of each programme to obtain some informal "feed-
back" in connection with each of the programmes, and to check
that they were conveying the intended message.

It was very difficult to decide who would be the subjects for
this study. It was agreed that no attempt would be made to
approach the target population, as they were all assigned to
the main experimental study. On the other hand, the subjects
chosen had to be very similar to the target population if they
were to represent the same views. It was finally decided to
choose two classes in one of the largest schools. The school
chosen contained a combination of town and non-town pupils,
and it had a diverse combination of class levels and a large
playground. It was hoped that interaction between these
subjects and the target population would be minimal. Ideally,
it would have been preferable to choose a school where none
of the target population were tested. However, although
three such schools existed, the specific catchment areas of
those schools meant that their pupils were not representative
(very rich and very poor).

The levels of the classes chosen was another problem. However,
as explained in the preliminary studies, it was more appropri-
ate under such circumstances to choose a class of a lower
level. This would at least show whether the programmes had
been understood. So two class levels, a first intermediate
class and a second secondary class, were chosen (both one
level below that of the target audience).

The pupils in those two classes were approached by the researcher and it was explained to them that they were chosen to act as "critics" of some television programmes that were going to be put on the air soon. All they had to do was to view the programmes assigned, and encourage their family to view as well, and the researcher would then meet them after each programme during school breaks and ask about their points of view. It was emphasized that the interviews were not tests. They were meant to help the interviewer to find out what these programmes conveyed, and how they understood the message.

The researcher explained that she would sit in a specific place in the school playground during breaks and after school, and the pupils would come in groups and discuss the programmes.

Initially, 49 pupils were supposed to be interviewed, but in all only 27 showed up.

Although we lost almost half the intended subjects, we intentionally avoided forcing answers from those who did not want to give their points of view, as they might not have seen the programmes and might just make up answers. The sole intention of those interviews was an informal discussion to find out the pupils' subjective reactions to the programmes.

The reactions from those who did see the programmes were very interesting and useful. The interview generally involved such questions as: what they thought each programme was trying to say, whether the contents were informative and interesting, whether the idea was original and the production entertaining and well presented, whether the actresses and presenter performed well. They were also asked what aspects they thought could be added to make the programmes more effective. At the end of the series, they were asked which programme they liked most, their families' points of view, and what aspects of the

programmes were most effective and why. All the interviews were taped, but the researcher also had prepared forms on which important points were jotted down.

The researcher inverviewed the pupils the day directly following the airing of each television programme. The programmes were broadcast on three consecutive weeks (one each week). Therefore, the pupils were interviewed three times before the final post-tests were given to the target population.

Results

Of the 27 pupils who took part in the Panel Study, 11 were secondary level and 16 were intermediate level. Around half of each group saw all the programmes (5 secondary and 7 intermediate), and half of the rest saw 2 programmes (3 secondary and 5 intermediate). The rest saw only one programme.

Strictly, in a panel study, the same subjects should be interviewed at several points in time. Although the initial intention of this Study was to test the same 49 designated pupils three times, only 12 pupils were seen three times, while another 8 pupils twice.

Programme 1: The Accident
Understanding of Message - Generally the message seemed to be perceived the way it was intended to be. The programme was said to portray a humanitarian job and how to help those in need; how the medical people work inside the hospital; how a nurse helps patients and children. An example of some of the answers shows that the message was understood exactly as intended.

"This accident is a fact from our society and what we should do about it";
"A pupil's choice of humanitarian instead of material job";

"Need to know how to act in emergencies, save life, and
bring back hope to people".

One intermediate pupil said: "... makes us appreciate
nursing and to tell people to drive slowly"!!

It was generally agreed that the contents of the programme
were informative and interesting. One pupil explained that
she was so much affected by the girl's story that she did
not concentrate on the information provided through the story.

They all said that the idea was very original. The overall
presentation of the programme was said to be good, especially
the beginning with the nurse in the garden, and the saying
about the nurse - and the end, when the nurse was pushing
the child in the pushchair with the Qura'an verses being
recited in the background.

Specific Criticisms

    a)   No background music;

    b)   Girl's story sometimes not co-ordinated with
           the visual presentation;

    c)   The presenter telling the story: her voice
           and way of presentation was criticised by some.

However, some others said they liked the presenter's voice
and the story, and they thought that the fact that there was
no background music was very effective.

They all agreed that the programme was interesting, enter-
taining and emotionally effective.

The criticisms and points of view put forward were given to
the producer so as to be taken into account in the prepara-
tion of following programmes. This was possible because,
while the filming and sound recording of the programmes was
completed, the final editing and montage was left until a
few days before broadcasting in order to wait for the feed-
back and criticisms from this Panel Study and some of the
audience who wrote to the studio.

Programme 2:   What happened to our home?

Understanding of Message:-   Generally, the message seemed
to be received as intended.

Some of the answers were:

"The programme shows us a way to overcome our ignorance
of illnesses";
"...to know medically what is happening";
"...one answer to all our worries about medical problems";
"...learned a lot about the Nursing School and the College
of Health Sciences";
"..shows what ignorance can do".

As the producer did take into account the criticisms from the
previous programme while preparing this one, there were no
criticisms in connection with this programme.

The programme was said to be very informative, especially in
relation to the School of Nursing and the College facilities,
College life, etc. The story was also said to be very touch-
ing and emotionally effective.

Some pupils said they had not previously realized that such a
high level of education was required. As explained earlier,
the education aspect of the appeal was intended to impress
the father, brothers and families of the potential candidate.

It was expected that this modified image of the nurse might
increase the pupils' fear of the hard work involved, but it
would reflect one of this society's respected values:
education. Moreover, the Nursing School wanted pupils of
a better academic calibre.

Programme 4:   The Interviews

Understanding of Message: Some of the answers were:
   "...information about nursing";
   "...showed a chance to go abroad to learn, and later
   help society";
   "...answers many things I didn't know before";
   "...puts forward future possibilities and progress for
   nurse";
   "...realizes opportunities for a nurse";
   "...makes one proud to be a nurse";
   "...seeing those nurses actually encouraged me to join
   nursing".

There were no specific criticisms about production and present-
ation. The general comments were that the interviews were
interesting, as the nurses were humorous and attractive, and
they liked them.

Comparative Discussion of the Programmes

Those who saw two to three programmes (mainly the "stories")
were later asked which they liked most.

Interestingly, although "The Accident" was criticized for its
production, the majority of 14 out of 20 said they liked it
best, perhaps because of its strong emotional appeal. How-
ever, when asked which programme their families liked best,
"What happened to our home?" was most popular with the
fathers and brothers, while "The Accident" was again best
liked by mothers; the sisters were divided between both
programmes. (The reason why the fathers and brothers liked
programme 2 is probably because it emphasized the high edu-
cational and college prestige aspect of nursing.)

The interviews in Programme 3 were said to be enjoyed mainly
for their informative aspects and because of the nurses
themselves.

When asked whether they thought the programmes affected their families' views about nursing:

> 2 said they didn't know;
>
> 3 said their parents were not strict and wouldn't resist such a vocation;
>
> 13 said they thought their parents would definitely stop resisting nursing after those programmes;
>
> 2 said their parents did have a wrong view about nursing before;
>
> 1 said that her mother claimed that she realized such a job truly needs 'merciful hearts';
>
> 1 said her parents said that the programmes show nursing as an honourable and decent job.

When asked what aspect of the programmes was most effective:

> 9 said the Qura'an verses;
>
> 18 said the humanitarian, yet true, story appeal;
>
> 3 said the information about the job;
>
> 2 said all aspects were effective.

When asked the reason for their choice of any specific aspect, some answers were as follows:

Qura'an verses -

"...God told us in his book to serve humanity";

"...they prove that nursing is a humanitarian job";

"...shows us that humanitarian work is a duty put by God to the people";

"...Qura'an supports love of humanity and choice of humanitarian job";

"...I like to do anything the Qura'an supports as it shows you the right way";

"...shows us we should help others as nurses or other job".

Humanitarian true story appeal:

> "...feel doing something for my society as those are true stories from our society";

> "...gives us encouragement to join nursing";

> "...shows us what a noble job the nurse does in our society";

> "...gives us an unconcious feeling of happiness and satisfaction in doing such a job";

> "...shows us the sacrifice and noble aspect of the nurses' job";

Information aspect:

> "...explains things I did not know before";

> "...explains things I did not like before";

> "...shows the future prospects and possibilities for a nurse".

When asked whether they would have preferred a foreign programme about nursing, some of their answers were as follows:-

> "...the language is always a major problem in a foreign film";

> "...the foreign programmes, although some are very nice, like 'Angels', do not reflect the true problems of our society";

> "...there are some things the foreign nurses do which do not convey a nice image in our society";

> "...my parents say that they liked the programmes because they were true facts from our society, and provided useful information";

> "...wish nursing was taught in Arabic!";

> "...why don't we have Bahraini programmes about nursing, like foreign films - for example 'Angels'?"

A series like 'Angels' designed for our society problems would have been the ideal way of getting through to the pupils. However, as it was explained in Section B, the facilities available were not sufficient to start such a series then.

D.   THE POST-TESTS

Briefly the questionnaire contained the following questions
and tests:-

     i.   individual questions measuring "modernity";

    ii.   question on job choice;

   iii.   information scale about teacher and nurse;

    iv.   attitude scale about teacher and nurse;

     v.   image scale about teacher and nurse;

    vi.   questions enquiring: whether they saw the
          television programmes and how many.

The translated final version of this questionnaire is presented
in Appendix F.

Six questions were put at the beginning of the questionnaire,
five of them are Inkles & Smith (1974) mini-modernity scale
and one enquiring which mass medium is trusted most.

As these were a new and different type of question, they were
intentionally left to be put at the beginning of the post-
tests questionnaire for the following reasons:

    a)   to draw the attention and interest of the
         pupils;

    b)   to distract the pupils from the true purpose
         of the questionnaire.

Moreover, it was also intended to find out whether those modern-
ity items were related to "change" in the dependent variables.
In other words, whether having a "modern vs. traditional"
outlook (as measured by those items) and trusting television,
are predictors of change in attitudes.

The dependent variables: information, attitude, image and job
choice contained most of the questions that were asked in

the pre-tests.

There was a two and a half month lapse of time between the
pre-tests and post-tests, and the dependent variables in
the pre-tests were buried in with a lot of other questions.
It was thus hoped that this questionnaire would not feel
very familiar. Besides, a number of things were done to make
this questionnaire feel different:

    a.   The questionnaires were printed on pink and
        yellow paper and not white, like the pre-tests.

    b.   The questions in the beginning were new and
        different.

    c.   The items of the image scale were put in
        question form.

    d.   The general design of the questionnaires was
        slightly different.

The main intention of this questionnaire was to find out
whether there was a change in the dependent variables as a
result of the television programmes. Although this aim was
basically fulfilled, there were a number of other interesting
questions that were initially intended to be included in the
post-tests but had to be left out. The administration of
the post-test was delayed to the latest possible deadline as
a result of the problems faced in broadcasting the television
programmes described earlier.

The class teachers wanted to use the pupils' spare time in
revision for the exams which were at the end of the following
month. Therefore, they were not in favour of several questionn-
aires that involved several class sessions.

Therefore, it was decided to condense the post-tests to only
one questionnaire concentrating on the most important dependent
variables. Some of the tests that would have been interesting

to measure both before and after the television programmes had to be removed. The main loss was that of having to drop out the question on the Rank Ordering of jobs in accordance with their social prestige. This test, if measured again after the programmes would have added another evaluative dimension of the effectiveness of the television programmes. This was especially of importance as one aspect of the nursing job was that of comparison in social prestige to other jobs. Although the question on job choice was also intended to show whether nursing held its ground as compared to other jobs, the measure of prestige ranking would have presented further evidence.

We also had to drop the questions on the jobs of air-hostess and secretary, which had been planned as controls (measures of unintended effects) from before to after the programmes. The questions on the teachers' job were retained to measure the unintended effects, but the original intention was to use all three. The idea of using different jobs as controls on different questionnaires was considered, but then it was decided that, as the teachers' job was the highest in prestige if nothing changed in relation to this job, then there would probably be no change for the others.

It was also initially thought relevant to find out whether the programmes had any effect on the measures of cultural resistances (womens' role) and medical resistances. To find out whether the television programmes changed the pupils' traditional or progressive position on womens' role and whether they decreased their distaste of hospital-related aspects would have been interesting. However, the programmes were not specifically directed to change those aspects, so these measures were left out from the post-tests.

Still, the questionnaire was short, precise and measured the most important dependent variables as related to this study.

Questionnaire Administration

Directly after the showing of the third television programme, the post-test questionnaires were distributed to the schools, to be administered to the pupils.

One of the major worries at this point was to have different subjects answering to a specific subject code number. This could happen if the subjects forgot or lost their personal code numbers of the pre-tests.

To avoid such a mistake, all the questionnaires were pre-numbered with the subjects' code numbers, class and school numbers. Only the headmistress or extra-curricular activities representatives had a list of the names and subjects' code numbers. So the final questionnaires were distributed to each class by either one of those ladies so that each subject received her correct personal code as in the pre-tests. The headmistresses and extra-curricular representatives were asked to destroy the lists in front of the pupils after the distrubution. The class teachers who supervised the filling of the questionnaires were also asked to seal the envelopes containing the completed questionnaires in front of the pupils to be collected by the researcher.

There were no major problems in administering the final questionnaire. It seemed that the pupils by then were used to answering questionnaires and the maximum time used to complete the questionnaire was one hour; the majority completed it in 45 minutes.

One major disappointment at this stage resulted in the loss of around 600 subjects. The researcher was not informed before-hand that, in May, there was a considerable amount of absenteeism (only from the secondary class level) due to preparations for exams.

The biggest worry for the researcher was that this absenteeism might create a bias in the results. A discussion with the

headmistresses and class teachers showed that this absenteeism
was totally random.   Some pupils showed up one day and not
the next.

The date for this final questionnaire had been set by then,
and changing it would have created a lot of other problems.
So it was decided to make use of what was available.

CHAPTER X

RESULTS OF THE MAIN STUDY

Introduction.

The Chapter has been organized into the following sections:

A. SCALE CONSTRUCTION ANALYSIS: A study of the factor structure of the items in the measurement scales.

B. GENERAL IMPACT ANALYSIS:
   (a) An overall analysis of the effectiveness of the television programmes on attitudes, information, image and intention to join Nursing.
   (b) An analysis of the comparability of the control and experimental groups on the pre-test dependent variable measure.

C. THE CONTROL STUDIES: An analysis of the extra-tests of control built into the design.

D. INDIVIDUAL VARIABLE ANALYSIS: An item by item analysis of the effectiveness of the television programmes on attitudes, information and image.

E. COMPARABILITY STUDIES: An analysis of the comparability of the control and experimental groups on the demographic variables; communication and topic related variables and other related variables.

F. PREDICTIVE ANALYSIS:
   (a) A study of the relationship of the measured variables to "change" in the dependent variables.
   (b) A study of the relationship of the dependent and other variables measured to the choice of Nursing.

Tables of the overall Frequencies of all the items in each questionnaire (except for the dependent variable questionnaires) are presented in Appendices A-F. The majority of those results have been discussed in the previous chapters.

The Dependent Variables: A Review

As these scales will be referred to constantly in the
forthcoming sections, a brief review will help in their
understanding.

1.   ATTITUDE TO NURSING SCALES

Final Versions:

(a)   Factor 1:   Disadvantages Factor: 6 items
(b)   Factor 2·   Advantages Factor: 4 items

The scale was based on a 5 point Likert scale recorded
so that the higher the score, the more favourable is
the attitude to Nursing.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Strongly ⟶ Disagree ⟶ Uncertain ⟶ Agree ⟶ Strongly
Disagree   Agree

Not Favourable   Favourable
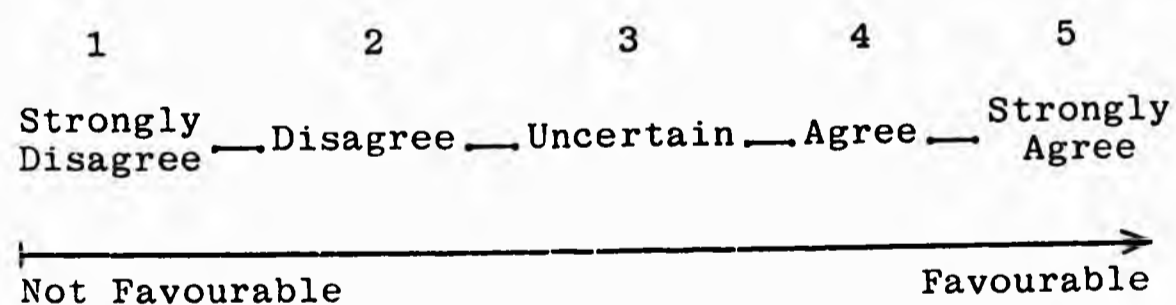
2.   INFORMATION ABOUT NURSING SCALE

Final Version: 9 items

Multiple-choice questions with one correct answer, and
a "don't know" category.

Amount of Information

0 ⟶ 9
Lowest   Highest
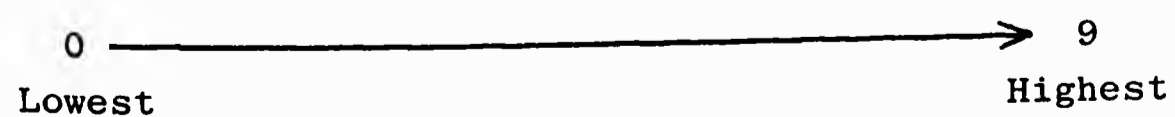
3. IMAGE OF NURSING SCALE

Final version: Factor 1:   7 items
The scale was based on a 3 point scale as to whether
the statement was True, Not True or Not Sure. The
scale was recorded so that the higher the score, the
more favourable the image.

```
        1               2           3
   Not True———————Not Sure————————True
```

Not favourable   Favourable
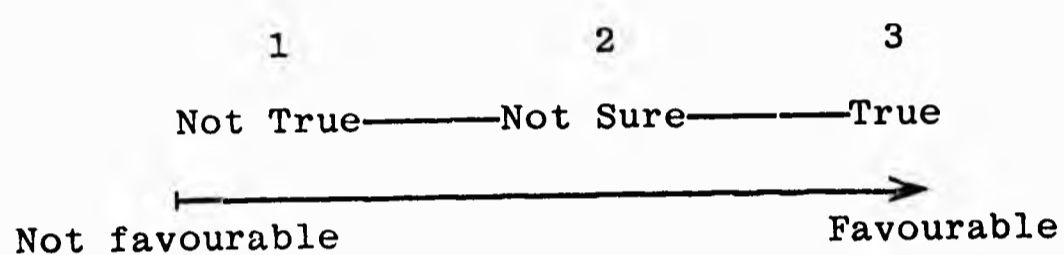
4. THE JOB INTENTION VARIABLE

Percentages of the subjects planning to join Nursing
(as a job) both before and after the television pro-
grammes were measured and presented. (Those percentages
are presented as compared to 15 other jobs, a "won't work"
and "Don't know" category.

A description of all the Independent variables can be
found in Chapter VIII, Section C, and also in the Final
Card Layout in Appendices G-I, M & N.

The Number of Subjects

2131 subjects completed most of the items on the scales both
before and after the programmes. It is important to clarify
here that the numbers of the subjects might be different on
different measures; this is mostly due to incomplete
questionnaires (missing items)or absenteeism either before or
after the programmes. The procedure followed for missing
values was:-

      i.   where there was a missing value on a specific
           item in a scale, the whole subject's response

was deleted as each item had to be added to
make a whole response.

ii.   when the subject's response on a scale was
missing (due to absenteeism) either before or
after the programmes, the total subject's
response was deleted as well.

Although this procedure might be argued to reduce the numbers
considerably, it was decided (to start with) not to alter the
results in any way (like, for example, to put the "mean" of a
response in the place of the missing value). As the numbers of
subjects who had complete responses were still quite large,
the decision to stick to the original results was adopted.

A Review of the General Design of the Study

Pre-testing

↓

| 3 Television Programmes |

↓

Post-testing

|

Control   Experimental 1   Experimental 2
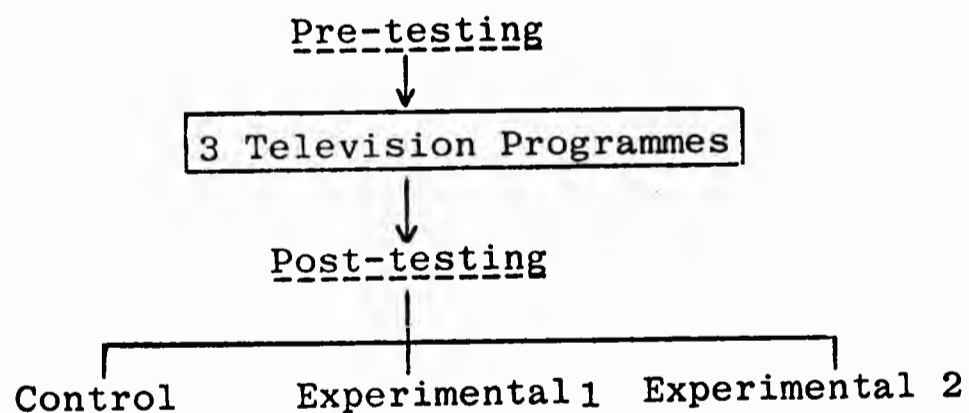
The Groups: As a result of selective viewing in a completely
naturalistic setting, of 3 television programmes put on the
air, two experimental groups and one control group were
delineated.

Control Group: - Subjects who saw none of the televised
                        programmes.   N - 308
Experimental Group 1 - Subjects who saw only ONE of the
                        televised programmes   N - 534
Experimental Group 2 - Subjects who saw two or three of the
                        televised programmes   N - 1,289.

A.   SCALE CONSTRUCTION ANALYSIS

A description of how the battery of tests under study was
constructed can be found in the Pilot Study chapter. How-
ever, when factor analysis was applied to some of the relevant
scales then(to find out what items to retain and to have a
general idea of the overall structure of the factors involved)
the results were considered cautiously for two main reasons:-

1. Although the pupils chosen for the pilot study were
    quite similar to the final target audience, they were
    not exactly the same.

2. The total number of subjects (104) was not large enough
    to draw general conclusions.

Therefore, in the main study, factor analysis was applied
again to the same scales: attitude, social image, cultural
resistances and medical resistances. As the analysis was
administered on the entire sample of pupils, it was hoped
that the eventual matrices would produce more structured
results of the factors involved.

Factor analysis was carried only on the items designed to
measure attitudes to Nursing, the image of Nursing, the
cultural resistances and the medical resistances, as they
were intended to be used as multiple-item scales for inter-
pretation. It was not thought necessary for this study to do
factor analyses on the other variables intended to be used
as single-item measures.

Description of Procedure

Factor Analysis was applied to the items chosen after the
Pilot Studies to measure the attitude and image towards
nursing as well as the attitudes towards womens' role
(cultural resistances) and medical resistances. The primary
concern was to discover and extract common factors.

The final tables interpreted were based on orthogonal
rotation: varimax rotated factor structure after rotation
with Kaiser normalization.

Kaiser's criterion was used to extract factors (Child, 1970).
All factors having latent roots of one and above were consid-
ered as common factors to start with.

The criterion chosen for determining significant loadings
was the one suggested by Child (1970). All the loadings
equal or greater than $\pm$ .30 were considered to start with.
Child explained that this suggestion is not based on any
mathematical proposition except that it represents roughly
10% of the variance. This is actually a very rigorous level
for analysis. Burt and Banks (1952) devised a formula for
tests of significance in factor analysis which accounts for
adjustments in relation to the number of variables, the factor
under consideration, as well as the sample size.

Burt-Banks formula is:-

$$
\begin{array}{c}
\text{standard error} \\
\text{of a} \\
\text{loading}
\end{array}
=
\begin{array}{c}
\text{standard error} \\
\text{of a} \\
\text{correlation}
\end{array}
\left(\sqrt{\dfrac{n}{n + 1 - r}} \right)
$$

when n = the number of variables in the analysis
and r = the factor number.

The table for significance levels for Pearson Product Moment
Correlation coefficient shows that, for a sample size of
500, the values of correlations required to be significant
at the 1% level is .115. Although our sample is much larger -
over 500 - we are going to use this level for demonstration.

Using Burt-Banks formula for this study:

$$
\begin{array}{c}
\text{standard error} \\
\text{of a} \\
\text{loading}
\end{array}
=
.115 \left(\sqrt{\dfrac{10}{10 + 1 - 1}} \right)
$$

Therefore for factor 1, the standard error of a loading should be .115 and above to be considered significant at the 1% level.

However, for factor 2:-

$$\text{standard error of a loading} = .115 \left(\sqrt{\frac{10}{10 + 1 - 2}} \right)$$

$$- \text{ditto} - = .115 \ (1.054)$$

$$\text{therefore standard error of a loading} = .121$$

These calculations do show that taking a $\pm$.30 as a significant loading is being very conservative for this study having a sample size of over 500.

Attitude-to-Nursing Scale

The principal factor matrix (before rotation) showed that
all the attitude items chosen fell into two factors only.
The first factor had an eigen value of 1.5 and accounted
for 12.8% of the variance. The second factor had an eigen
value of 0.82 and accounted for 6.8% of the variance.

Although the second factor is below the eigen value of one
suggested by Kaiser as the minimum base for keeping a factor,
it was kept for further analysis as no other factors were
extracted.

Looking at table 9, page 415,(the Factor Matrix after
Rotation), we find that for factor one, 7 out of the 12
items included qualify for consideration at the first glance,
as they have loadings of $\pm$ .30 and above. They have been
presented in descending order of magnitude to simplify
interpretation. All the 7 items   have positive signs on
factor one and negative signs on factor two. All the 7
items ,   except item 11,have low (non-significant) loadings
on factor two.which is expected of orthogonal rotated factors:
it makes interpretation simple. Item 11, "choose when found
no other job", is not as clear cut as the other items
with the lowest loading on factor one and a relatively high,
though non-significant, loading of .23 on factor two.

Looking at factor two, 4 out of the 12   items   qualify for
consideration. All the 4 items   have positive signs on
factor two and negative signs on factor one, and all of them
have low (non-significant) loadings on factor one.

Item 12 had very low loadings on both factors one and two,
and therefore it was not considered as part of the factors
in later analysis.

A speculation about the labelling of those factors brings forth
two possibilities. In the pilot studies it was explained that

the items were chosen on the basis of ones accounting for general attitude and the others profile attitude. Looking at the individual items on factor one and two, it is difficult to draw a line between what is general and what is specific. There are general and profile attitude dimensions on both factors.

If we look at another angle, all the items in factor one have negative attitude connotations (if agreed with), and all the items in factor two have positive attitude connotations. Moreover, all the items have negative signs on one factor, and positive on the other. Therefore, the factors can also be labelled as dislike/like, or a factor of disadvantages and a factor of advantages.

TABLE 9

VARIMAX ANALYSIS OF ATTITUDE ITEMS (ORTHOGONAL)

	Rotated Factor Loadings	
Item	1	2
1. Dislike irregular working hours	.53	-.07
2. Dislike the responsibility involved	.49	-.01
3. There are better jobs!	.43	-.17
4. It is routine and boring	.40	-.16
5. Dislike having to carry out orders	.40	-.03
6. Dislike certain aspects	.37	.03
7. Advantages are several	-.10	.53
8. Like the discipline in the job	-.00	.51
9. Like the uniform	-.03	.47
10. Ideal job for life	-.05	.40
11. Choose when found no other job.	.34	-.24
12. Like the fact that no decision-making is involved.	.17	-.08

N = 1,934

Image-of-Nursing Scale

The principal factor matrix (before rotation) showed that all
the image items chosen fell into 3 factors. The first factor
had an eigen value of 1.31 and accounted for 13.1% of the
variance. The second factor had an eigen value of 0.21 and
accounted for 2.1% of the variance, while the third factor
had an eigen value of 0.19 and accounted for 1.9% of the
variance. Factors 2 and 3 have eigen values that are too
low to consider seriously, therefore only factor 1 was kept
for further analysis.

Looking at Table 10, page 417,(the Factor Matrix After
Rotations), we find that for factor one, 6 out of the 10 items
included qualify for consideration, as they have loadings
of $\pm$ .30 and above.

Although item 7 has a loading of 0.28, it was decided to
include it since, as explained earlier, we are being very
conservative in taking $\pm$ .30 as the minimum level of signifi-
cance with our very large sample. Moreover, this item adds
an important aspect to this factor.

All the items on factor one, except for items 1 and 2, are
"just significant". All except item 2 have non-significant
loadings on factor two.

The items chosen from the pilot study were those reflecting
social aspects of the job, job characteristics and rewards,
as well as some personal characteristics of choosers. It
seems that factor one congregated all those aspects into
one factor. So this factor can be speculated to reflect a
general image factor, and is the only one retained. However,
it is interesting to note that factor two seems to have
grouped up the job characteristics only, as its significant
loadings revolve around items 2, 8 and 9, which involved
career mobility, academic qualifications and training.

Factor three has one significant loading only, "requires a nice personality". It accounts for unique variance reflecting a personal characteristic of the job chooser.

TABLE 10

VARIMAX ANALYSIS OF IMAGE ITEMS (ORTHOGONAL)

Item	Rotated Factor Loadings		
	1	2	3
1. It is socially prestigious	.47	.04	.04
2. Provides good career mobility	.38	.37	.06
3. Secure and sheltered job	.31	.19	.19
4. Choosers are not dedicated	.31	.19	.22
5. Rumoured to be a step-stone to marriage	.31	.13	.08
6. Helps achieve independence	.30	.12	.18
7. Provides opportunity for socializing	.29	.04	.16
8. Requires good academic qualifications	.04	.35	.10
9. Involves difficult training	.09	.35	.09
10. Requires a nice personality	.15	.08	.42
			N = 2,008

Cultural Resistances (Womens' Role) Scale

The principal factor matrix (before rotation) showed that
all the items chosen fell into 4 factors. Only factors
one and two qualify for consideration, as they have eigen
values of 2.1 and 1.9, and account for 13.1% of the variance
and 6.9% of the variance.

Looking at Table 11, page 420, (the Factor Matrix After
Rotation), we find that for factor one, 7 out of the 16 items
have loadings of $\pm$ .30 and above. All those items have non-
significant loadings on factor two and, while they are all
positive in sign on factor one, they have negative signs on factors
two & four. All the items in this factor, except items 5
and 7, refer in general to the fact that womens' place is in
the home, put in different ways. Item 5 adds the dimension
of "learning " what is useful to the home, while·item 7 is
different altogether in that it refers to women's intelligence
as less than that of men!

Looking at factor two, four items show significant loadings,
items 8, 9, 10 and 11. All the items in general refer to
womens' choice to be "outside the home" whether for educa-
tion, using talents or work.

Speculating on labels for factors one and two, one can say
that factor one shows a trend towards a "traditional outlook"
towards womens' role (if agreed with), while factor two
shows a more "progressive outlook" (if agreed with). It is
interesting to note that item 10: "women should choose a
secure and sheltered job", although it does not seem pro-
gressive from a western point of view, for the majority (not
all) of the girls in this society, simply choosing a job
and working reflects a progressive outlook. Two items were
dropped from this table: items 15 and 16 which refer to
"womens' right to freedom of choice" and "marriage shouldn't
be approached for security only". They both had very low
loadings on all the factors.

In the Pilot study, it was explained how the items were
chosen to account for several aspects of women's role.
The traditional one, importance of education, right to
work, economic independence, contribution to society
besides the home. . .   The analysis here seems to show
that factors 1 and 2 seemed to combine the majority of
those aspects in two general factors, one emphasizing the
traditional aspect, the second the progressive one.

Although factors 3 and 4 are not significant, it is inter-
esting to note that factor 3 had 2 items with significant
loadings, items 12, 13: "Husband should share housework"
and "women should be economically independent".   Those
items (in this society) reflect an even more progressive
outlook towards women's role than factor 2.   However,
factor four has only one significant variable, item 14,
accounting for unique variance.

TABLE 11

VARIMAX ANALYSIS OF CULTURAL RESISTANCES
ITEMS (ORTHOGONAL)

Item	Rotated Factor Loadings			
	1	2	3	4
1. Housework is womens' real work	.54	-.08	.14	.19
2. Womens' role is to marry and get children	.55	.13	.11	-.16
3. Girls getting married should leave work	.63	-.03	.11	.21
4. If husband is well off, the woman should not work	.54	.02	-.04	.18
5. Women should learn only what is useful to home	.48	.17	-.04	-.08
6. Womens' place is in the home	.45	-.04	-.08	.14
7. Women are less intelligent than men	.37	.08	.06	-.01
8. Further education is beneficial to women	.05	.44	.09	.05
9. Women should use their talents outside the home	.03	.46	.17	.07
10. Women should choose a secure and sheltered job	.00	.41	-.22	-.06
11. Women should marry only after graduation	.04	.34	.29	-.01
12. Husband should share housework	.04	.14	.33	.14
13. Women should be economically independent	-.03	.16	.44	.07
14. Women capable of housework and work	.11	.21	.19	.42
	N = 2,659			

Medical Resistances Scale

The principal factor matrix (before rotation) showed that
all the items chosen fell into 3 factors. Factor one has
an eigen value of 1.68 and accounts for 14% of the variance
and will therefore be retained. Factors two and three had
eigen values of 0.72 and 0.32 below the baseline for signi-
ficance and will not be considered for further analysis.

Looking at Table 12, page 422(Factor Matrix After Rotation),
we find that for factor one, 6 out of the 12 items have
loadings of $\pm$.30 and above. Item 7, "thoughts of death",
although it does not reach significance, it is quite close.
All the items   have non-significant loadings on factor
two. However, item 6, which has the lowest significant
loading on factor one, has a loading of 0.21 (relatively
high but not significant) on factor two, a rather ambiguous
item!

Although factors two and three are not significant, it is
interesting to note that in factor two, 3 items   reach
significant, items 8, 9 and 10. While in factor three there
are two significant loadings, "illnesses" and "infectious
diseases."

Factor one seems to include items   that refer to hospital
related aspects in general, while factor two refers to an
active aspect of the hospital atmosphere. On the other hand
it is simpler to label the first factor as one reflecting
disadvantages of hospital atmosphere, while factor two can
be the advantages.

TABLE 12

VARIMAX ANALYSIS OF MEDICAL RESISTANCES ITEMS
(ORTHOGONAL)

| | Rotated Factor Loadings | | |
Items	1	2	3
1. Sight of blood	.49	.14	.04
2. Sight of victims of and accident	.46	.03	.10
3. Ambulance siren	.45	.05	.10
4. Smell of disinfectants	.38	.17	.04
5. Sound of pain	.36	.05	.19
6. Hospital atmosphere	.31	.21	.07
7. Thoughts of death	.28	-.01	.21
8. Working with doctor	.08	.55	.08
9. Working with dentist	.05	.72	.02
10. Administering injections	.25	.33	.00
11. Illnesses	.08	.05	.34
12. Infectious diseases	.09	.03	.49
		N = 2,647	

B. GENERAL IMPACT ANALYSIS   (a) An overall analysis....

To start with, a general overall analysis of the impact
of the television programmes on the attitudes, information,
image and intentions of all the subjects measured was
carried out. More detailed item-by-item analysis of the
scales and the comparative effectiveness of the programmes
on specific aspects, such as age, socio-economic status,
etc., are described later.

Two types of tests of significance were used to assess the
overall impact of the programme.

   i. Oneway Analysis of Variance on the "change scores"

     The aim was to find out whether there was a significant
     difference between the "change" scores of the three
     groups: control, experimental one and experimental
     two, from before to after the programme.

     Hypothesis:
        For the "change" scores of all the dependent
        variables:-

$$H_1 \; : \; C < E_1 < E_2$$

     Although the use of "change" scores in any analysis has
     to be approached carefully,* it was found necessary to
     use them here as other means of analysis were not feasible.

     Ideally, the most appropriate test of significance for
     the available data would have been The Multivariate
     Analysis of Variance on Repeated Measures. However,
     the computer programme which dealt with this test on
     "unequal numbers" was not available on the SPSS manual
     being used then. It was being produced at another
     college at the time of this analysis and as this was in

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* A discussion of the problems of change scores is presented at the end
  of the Chapter.

the preliminary stages, it was not yet reliable to use.

The analysis of variance on "change" scores would tell us whether there was a significant difference between the groups. What about the "differences" in position from before to after the programmes for each group individually?

Therefore, as a back up to the one-way analysis of variance, another test of significance was used - keeping in mind that the same subjects answered the before and after questions.

ii. Student's t-test for paired observations (also called the correlated t-test).

The aim was to find whether there was a significant difference between the scores on the dependent variables from before to after the television programmes for each group individually.

Ideally, the results should show "no" significant difference in the paired scores of the control group from before to after the programmes. The experimental groups should show a significant difference with experimental group 2 (who saw 2-3 programmes) showing the largest difference. However, as this campaign was carried in a complete naturalistic setting whereby the control group was not isolated from the other groups (like in a laboratory situation) the hypothesis set was a bit more practical.

It was hypothesized that there should be a larger positive and significant shift in the paired scores from before to after the programmes of the experimental groups than the control. As the subjects of experimental group one saw only one of the programmes,

it was hypothesized that the shift in their scores
from before to after the programmes should be more
positive than the control group, but less than
experimental group two, who saw 2 - 3 programmes.

1.   ATTITUDE CHANGE

The attitude toward the Nursing job (as measured by items in
this study) was expected to show a significantly larger positive
"change" (from before to after the programmes) in the experi-
mental groups than in the control group.

The attitude was measured on the basis of two factors -
factor one: the disadvantages attitude;
factor two: the advantages attitudes as explained in the
previous section.

The "change" score for each individual was first calculated
by adding the subject's responses on all the items of the
scale before the programmes, and then after the programmes.
The change score consisted of the subject's score after the
programmes minus her score before. The mean change score for
each group was then calculated, based on the individual change
scores of the subjects in that group. The single item scores
were not multiplied by their factor loadings because (as Table
9 shows) the loadings for each factor did not differ greatly
from item to item.

To find out whether there was a significant difference in the
"change" scores of the three groups, the one-way analysis of
variance was applied on the attitude change scores of each
factor individually. Table 13 presents the results for the
disadvantages factor.

TABLE 13

One way Analysis of Variance comparing the 3 groups' "change"
score on the Attitude (Disadvantages) factor.

Source	DF	SS	MS	F ratio	Prob
Between group	2	332.6108	166.3054	8.6851	
Within groups	1806	34581.8768	19.1483		<.001
Total	1808	34914.4876			

Group	N	Mean change	STD Dev	STD Error
Control	255	.4392	4.3130	.2701
Experimental 1	457	1.4179	4.2805	.2002
Experimental 2	1097	1.7056	4.4293	.1337

The table shows that there is a significant difference in the
mean "change" scores of the three groups at the p<.001 level.
Moreover, this difference was in the direction hypothesized:-

$$C < E_1 < E_2$$

Table 14 shows the results for the attitude advantages factor.

TABLE 14.

One way Analysis of Variance comparing the 3 groups' "change"
scores on the Attitude (Advantages) Factor.

Source	DF	SS	MS	F ratio	Prob
Between Groups	2	169.3791	84.6895	10.6421	
Within Groups	1806	14372.0936	7.9580		<.001
Total	1808	14541.4726			

Group	N	Mean Change	STD Dev.	STD Error
Control	255	- .0431	2.7881	.1746
Experimental 1	457	.4158	2.7827	.1302
Experimental 2	1097	.8104	2.8443	.0859

The table shows that there is a significant difference in the
mean "change" scores of the 3 groups at the p<.001 level.
The difference was also in the hypothesized direction:

$$C < E_1 < E_2$$

It is also interesting to note that there was a "negative"
mean change score for the control group, which means that

their attitude actually shifted more against Nursing.
However, both experimental groups one and two showed a
positive change in attitudes.

The results above show that our hypothesis that there should
be a significantly larger change in the attitudes of the
experimental groups than the control group, whereby:

$$C < E_1 < E_2$$

did hold.

To find out whethere there was a significant difference in the
paired scores of the subjects from before to after the programmes
for each group individually, the Student's t-test was applied.
Table 15 presents the results for the disadvantages attitude
factor.

TABLE 15

t-test on Attitude (Disadvantages) score before and after the
programmes for each group.

Groups	Attitude Score	Mean	Standard Dev'tion	Mean Diff'nce	St'd Dev'tion	t-value	DF	2 tail Prob.
Control N = 255	Before	17.1804	3.553	.4392	4.313	1.63	254	>.1
	After	17.6196	3.495					
Experi. 1 N = 457	Before	16.5711	3.460	1.4179	4.281	7.08	456	<.001
	After	17.9891	3.664					
Experi. 2 N = 1097	Before	16.5889	3.533	1.7056	4.429	12.75	1096	<.001
	After	18.2944	3.721					

The table above shows that there was a significant positive
shift from before to after the programmes in the experimental
groups (p<.001). However, there was no significant shift of

the control group from before to after the programmes which reflects the ideal situation. Besides, although both experimental groups showed a significant positive shift, the shift for experimental group two was larger than experimental group on, as hypothesized.

Table 16 shows the results for the advantages factor.

TABLE 16

t-test on Attitude (Advantages) score Before and After the programmes for each group.

Groups	General Attitude Score	Mean	Standard Dev'tion	Mean Diff'ence	Stan'd Dev	t-value	DF	2-tail Prob.
Control N = 255	Before	15.5059	2.677	-.0431	2.788	-.25	254	>.1
	After	15.4627	2.425					
Experi. 1 N = 457	Before	15.5842	2.733	.4158	2.783	3.19	456	<.001
	After	16.000	2.281					
Experi. 2 N = 1097	Before	15.7284	2.649	.8104	2.844	9.44	1096	<.001
	After	16.5387	2.352					

The table above shows that the control group showed a negative but "non-significant" shift in attitude from before to after the programmes. However, both experimental groups showed a positive significant shift in attitudes with experimental group two showing a larger positive shift than experimental group one, as hypothesized.

The results from the tables above strongly suggest that the television programmes did promote a positive shift in attitudes towards Nursing from before to after the programme. This is

especially relevant as the control group showed a non-significant
change on both attitude factors. Moreover, the change scores
across the 3 groups were significantly different at the $p<.001$
level for both factors and in the hypothesized direction:
$C<E_1<E_2$.

2. INFORMATION GAIN

The information level about the Nursing job (as measured by
items in this study) should show a significantly larger increase
(from before to after the programmes) in the experimental groups
than in the control group.

The mean "correct" information score here was calculated by
adding all the correct answers on the information items, a total
out of 9. This was done for each individual, both before and
then after the programmes. The change score was calculated by
subtracting the score before from the score after. The mean
change score for each group was then calculated, based on the
individual change score of the subjects in that group. (This
was done to show us, in general, the overall informational
effectiveness of the programmes. An item by item analysis
is described in the following sections.)

To find out whether this increase in information level from before
to after the programmes was significantly different among the three
groups, a one-way analysis of variance was applied to the mean
change scores of the correct information. As table 17 indicates,
there was a significant difference among the three groups
($p <.001$), in the hypothesized direction: $C <E_1 < E_2$.

TABLE 17

One way Analysis of Variance comparing the 3 groups' "change" scores on the Information "Correct" scale.

Source	DF	SS	MS	F ratio	Prob.
Between Groups	2	69.3050	34.6525	7.490	<.001
Within Groups	1858	8596.4897	4.6267		
Total	1860	8665.7947			

Group	N .	Mean	STD Dev.	STD Error
Control	266	.4850	1.964	.120
Experimental 1	468	.5214	2.003	.093
Experimental 2	1127	.9024	2.250	.067

Therefore, our alternate hypothesis stands. The television programmes could be said to have caused a significant increase in the information level of the experimental groups as compared to the control, with the experimental group which viewed a larger number of programmes E_2 showing a higher level of information increase.

On applying the Student's t-test for paired observations to the data (each group separately), the results were as follows:

TABLE 18

t-test on "Correct" Information score Before and After the
programmes for each group.

Groups	Information Answer	Mean	Standard Dev.	Mean Diff'ce	Standard Dev	t-value	DF	2-tail probability
Control N = 266	Correct Before	2.0113	1.531	.4850	1.964	4.03	265	<.001
	Correct After	2.4962	1.768					
Experimental 1 N = 468	Correct Before	2.1774	1.541	.5214	2.003	5.63	476	<.001
	Correct After	2.6987	1.784					
Experimental 2 N = 1127	Correct Before	2.2866	1.652	.9024	2.250	13.45	1126	<.001
	Correct After	3.1890	1.967					

As the table 18 shows, there was a significant increase in the
level of information (the mean correct information score) from
before to after the programmes. However, as the table indicates,
there was a significant change in the control group's mean
correct scores as well. A closer look at the "mean difference
scores" shows us that there was a larger change in the experimental
groups than the control, but they were all significant at the
p < .001 level.

Several reasons could be put forward as to why the control group
also showed an increase in information level. The pre-tests, to
start with, could have triggered information-seeking behaviour,
and the answers could have been obtained from friends (who might
have seen the programmes) or a teacher - or anybody. As the

experimental design is strictly in a naturalistic setting, any kind of interaction could have occurred between the time the pre-tests were given and the final post-tests. However, the main point is that the experimental groups showed a higher degree of information again with E_2 who saw two or more programmes showing the largest gain, as hypothesized.

The Student's t-test for paired observations was also applied on to the mean "don't know" scores, both before and after the programmes, with the hypothesis that there will be fewer don't knows in the experimental groups than in the control group. Table 19 presents the results.

TABLE 19

t-test on " Don't Know " score Before and After the Programmes for each group.

Groups	Information Answer	Mean	Standard Dev.	Mean Diff'e	Standard Dev.	t-value	DF	2-tail prob.
Control N = 266	Don't know Before	3.6767	2.928	.1429	2.717	.86	265	>·1
	Don't know After	3.8195	2.835		.167			
Experimental 1 N = 468	Don't know Before	3.2030	2.631	.0897	2.563	.76	467	>·1
	Don't know After	3.2927	2.648		.118			
Experimental 2 N = 1127	Don't know Before	2.9840	2.651	-.1154	2.638	-1.47	1126	>·1
	Don't know After	2.8687	2.496		.079			

The mean "don't know" score here was calculated in the same way as the mean "correct" score.

As the table shows, there was no significant decrease in the mean "don't know" score from before to after the programmes. In fact, both the control group and experimental group one showed a slight increase in the mean don't know score, with the control group showing a larger increase. However, experimental group two did show a "decrease" in the mean "don't know" score, as hypothesized, but it was not significant.

3.   IMAGE CHANGE

The image of the nursing job (as measured by the items in our inventory) were expected to show a significantly larger positive shift in the experimental groups than in the control group from before to after the programmes.

The social image was based on the items of factor one as described in the previous section.

The image "change" score for each individual was first calculated by adding   the subject's responses on all the items of the scale both before and after the programmes. The change score consisted of the subject's score after the programmes, minus her score before. The mean "change" score for each group was then calculated based on the individual change scores of the subjects in that group. The single items scores were again not multiplied by their factor loadings because (as Table 10 shows) the loadings for the factor did not differ greatly from item to item. (An item by item analysis of the image scale will be described later).

To find out whether there was significant change in the social image from before to after the programmes different among the three groups, a one-way analysis of variance was applied to the   "change" scores of the social image scale.

TABLE 20

One way Analysis of Variance on the "change" score of Social
Image Scale by the 3 groups.

Source	DF	SS	MS	F ratio	F prob.
Between Groups	2	58.0935	.5548	3.7638	<.05
Within Groups	1894	14616.9060	.1570		
Total	1896	14674.9995			

Group	N	Mean	STD dev.	STD error
Control	266	.7632	3.0740	.1885
Experimental 1	473	.5835	2.6405	.1214
Experimental 2	1158	.9896	2.7613	.0811

As table 20 indicates, there was a significant difference among
the three groups ($p<.05$) and in the hypothesized direction only
when comparing the control group to experimental group 2:
$C < E_2$.

The results as assessed by the application of the Student's t-test
for paired observations are presented in the following table.

TABLE 21

t-test on Image Score   Before and After the programmes
for each group.

Groups	Image Score	Mean	Stan'd Dev.	Mean Diff	Stan'd Dev.	t-value	DF	2 tail prob'ty
Control N = 266	Before	17.1767	2.134	.7632	3.075	4.05	265	<.001
	After	17.9398	2.464					
Experi. 1 N = 473	Before	17.6110	2.001	.5835	2.641	4.81	472	<.001
	After	18.1945	2.190					
Experi. 2 N = 1158	Before	17.5509	2.194	.9896	2.761	12.20	1157	<.001
	After	18.5406	2.076					

As the table shows, there was a significant change in the image
of Nursing held by the pupils from before to after the programmes
with a more favourable image developing after the programmes.
Again here, as in the information scale, the control group also
showed a significant change towards a more favourable image.
Moreover, this change is even larger (not significantly) than
that of Experimental group 1, (which should have seen one of
the programmes)! However, Experimental group 2 did show the
largest significant favourable change in image after the
programmes, as hypothesized.

Why did the control group show a larger positive shift than
Experimental group one?

    i. The mean image score of the control group before
       the programme was less favourable than that of

either of the experimental groups.

ii. Seeing one programme only might have created confused responses to the items of this scale. An item by item analysis (which will be discussed later) might clarify whether masking occurred.

However, it can definitely be said that the subjects who saw 2 - 3 programmes (E_2) did show the largest significant positive shift towards the image of nursing.

4.   JOB INTENTION (Intention to choose Nursing)

Table 22 shows the percentages of pupils who stated that they planned to join Nursing both before and after the television programmes for each group individually. The percentages were "first" calculated as a percent out of 16 other job choices, plus "won't work" and "don't know" categories.

The table shows that there was a decrease in the percentage of subjects planning to join Nursing from before to after the programmes in both the control group and experimental group one, while there was a slight increase in experimental group two.

However, this table does not present the true situation of the data as there was a very large increase in the numbers of subjects who chose the "won't work" and "don't know" categories after the programmes.

Table 23 presents the general frequencies of all the subjects (undivided) and their job choice before and after the programmes. Before any further analysis is presented, it is vital to direct the attention to two important aspects of this table.

TABLE 22

Percentage of subjects intending to join Nursing Before
and After the programmes for each group (Not corrected)*

Group	Before	After
Control	6.2% (N= 308)	4.2% (N = 308)
Exp. 1	6.7% (N = 534)	4.9% (N = 534)
Exp. 2	6.1% (N = 1289)	6.9% (N = 1289)

* Not final table - explained in the text.

TABLE 23

General Frequencies of Job Intention Question. (N = 2131)

JOB	BEFORE PROGRAMME N	%	AFTER PROGRAMME N	%
1. Won't work	65	3.4	282	13.3
2. Teacher	376	19.5	285	13.4
3. Dressmaker	36	1.9	29	1.4
4. Secretary	69	3.6	37	1.7
5. Nurse	133	6.9	128	6.0
6. Accountant	69	3.6	35	1.6
7. Doctor	285	14.8	226	10.6
8. Air Hostess	213	11.0	121	5.7
9. Company Employee	83	4.3	54	2.5
10. Private Business	102	5.3	52	2.4
11. Lawyer	113	5.9	62	2.9
12. Journalist	34	1.8	28	1.3
13. Broadcaster	36	1.9	10	0.5
14. Traffic Warden	101	5.2	59	2.8
15. Engineer	45	2.3	73	3.4
16. Policewoman	10	0.5	33	1.6
17. Civil Servant	9	0.5	22	1.0
18. Don't know	150	7.8	591	27.8
19. Out of range	202		4	

1) Although there was a small decrease in the total number
    of subjects planning to join Nursing from before to after
    the programmes (item 5), this decrease is negligible
    when compared to the decrease in the numbers of all the
    other jobs of relevance, like teacher, air hostess,
    secretary - even doctor , which is highly prestigious.
    There was a decrease in the percentages of all the job
    choices after the programme except for the jobs of
    engineer, policewoman and civil servant, which all showed
    an increase.

2)   There was a very large increase in the percentage of
     subjects who chose the "won't work" and "don't know"
     categories after the programmes. There was an increase
     in the "won't work" category from 3.4% before to 13.3%
     after, and in the "don't know" category from 7.8% before
     to 27.8% after.

Why did so many pupils move to the "don't know" and "won't
work" categories?

One possibility could be that, as the pre-tests were admin-
istered in February, the pupils' spirits and ambitions then
might have still been high. The post-tests were carried out
in May. With the academic year closing and the exams drawing
near, some pupils must have started realizing their actual
potential or doubting their potential. This might have
created uncertainty about the future.

Therefore, it would be more accurate if we calculated the
numbers of subjects planning to join Nursing both before and
after the programmes as a percentage of those who chose it
out of an alternative job,. and not including the "won't work"
and "don't know" categories.

Table 24 shows the "corrected" percentages of subjects
planning to join Nursing in each group before and after the
programmes.

The results here show that, while there was a slight decrease
in the control group, the experimental group one did not
change, while there was a comparatively large increase in
experimental group two.

A test of significance on the differences from before to
after in the proportion of subjects in Experimental group
two showed it to be significantly different. $z = 4.65$, $p < .05$.

TABLE 24

Percentage of subjects intending to join Nursing Before
and After the programmes for each group.   (Corrected)*

GROUP	BEFORE	AFTER
Control	7.9% (N = 239)	7.2% (N = 181)
Experi. 1	8.6% (N = 421)	8.5% (N = 307)
Experi. 2	7.4% (N = 1054)	11.6% (N = 766)

NB*   These percentages were corrected by calculating the
percentage of those planning to join Nursing out of
those who "chose" an alternative job.   The categories
of "don't know" and "won't work" were excluded.

To check further that this increase in the percentage of
subjects planning to join Nursing in experimental group two
was actually due to the television programmes and not to
some other extraneous variable, a simple comparability test
was carried out.

Four other jobs of relevance were chosen from the frequency
table: Teacher, air-hostess, secretary and doctor. The
percentages of subjects who stated that they planned to join
each of those jobs before and after the programmes was cal-
culated. These calculations were done with corrections for
"don't know" and "won't work" categories, in the same way
as the percentages of subjects planning to join Nursing
(Table 24). This was done to ensure comparability.

While there was an increase in the percentage of pupils
wanting to join Nursing from before to after the programmes
in experimental group 2, there was a decrease in the percent-
ages of pupils wanting to join each of the jobs chosen above
in experimental group 2, except for Doctor. The situation
for Doctor is understandable, as the subjects who watched
the television programmes about Nursing must have also been
partly influenced towards the doctor's job choice.

The percentages of subjects who planned to join each of the
following jobs before and after the programmes in experimental
group 2 were:

	Before Programme percentage	After Programme percentage
Teacher	22.1	20.9
Air Hostess	14.5	11.7
Secretary	4.3	2.8
Doctor	15.8	17.2

These calculations after corrections for "won't work" and "don't
know" categories. If we do not correct for the above, we find

a decrease in percentage for ALL the above jobs for experimental group 2, while there was a slight increase for the nursing job.

Moreover, if we consider the percentages of subjects "wishing" they could do a specific job before the television programmes and their actual job choice after the programmes, we find that there was a "decrease" in the percentages of all the job choices after the programmes as compared to the wishes, except for the job of a nurse, which held its ground.

Therefore it can be strongly suggested that the television programmes must have helped increase the percentage of pupils wanting to join nursing. This is especially relevant as compared to other jobs.

5. BEHAVIOUR CHANGE

Although it was intended at the start of the study to have a reliable measure of behaviour change upon which the final effectiveness of the programmes would be based, it was found (as the data was being collected) that such a reliable measure did not exist.

During the previous four years, the Nursing School has been undergoing a major transformation which reflected on the number of applicants accepted, their school backgrounds, etc. Therefore, generally speaking, there were no two years when the same entry conditions were applied, as much depended on vacancies and requirements.

Besides the transformations in the Nursing School, there were major transformations happening at other educational institutions in the country which could have indirectly affected the behaviour change variable. The teachers' job (during the

year of the campaign) received a doubling of salaries and a change of grading. The Teachers' Training College was on the verge of changing into a University.

Therefore, if we wanted to compare the number and calibre of pupils who joined nursing as compared to previous years and the year before, we found that we were not basing our numbers on the same conditions.

However, depending on the data available, the following table has been drawn up:-

TABLE 25

Number of applicants for Nursing for the campaign & pre-campaign years.

| | Number of Female Applicants | |
	General Nurses	Practical Nurses
Pre-campaign year (1976-1977)	22	42
Campaign year (1977-1978)	39	51
Number required	30 - 40	60 - 80

(b)   Checking Comparability between the Experimental and
Control Groups (The Pre-Tests).

As the groups in this design are not randomly assigned but
are self-selective, one of the major problems of the analysis
of the results is to demonstrate comparability among the
groups.

To start with, matching was considered as one possible way of
overcoming this problem. However, matching is argued to
create biased results if used with some designs. Regression
towards the mean is already one of the major problems of this
design and it has always been contended that the matching
procedure itself increases the possibility of regression
towards the mean as the sample becomes more selective.
Campbell and Stanley (1963); Nunnally (1975) and others.

Therefore, it was decided to avoid the rigid procedure of
matching and to demonstrate comparability on the basis of:

1.   Pre-test raw scores of the measurement scales;
2.   Other variables hypothesized to be related to the
     measured dependent variables.

This second point will be discussed later.

It was hypothesized that for all the dependent variable scores
before the programmes:

$$H_1 : C \equiv E_1 \equiv E_2$$

A oneway analysis of variance was applied on the raw scores
before the programmes across the groups. Table 26 shows
the results.

TABLE 26

Oneway Analysis of Variance on the raw Pre-test scores of
the dependent measurement scales by the 3 groups.

SCALE	GROUP	N	X̄ BEFORE PROG	F- RATIO	SIGN
Attitude Advantages	Control	255	15.5059	.9651	>·1
	Exp. 1	457	15.5842		
	Exp. 2	1097	15.7284		
Attitude Disadvantages	Control	255	17.1804	3.1567	<.05
	Exp. 1	457	16.5711		
	Exp. 2	1097	16.5889		
Information	Control	266	2.0113	3.374	<.05
	Exp. 1	468	2.1774		
	Exp. 2	1127	2.2866		
Image	Control	266	17.1767	3.7897	<.05
	Exp. 1	473	17.6110		
	Exp. 2	1158	17.5509		

TABLE 27

One way Analysis of Variance on the raw Post-test scores
of the dependent measurement scales by the 3 groups.

SCALE	GROUP	N	$\bar{X}$ AFTER PROG	F-RATIO	SIGN
Attitude Advantages	Control	255	15.4627		
	Exp. 1	457	16.0000	25.2910	<.001
	Exp. 2	1097	16.5387		
Attitude Disadvantages	Control	255	17.6196		
	Exp. 1	457	17.9891	3.8875	<.05
	Exp. 2	1097	18.2944		
Information	Control	266	2.4962		
	Exp. 1	468	2.6987	20.6263	<.001
	Exp. 2	1127	3.1890		
Image	Control	266	17.9664		
	Exp. 1	473	18.1801	10.1518	<.001
	Exp. 2	1158	18.5293		

Our assumptions that the pre-test scores do not differ
significantly among the 3 groups before the programmes
holds only in part.

As the table shows, there was no significant difference
between the means of the pre-test attitude advantages scores
across the groups, as hypothesized. Although the pre-test
scores of the attitude disadvantages scale do show a signi-
ficant difference at the $p<.05$ level, this creates no bias
in the results as the control group are the ones who have a
slightly more favourable attitude to start with.

Therefore, for the attitude scales, it can be safely said
that pre-group comparability holds, at least as far as the
purposes of this study are concerned, in enhancing a
favourable attitude towards Nursing.

The results do show that there is a difference in pre-test
scores of the information & image scales, but only at the
$p<.05$ level. In both cases the control group are the ones
with the least information and less favourable image to
start with.

Therefore, care has to be taken when both those scales are
interpreted to account for the slight pre-score differences
among the groups.

However, these slight differences in some of the scales cannot
be regarded as a serious problem when one looks at the much
larger differences in the means of the post-tests (after the
programmes) as presented in Table 27.

C. CONTROL TESTS (MEASURES OF UNINTENDED EFFECTS)

All the dependent variable measures showed that the television programmes must have had an influence on the pupils. However, if one looks at mean change scores across the various measures it might be argued that, although the change is significant, the mean differences are quite small.

Four points can be put forth to counteract those arguments:-

1. A look at other field studies shows that the gain in all cases of such studies is extremely small on the measures used. Change is a very complex matter and even the slightest shift on our instruments must be considered.

2. The results show "positive gains" on all the dependent variables. There were no negative shifts on any of the scales except for the control group.

3. The sample in this study is very large.

4. To emphasize the fact that it was the television programmes that created this positive shift, and not other extraneous variables, a control study in the form of measures of unintended effects was conducted. Exactly the same dependent variable measures that were administered on the pupils before and after the programmes, in relation to the Nursing job,were also administered in relation to the Teaching job. (There were no tele- vision programmes about teaching between the pre-test and the post-test period). As the following tables indicate, there existed no shift at all in the position of the pupils in relation to the teaching profession. This proves that the shift in relation to the Nursing job was largely the result of the television programmes.

A oneway analysis of variance on the "change" scores of
the 3 groups (C, E_1 and E_2) for each of the measurement
scales on the teacher's job produced the following results:

Teacher's correct information mean change score by the
3 groups:

$$F \ (2,1816) = \ .618 \quad p > .1$$

Teacher's image mean change score by the 3 groups:

$$F \ (2,1901) = \ .196 \quad p > .1$$

Teacher's attitude advantages mean change score by the
3 groups:

$$F \ (2,1856) = \ .371 \quad p > .1$$

Teacher's attitude disadvantages mean change score by the
3 groups:

$$F \ (2,1856) = \ .029 \quad p > .1$$

Another kind of argument that can be put forth is that the
pre-tests might have triggered this positive shift and not
the television programmes.

Two counter arguments can be put forward:

1. The pre-tests did not trigger significant shifts in
    the variables measuring the Teaching jobs position
    which received exactly the same treatment as the
    Nursing job.

2. Another control study was conducted alongside the main
    study to find out whether the pre-tests caused a re-
    action. Two classes in one of the larger schools were
    left unpre-tested (as if by accident), but in fact for
    the purpose of this control. One intermediate class

level and one secondary class level were then compared
with an adjacent class of the same level who were pre-
tested.

As the following tables show (except for a single information score
in Exp. 2 which will be discussed later), the post-tests
showed no significant difference between the classes. There-
fore it can be argued that the pre-tests were not reactive
and the shift must have occurred as a result of the television
programmes.

TABLE 28

t-test on Post-test Scores (After the Programmes) of Ss
pre-tested and not pre-tested Intermediate Class

Dependent Variables	Control Group			Exp. Group 1			Exp. Group 2		
	not pre-tested $\overline{X}$	pre-tested $\overline{X}$	Sig	not pre-tested $\overline{X}$	pre-tested $\overline{X}$	Sig	not pre-tested $\overline{X}$	pre-tested $\overline{X}$	sig.
Attitude Factor 1	14.4	16.1	NS	14.8	15.4	NS	16.1	16.4	NS
Attitude Factor 2	18.8	19.1	NS	16.9	19.3	NS	17.9	19.5	NS
Social Image	16.8	17.3	NS	18.9	18.1	NS	19.0	17.55	NS
Infor-mation	1.2	1.8	NS	1.6	2.4	NS	1.7	3.5	**
N	5	8		11	7		18	22	

NS = Not significant

** = p<.001

TABLE 29

t-test on Post-test Scores (After the Programmes) of Ss
pre-tested and not pre-tested Secondary Class

Dependent Variables	Control Group			Exp. Group 1			Exp. Group 2		
	not pre-tested $\overline{X}$	pre-tested $\overline{X}$	sig.	not pre-tested $\overline{X}$	pre-tested $\overline{X}$	sig	not pre-tested $\overline{X}$	pre-tested $\overline{X}$	sig
Attitude Factor 1	16.2	16.2	NS	16.8	16.5	NS	17.4	16.7	NS
Attitude Factor 2	17.7	20.4	NS	16.1	18.4	NS	20.1	20.2	NS
Social Image	18.6	19.2	NS	19.0	19.0	NS	19.4	19.8	NS
Infor- mation	3.0	1.2	NS	3.0	2.5	NS	2.3	.83	NS
N	5	8		10	14		9	6	

The reason why Experimental Group 2 of the intermediate class
showed a significantly larger level of information than the
group not pre-tested could be information-seeking as a result
of lack of knowledge while answering the pre-tests. However,
while information can be readily available from the teachers,
friends, family - or even the television programmes - the
case is not so for the other measures, like attitudes and
image, which are more difficult to shift. Moreover, as the
majority of the groups on all the scales showed no significant
differences, this group seems to show an exception to the
consistent trend.

D. INDIVIDUAL ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SCALES

An item-by-item analysis of the effects of the television
programmes on attitudes, information and image is presented
here.

The same tests of significance that were chosen to demonstrate
the general effectiveness of the programmes described in
Section B were used here:

1. the one-way analysis of variance
2. the student's t-test for paired observations

were applied to each item individually before and after the
programmes.

The aim was to find out whether the majority of the items
of a scale were showing consistent patterns according to the
hypothesis and to check that there was no masking (affecting
the overall results discussed in Section B).

A brief review of the hypotheses would help put the analysis
into perspective:

a) One way analysis of variance on the individual item
scores before and after the programmes

Before: More items should show non-significant
differences between the groups: $C \equiv E_1 \equiv E_2$

After: More items should show a significant
difference between the groups and in the
predicted direction: $C < E_1 < E_2$

b)   t-test - there should be a larger number of items with a
     significant positive shift from before to after the
     programmes in the experimental groups than the control.

No analysis on "change scores" was carried out here. As we
are dealing with individual items and not a combination of
items, "change scores" will probably give us biased results
because of the regression towards the mean phenomenon as
discussed on page 490.

It has to be clarified here that the items in the tables of
this section were not put in an identical sequence. The
tables were drawn up in this way to make interpreting the
results simpler.

1.   Attitude-to-Nursing Individual Items

The score presented in the tables is the score on a five-point
Likert scale 1 to 5 (recorded so that the larger the number,
the more favourable the attitude). The means calculated are
those of the scores of all the subjects on that specific item
for the group specified. .

a)   One-way Analysis of Variance on attitude scores for
     each item by the three groups.

     Table 30 page 457 presents the results of the above
     analysis both before and after the programme.

     Before the programmes:
     As the table shows, 7 out of 10 items showed no significant
     differences between the three groups as hypothesized, items
     1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 10. Three items did show a signifi-
     cant difference, items 5, 7 and 8. Nevertheless, this
     difference creates no bias to the results of this study.
     As the table shows, the attitude scores of the control
     groups were more favourable to nursing to start with

than the experimental groups.

After the programmes:
The attitude scores on 6 out of the 10 items showed
significant differences between the three groups, and
in the hypothesized direction, items 1, 2, 5 and 6,
$p<.001$; items 3 and 4, $p<.05$.
Two items showed differences in the hypothesized
direction (though not significantly) items 7 and 8, while
items 9 and 10 showed "non-significant" differences, but
not in the hypothesized direction. The reason why both
items 9 and 10 showed a shift in the opposite direction
(though not significantly) could be because they started
out before the programmes with very favourable scores.

Summary:
In general, our hypothesis stands. The majority of the attitude
scores on the items before the programmes showed no significant
differences between the groups, while the majority of the scores
after the programmes showed a significant difference, and in the
hypothesized direction.

b) t-test on attitude scores for each item from before to after
    the programmes for each group individually.

    Table 31 page 458 presents the results of the analysis above.

    As the table shows, the majority of items in the control
    group were either non-significant or showed a negative
    shift, while the majority of items in experimental group
    two showed a significant positive shift. Experimental
    group one has more significant positive items than the
    control group, but less than experimental group two.

    In experimental group one, item 10 showed a significant
    negative shift. This could be because the score before
    the programme was relatively high. Although this same
    item showed a move in the negative direction in experimental
    group two, it is not significant.

Summary:
Generally, those results do show that the programmes must
have had an effect, especially on those who saw two or three
programmes (Exp. group 2) as the majority of items did show
a positive significant shift from before to after the prog-
rammes, while the majority of items in the control group
showed a reversal of attitude (a negative shift).

Therefore, in the case of the attitude scale, the individual
items seem to be consistent with the overall effects analysis
as presented in Section B.

TABLE 30

One-way Analysis of Variance comparing the three groups' Attitude scores Before & After the programmes

ITEMS		BEFORE $\bar{X}s$	F Ratio	Sign	AFTER $\bar{X}s$	F Ratio	Sign
1. Ideal job for life	C	3.69			3.49		
	E_1	3.69	1.458	NS	3.69	18.019	xxx
	E_2	3.78			3.87		
2. Like discipline in job	C	3.62			4.06		
	E_1	3.56	.192	NS	4.19	7.003	xxx
	E_2	3.58			4.25		
3. Dislike certain aspects	C	2.95			2.93		
	E_1	2.93	.267	NS	2.98	3.658	xx
	E_2	2.97			3.08		
4. There are better jobs	C	2.76			2.67		
	E_1	2.75	.159	NS	2.81	5.549	xx
	E_2	2.79			2.92		
5. Like the uniform	C	4.15			3.96		
	E_1	4.20	.250	NS	4.13	10.034	xxx
	E_2	4.19			4.25		
6. Advantages several	C	4.05			3.95		
	E_1	4.13	2.26	NS	3.99	8.871	xxx
	E_2	4.18			4.16		
7. Routine and boring	C	2.49			3.10		
	E_1	2.29	9.312	xxx	3.16	2.755	NS
	E_2	2.20			3.27		
8. Dislike irregular working hours	C	3.15			2.93		
	E_1	2.89	4.56	xx	3.05	1.414	NS
	E_2	2.93			3.06		
9. Dislike the responsibility	C	2.94			2.96		
	E_1	2.74	3.341	xx	2.92	.104	NS
	E_2	2.75			2.94		
10. Dislike carrying out orders	C	2.89			3.03		
	E_1	2.97	.298	NS	3.06	.099	NS
	E_2	2.95			3.03		

CODE: NS = Not Significant
     xx = $p < .05$
     xxx = $p < .001$

C = Control group   N = 255
E_1 Experimental Group 1   N = 457
E_2 Experimental Group 2   N = 1,097

TABLE 31

t-test on Attitude Scores from Before to After the Programmes for each group.

Items	CONTROL GROUP N = 255			EXP. GROUP 1 N = 457			EXP. GROUP 2 N = 1097		
	$\bar{X}$ Before	$\bar{X}$ After	Sign	$\bar{X}$ Before	$\bar{X}$ After	Sign	$\bar{X}$ Before	$\bar{X}$ After	Sign
1. Dislike Responsibility	2.94	2.97	NS	2.74	2.92	xx	2.75	2.94	xxx
2. Routine and boring	2.49	3.10	xxx	2.29	3.18	xxx	2.19	3.27	xxx
3. Like the discipline	3.62	4.06	xxx	3.56	4.19	xxx	3.57	4.25	xxx
4. Dislike irregular working hours	3.15	2.39 (Neg)	xx	2.89	3.05	xx	2.93	3.06	xx
5. There are better jobs	2.76	2.67 (Neg)	NS	2.76	2.81	NS	2.79	2.92	xx
6. Ideal job for Life	3.69	3.49 (Neg)	xx	3.69	3.69	NS	3.78	3.87	xx
7. Dislike certain aspects	2.95	2.93 (Neg)	NS	2.93	2.98	NS	2.98	3.08	xx
8. Dislike carrying out orders	2.89	3.04	NS	2.97	3.06	NS	2.95	3.03	NS
9. Like the uniform	4.15	3.96 (Neg)	xx	4.20	4.13 (Neg)	NS	4.19	4.25	NS
10. Advantages several	4.05	3.95 (Neg)	NS	4.13	3.99 (Neg)	xx	4.18	4.16 (Neg)	NS

NOTE: Negative statements recoded so that larger number more favourable.

CODE: NS = Not Significant
Neg. = Negative Shift
xx = p<.05
xxx = 0<.001

2. Information about Nursing - Individual Items

The score for each individual information item could be either correct or not correct. Therefore, each subject could have a score of 1 or 0 on that specific item. The larger the score shown on the tables means that more subjects had a correct score on that specific item for the group specified.

a) One-way Analysis of Variance on Information "correct" scores for each item by the 3 groups:

Table 32 page 462 presents the results of the analysis above, both before and after the programmes.

Before the Programmes:
As the table shows, almost all the information correct scores before the programmes showed no significant differences between the three groups. Only one out of the nine items showed a significant difference at the $p < .05$ level; item 8.

After the Programmes:
Almost all the information correct scores after the programmes showed a significant difference between the three groups and in the hypothesized direction. Only item 9 showed a non-significant difference.

Summary:
Our hypothesis stands for almost all the items of the information scale: while almost all the items showed non-significant differences between the groups before the programmes, almost all of them showed significant differences between the groups after the programmes.

This analysis brings to light another vital point. If it is recalled, the combination of correct information scores before the programmes, as presented in Table 26 showed a slight

significant difference between the control and experimental
groups "before" the programmes. The slight differences found
in the combination of information scores could be due to the
fact that besides item 8, items 4 and 10 were just below
significance at the $p < .05$ level.

Therefore, the results from this analysis do suggest that
when we discuss comparability between the three groups on
the information scores "before" the programmes, we can
safely state that the scores of the subjects in the Experi-
mental and Control groups do NOT differ significantly to
create a bias.

b)   t-test on information correct scores for each item from
     before to after the programmes for each group individually.

     Table 33 page 463 presents the results of the analysis
     above.

     As the table shows, there were more items with a signifi-
     cant increase in information from before to after the
     programmes in experimental group 2 (6 items) as compared
     to the control group (4 items). Besides, while there was
     only one item with a negative shift in Experimental
     Group 2, there were 3 in the Control. Experimental
     Group one had less significanlty correct items than
     Experimental Group two, but more than the control group,
     as hypothesized.

Moreover, a look at the size of the differences does show that
the increase was larger in E_2 than E_1 and C.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the television programmes
must have helped to create this information gain.

The same analyses were carried out on the information
"don't know" scores, with the assumption that the
subjects who saw the television programmes should
show a significant decrease in the number of "don't
know" scores after the television programmes as com-
pared with the Control Group.

The results generally showed that, when comparing Ex-
perimental Group 2 with the Control Group, our hypothesis
stands. However, the situation was not so clear-cut
for Experimental Group One.

TABLE 32

One-way Analysis of Variance comparing the three groups
Information Correct Scores Before and After the Programmes

ITEMS		BEFORE $\bar{X}$	F ratio	Sign	AFTER $\bar{X}$	F ratio	Sign
1. Certificate for practical nurse	C E_1 E_2	.50 .50 .49	.2220	NS	.62 .67 .73	8.616	xxx
2. Years of training practical nurse	C E_1 E_2	.31 .28 .34	2.2922	NS	.32 .37 .45	9.1566	xxx
3. Years of training general nurse	C E_1 E_2	.50 .51 .55	1.6562	NS	.41 .53 .55	8.4326	xxx
4. Stipend for general nurse	C E_1 E_2	.41 .48 .48	2.6111	NS	.34 .45 .49	10.4498	xxx
5. Transport Facilities	C E_1 E_2	.50 .53 .52	.7322	NS	.67 .71 .76	4.7753	xx
6. Certificate for general nurse	C E_1 E_2	.44 .46 .44	.2231	NS	.58 .57 .64	3.9889	xx
7. Vacation length	C E_1 E_2	.58 .64 .64	1.9547	NS	.61 .63 .70	4.9924	xx
8. Stipend for practical nurse	C E_1 E_2	.44 .51 .54	4.1625	xx	.53 .58 .63	4.8195	xx
9. Number of working hours	C E_1 E_2	.31 .32 .37	2.8197	NS	.23 .28 .25	1.6628	NS

NS = Not Significant

xx = p<.05

xxx = p<.001

CODE: C = Control Group N = 266

E_1 = Experimental group 1 N = 468

E_2 = Experimental group 2 N = 1127

TABLE 33

t-test on Correct Information on Scores from Before to After the Programmes for each group

Item	CONTROL GROUP N = 266			EXP. GROUP 1 N = 468			EXP. GROUP 2 N = 1127		
	$\bar{X}$ Before	$\bar{X}$ After	Sign	$\bar{X}$ Before	$\bar{X}$ After	Sign	$\bar{X}$ Before	$\bar{X}$ After	Sign
1. Years of Training practical Nurse	.31	.32	NS	.28	.37	xx	.34	.45	xxx
2. Stipend practical nurse	.44	.53	xx	.51	.58	xx	.54	.63	xxx
3. Certificate for practical Nurse	.50	.62	xxx	.50	.67	xxx	.49	.73	xxx
4. Certificate for general Nurse	.44	.58	xxx	.46	.57	xxx	.44	.64	xxx
5. Transportation facilities	.50	.67	xxx	.53	.71	xxx	.52	.76	xxx
6. Vacation length	.58	.61	NS	.64	.63 (Neg)	NS	.64	.70	xxx
7. Stipend General Nurse	.41	.34 (Neg)	NS	.48	.45 (Neg)	NS	.48	.49	NS
8. Years of training General Nurse	.50	.41 (Neg)	xx	.51	.53	NS	.55	.55	NS
9. Number of working hours	.31	.23 (Neg)	xx	.32	.28 (Neg)	NS	.37	.25 (Neg)	xxx

NS = Not Significant   (Neg) = negative shift   xx = $p < .05$ xxx = $p < .001$

TABLE 33

t-test on Correct Information on Scores from Before to After the Programmes for each group

Item	CONTROL GROUP N = 266			EXP. GROUP 1 N = 468			EXP. GROUP 2 N = 1127		
	$\bar{X}$ Before	$\bar{X}$ After	Sign	$\bar{X}$ Before	$\bar{X}$ After	Sign	$\bar{X}$ Before	$\bar{X}$ After	Sign
1. Years of Training practical Nurse	.31	.32	NS	.28	.37	xx	.34	.45	xxx
2. Stipend practical nurse	.44	.53	xx	.51	.58	xx	.54	.63	xxx
3. Certificate for practical Nurse	.50	.62	xxx	.50	.67	xxx	.49	.73	xxx
4. Certificate for general Nurse	.44	.58	xxx	.46	.57	xxx	.44	.64	xxx
5. Transportation facilities	.50	.67	xxx	.53	.71	xxx	.52	.76	xxx
6. Vacation length	.58	.61	NS	.64	.63 (Neg)	NS	.64	.70	xxx
7. Stipend General Nurse	.41	.34 (Neg)	NS	.48	.45 (Neg)	NS	.48	.49	NS
8. Years of training General Nurse	.50	.41 (Neg)	xx	.51	.53	NS	.55	.55	NS
9. Number of working hours	.31	.23 (Neg)	xx	.32	.28 (Neg)	NS	.37	.25 (Neg)	xxx

NS = Not Significant   (Neg) = negative shift   xx = p<.05   xxx = p<.001

3. Image of Nursing - Individual Items

The score presented in the tables is the score on a three-point scale (recorded so that the larger the number, the more favourable the image). The means calculated are those of the scores of all the subjects on that specific item for the group specified.

Two items, 8 and 9, which are not part of the social image factor (see page 416)were included in this analysis as individual items.

The image that nursing requires a good academic qualification and involves difficult training were both included in the themes of the television programmes. This analysis would show us how the subjects responded to those items before and after the programmes.

a) One-way Analysis of Variance on image scores for each item by the three groups.

Table 34 page 467 presents the results of the analysis above both before and after the programmes.

Before the programmes:
As the table shows, the scores on 6 out of the 9 items showed non-significant differences between the groups, as hypothesized, items: 1, 2, 3 and 5, 8 and 9.

However, 3 items did show significant differences, items: 4, 6 and 7 - but all at the $p<.05$ level.

After the programmes:
The image scores on 5 out of the 9 items showed significant differences between the groups, as hypothesized. Items 1 and 7, $p<.001$, while items 2, 3 and 8 at the $p<.05$ level.

However, 4 items did show a shift which is not strictly
in the direction hypothesized, but they were all non-
significant.

Summary:
While it can be said that the majority of items of the image
scale held to our hypothesis, the results here are not as
consistent as the ones for the attitude and information
scales, especially when comparing Experimental Groups 1 and 2.

Still, it has to be noted (as for the information scale) that
while the analysis of the image pre-programme scores as
presented in Table 26   showed a significant different between
the three groups, the individual item analysis here shows
that this slight bias is due to only 3 out of the 7 items of
the social image factor.

b)   t-test on image scores for each item from before to after
     the programmes for each group individually.

     Table 35 page 468 presents the results for the analysis
     above.

     As the table shows, the results of the individual items
     of this scale are not as clear-cut as the previous two.
     Although the same number of items show a positive shift
     in ALL the groups (6 out of 9), it can be said that the
     differences from before to after the programmes are
     larger in the items of Experimental Group 2 than the
     control group. Where there is a non-significant shift
     in Experimental group 2, items 5 and 6, it can be seen
     that the image score for that group was comparatively
     high to start with. Again, the negative shift in item
     7 can be attributed to the high pre-score. The same
     reasoning applies to the negative shift on items 5 and
     7 of Experimental Group 1.

Summary:
Although our hypothesis does not seem to hold for the
individual items of this scale, it can be said that
Experimental Group 2 does seem to show larger differences
than the control group. However, Experimental Group 1
does not show consistent results on this scale.

Conclusion:
The results of this analysis seem to be consistent with
the results on the general overall impact, as described
in Section B. However, two points were further clarified.

a) The pre-programme scores of the information items
   and to a lesser extent the image items can be con-
   sidered comparable before the programmes (this was
   not clear in Section B).

b) The experimental group one especially in the image
   scale items, does not show a consistent trend as on
   the attitude and information scale items.

As it was explained in the section on theme development, all
the information items, attitude and image statements, were
discussed in the television programmes, either through the
story-line or in the final interview. This analysis on
individual items does show that, in general, the subjects of
Experimental Group 2 did show a shift in the direction
desired after the programmes on the majority of the items
of the scales. Where there was no shift, it was usually
due to the highly favourable score of the same subjects on
that item before the television programmes.

TABLE 34

One-way Analysis of Variance comparing 3 groups' Image Scores
Before and After Programmes

ITEMS	Group	BEFORE			AFTER		
		$\bar{X}s$	F ratio	Sign	$\bar{X}s$	F ratio	Sign
1. Opportunity for Socializing	C E_1 E_2	2.64 2.68 2.67	.3265	NS	2.75 2.75 2.85	8.9536	xxx
2. Good career mobility	C E_1 E_2	2.11 2.07 2.10	.2272	NS	2.48 2.50 2.59	5.6876	xx
3. Choosers are dedicated	C E_1 E_2	2.35 2.39 2.33	1.1474	NS	2.38 2.52 2.50	3.9630	xx
4. Helps achieve independence	C E_1 E_2	2.70 2.81 2.77	3.1955	xx	2.75 2.74 2.79	1.8437	NS
5. Socially prestigious	C E_1 E_2	2.40 2.45 2.36	2.0002	NS	2.67 2.61 2.63	.7941	NS
6. Not a stepstone to marriage	C E_1 E_2	2.49 2.64 2.65	7.4938	xx	2.71 2.68 2.67	.4713	NS
7. Secure and sheltered	C E_1 E_2	2.52 2.61 2.65	4.3344	xx	2.23 2.38 2.50	17.79	xxx
8. Requires goos academic qualifications	C E_1 E_2	2.21 2.22 2.24	.2396	NS	2.46 2.60 2.59	3.7847	xx
9. Involves difficult training	C E_1 E_2	2.05 2.07 2.04	.1845	NS	2.35 2.46 2.40	1.64	NS

NS = Not significant No. of cases: C = 268 NOTE: Items 1 and 6 recoded
xx = p<.05 E_1 = 472   to make results
xxx = p<.001 E_2 = 1160   comparable.

TABLE 35

t-test on Image Score from before to after the Programmes for each group

ITEM	CONTROL GROUP N = 268			EXP. GROUP 1 N = 472			EXP. GROUP 2 N = 1160		
	$\bar{X}$ Before	$\bar{X}$ After	Sign	$\bar{X}$ Before	$\bar{X}$ After	Sign	$\bar{X}$ Before	$\bar{X}$ After	Sign
1. Choosers are dedicated	2.35	2.38	NS	2.39	2.52	xx	2.33	2.50	xxx
2. Opportunity for social-izing	2.64	2.75	xx	2.68	2.75	NS	2.67	2.85	xxx
3. Good career mobility	2.11	2.48	xxx	2.07	2.50	xxx	2.10	2.59	xxx
4. Socially presitious	2.34	2.67	xxx	2.45	2.61	xxx	2.36	2.63	xxx
5. Helps achieve independence	2.70	2.75	NS	2.81	2.74 (Neg)	xx	2.77	2.79	NS
6. Not a stepstone to marriage	2.49	2.71	xxx	2.64	2.68	NS	2.65	2.67	NS
7. Secure and sheltered	2.52	2.23 (Neg)	xxx	2.61	2.38 (Neg)	xxx	2.65	2.50 (Neg)	xxx
8. Requires good academic qualifications	2.21	2.46	xxx	2.22	2.60	xxx	2.24	2.59	xxx
9. Involves difficult training	2.05	2.35	xxx	2.07	2.46	xxx	2.04	2.40	xxx

NS = Not significant, (Neg) = negative shift, xx = $p < .05$, xxx = $p < .001$

NOTE: items 1 and 6 recoded to make results comparable.

E. COMPARABILITY STUDIES

Demonstrating comparability between experimental and
control groups on related variables.

Besides using the initial standing on the dependent variables
as a way of checking for comparability among the groups (as
discussed in Section B) the other way was to find out how
the three groups compared in relation to a number of relevant
variables. Those "relevant variables" were selected on the
assumption that they might be related to the dependent vari-
ables, especially "attitude change" in this context. They
involved basically two categories:

i.   Demographic Variables

Variables which, on the basis of previous research
found in the psychological and sociological liter-
ature were expected to have differential effects
on attitude change. Those variables include demo-
graphic characteristics of the audience under study,
such as age; school class; socio-economic status;
intelligence (here school performance records);
residential areas, etc.

ii. Variables which were expected in this study to be
related to change in the dependent variables. These
cover several categories:

(a)   Media and topic related variables:
Have t.v. at home;
Have relative in nursing;
Have friend in nursing;
Medical resistances scale (personality inventory);
Cultural resistance (attitude to womens' role
and work);

(b) Other home-related variables
"Home Atmosphere":-

Father living at home
Number of brothers and sisters
Older brothers and sisters
Whether mother works
Type of father's job

It was assumed that the difference in family atmos-
phere might affect viewing habits.

Two tests of significance were chosen to find out the
relative comparability among the groups.

The first test examined the comparability of the variables
across the three groups without considering their relation-
ship to change on the dependent variables (Cross-tabulation
Analysis).

The second test assessed the relationship of the above
variables to change in the dependent variables (Pearson
Correlation).

1)   Cross-tabulation Analysis

To find out, in general, whether the levels of each of the
variables suggested are related to selective viewing, the
frequencies of subjects in each group for each level were
drawn up. The raw-chi square was calculated to show us
whether the levels of the variables are independent or
related to viewing.

i)   Demographic Variables:
A cross-tabulation of age, school class, socio-
economic status, school performance, residential
area, was drawn up. Table 36   presented the
results.(see p. 473)

The table presents the percentage of subjects in each group
for each of the levels of the demographic variables measured.
The table shows that there is a significant difference across
the groups for each of the age levels with more of the younger
group in Experimental Group 2. There is also a significant
difference across the groups for the school class levels,
with a smaller percentage of secondary pupils in Experimental
Group 2.

It can be argued that viewing is related to age in that the
younger pupils are heavier viewers of television and that
the lower school level (probably having more leisure time)
watched more of the programmes.

While these findings are true, they have not been considered
as a major bias to the results for the following reasons:

1. A breakdown of the mean age of the pupils
   in each group (Control, Experimental 1 and
   Experimental 2) showed that the real differ-
   ences in age across the groups is really a
   matter of months and not years.

Code	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
age in years	below 13 yrs.	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	above 20

Mean code age of control group = 4.1
                Experimental group 1 = 4.1
                Experimental group 2 = 3.7

2. Although the intermediate class pupils watched
   more television programmes as compared to the
   secondary class, the actual age range of the
   intermediate class is 13 - 18 years with almost
   half the pupils 15 years of age and above.

The table shows that there existed no difference across the
groups in relation to school performance.

There is a slight difference across the groups in relation to socio-economic status and residential area, with a larger percentage of subjects below middle and in non-town areas in the Control Group.

As it will be seen in the following tables, this could be related to not having a television set at home, and therefore not viewing.

ii) Other related variables:
Tables 37,38 & 39* show that no significant relationship can be found between viewing and any of the variables related to home atmosphere, topic-related variables, medical resistances and cultural resistances scales. (As the latter scales represent interval data, it was found more appropriate to do a Breakdown Analysis with an F-test of significance, instead of a cross-tabulation which is more appropriate to nominal data).

A relationship has been found between having a television set at home and not viewing which was expected. Moreover, only one other variable, "whether the father works", showed a relationship to viewing.

A closer look at the data shows us that this might be related to being poor (maybe retarded) and possibly not having a television set at home.

Unfortunately, we did not include a specific question enquiring why the father does not work, so it was not possible to follow this finding further.

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* pages 474 and 475.

TABLE 36.

Cross-tabulation of Demographic Variables by the 3 Groups

DEM. VARS.		Control	Exp. 1	Exp. 2	x^2	SIGN
Vars.	Level	%	%	%		
Age	15.9 and below	13	21	66	41.4	xxx
	16 and above	17	32	51	(2df)	
Class	Intermediate	13	23	64	48.2	xxx
	Secondary	21	36	43	(2df)	
Socio-Econ Status	Above middle	12	27	61		
	middle	13	24	63	10.4	xx
	Below middle	19	24	57	(4df)	
School Performance	Excellent	12	22	66		
	Very Good	14	26	60	6.5	NS
	Good	14	25	61	(8df)	
	Fair	14	25	61		
	Weak	18	27	55		
Residential Area	Town	13	25	62	3.7	xx
	Non-town	16	23	61	(2df)	

Code : xxx = $p < .001$
xx = $p < .05$
NS = Not Significant

NOTE:

As the numbers of subjects differ for each variable level and each group, they have not been included in Tables 36, 37 and 38. The numbers for those variables can be found in Appendices A & B.

TABLE 37
Cross-tabulation of Media and Home Atmosphere Variables
by Three Groups

(Code: NS = Not Significant, xx = p<.05)

VARIABLE	LEVEL	C %	E_1 %	E_2 %	x^2	SIGN
HOME ATMOSPHERE						
No. of Brothers	3 or less	14	23	63	4.9	NS
	4 or more	15	27	58	(2df)	
No. of Sisters	3 or less	14	23	63	2.9	NS
	4 or more	15	26	59	(2df)	
Older Brothers	Yes	14	26	60	4.8	NS
	No	13	22	65	(2df)	
Older Sisters	Yes	14	26	60	4.3	NS
	No	14	22	64	(2df)	
Father living at Home	Yes	13	25	62	5.4	NS
	No	19	24	57	(2df)	
Mother works	Yes	14	22	64	.58	NS
	No	14	25	62	(2df)	
Father works	Yes	13	25	62	8.5	xx
	No	20	22	58	(2df)	
FATHERS JOB						
Prof. Gr. 1 & Admin.		15	25	60		
Prof. Gr. 2 & Services		10	25	65		
Commercial		16	29	56	13.1	NS
Skilled		12	28	60	(10df)	
Semi-skilled		13	23	64		
Unskilled		15	18	67		

TABLE   38

Crosstabulation of Topic (Nursing) related variables by
the three groups

Variable	Level	C $\%$	E_1 $\%$	E_2 $\%$	x^2	Sign
Media:						
Have t.v. at home	Yes	13	25	62	12.6	xx
	No	28	18	54	(2df)	
Have friends in Nursing	Yes	13	26	61	1.00	NS
	No	14	24	62	(2df)	
Have relatives in Nursing	Yes	14	25	61	.26	NS
	No	13	25	62	(2df)	

TABLE   39

Breakdown of Medical and Cultural Resistances Scales by
the three groups

Scales	C $\bar{x}$	E_1 $\bar{x}$	E_2 $\bar{x}$	F-test	Sign
Medical Resistances Scale	9.6	9.5	9.4	1.75	NS
Cultural Resistances:-					
Progressiveness Factor	17.0	17.1	17.2	.66	NS
Traditionalism Factor	21.0	20.8	20.7	1.06	NS
N =	308	534	1289	-	-

NS = Not Significant   xx = $p < .05$

SUMMARY

Therefore, out of the demographic and other variables of
relevance, it was found that only four demographic variables
were related to "viewing" the television programmes or not,
i.e. the experimental and control groups.

They were:

        1.   Age
        2.   Class
        3.   Socio-economic Status
        4.   Residential Area.

2) <u>Pearson Product Moment Correlation</u>

The next step was to find out whether any of those demographic
variables were related to the "change" in the dependent
variables: attitude, image and information.

Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was applied on
each of the dependent variable scales and the demographic
variables. No significant relationships were found between
the demographic variables and the dependent variable scales.
In fact, the coefficients were too low to be of any signi-
ficance. As an example, Table 40 presents the correlation ana-
lysis of the attitude disadvantages change scores and the
demographic variables.

The correlation analysis was also applied to the raw pre-
programme scores of the dependent variables and the demo-
graphic variables. Again, coefficients were too low to be
of any significance.

TABLE 40

Pearson Correlation of Demographic Variables with change
in Attitude (Disadvantages) for each group.

Group	Age	Class	Socio-Econ	School Perf.	Residential
Control (N = 255)	-.0491	.0850	-.0640	.1061	-.0756
Exp. 1 (N = 457)	.0166	.0388	-.0259	.0602	.0191
Exp. 2 (N = 1097)	-.0321	.0117	-.0676	-.0857	-.0104

FURTHER ANALYSES TO CHECK UP COMPARABILITY

Breakdown Analysis

Another argument that could be put forward regarding comparability
is that the actual differences between the experimental and
control groups might be found in the scores of the subjects
"before" the programmes at each level of the demographic variables.
For example, it might be argued that the attitude of the younger
age group differed from the older age group before the programmes
across the control and experimental groups.

To check this, a Breakdown Analysis was carried out on the raw
pre-programme initial scores of the pupils across the groups.
However, this was done separately on two age levels, two class
levels, three levels of socio-economic status, five levels of
school performance, two levels of residential area.

The results showed no significant differences of importance
in the initial scores of the subjects across the groups.

As an example, the results of the Breakdown Analysis on the
two age levels are presented in Table 41 .

TABLE 41

Breakdown of Pre-scores on Dependent Variables by Age
across the three groups.

Scales	Groups	AGE					
		15.9 years & below			16 years & above		
		$\bar{x}$	F ratio	Sign	$\bar{x}$	F ratio	Sign
Information	C	1.90			2.17		
	E_1	2.14	.6069	NS	2.15	.1150	NS
	E_2	2.20			2.23		
Image	C	17.14			17.23	.8989	NS
	E_1	17.52	1.8879	NS	17.59		
	E_2	17.48			17.50		
Attitude Advantage	C	15.35	.0513	NS	15.25	2.1356	NS
	E_1	15.41			15.33		
	E_2	15.43			15.75		
Attitude Disadvantages	C	17.09	1.5686	NS	17.36	.9856	NS
	E_1	16.61			16.80		
	E_2	16.58			16.98		
No. of Subjects	C	165			109		
	E_1	281			199		
	E_2	868			319		

Regression Analysis

To find out whether any of those demographic and other variables
of relevance added significantly to the variance of the change
scores of dependent variable scales, several multiple regression
analyses were done.

Two strategies were carried out. Dummy variables were created

from the experimental conditions, then:

a) the experimental conditions were entered at the
first step in the regression equation. The rest
of the variables were added at the following
steps to find whether they added significantly
to the variance, R^2. It was assumed that they
would not do so.

b) The variables were entered at the preliminary
steps of the regression equation. The experi-
mental conditions were entered at the final
steps to see whether they added significantly
to the variance, R^2. It was assumed that they
would.

This was done on the change scores of all the dependent variables:
attitude advantages and disadvantages, image and information.

The first thing noted was that the correlation coefficients of
the chosen variables with the "change scores" of the dependent
variables were very low (as was found in the previous section).

There was one "consistent" feature in all the analyses. The
experimental groups always accounted for the largest proportion
of the variance, whether entered at the first steps of the
regression equation or the last steps. This applied to all
the dependent variables, so the assumptions made were correct.

It can be said that viewing the television programmes accounted
for the largest proportion of the variance over and above all
the other measured variables. However, it has to be noted that
although the above assumption can be considered true, the total
variance accounted for by all the variables chosen to be inclu-
ded, plus the experimental conditions, was very small.

As an example, Table 42 presents the results of the multiple
regression analysis on the change scores of the attitude
advantages scale.

TABLE 42

Multiple Regression Analysis of Attitude Advantages Scale, Change Score and the Relevant Variables.

STEP	VARIABLE ENTERED	F TO ENTER OR REMOVE	SIGN	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	R SQUARE CHANGE	SIMPLE R	OVERALL F	SIGN
STEP 1	1. Ex. Group 2	16.92194	.000	.09632	.00928	.00928	.09632	16.92194	.000
	2. Ex. Group 1	4.33107	.038	.10793	.01165	.00237	-.03581	10.64210	.000
	3. Traditionalism Scale	8.45850	.004	.12751	.01626	.00461	.06354	9.94353	.000
	4. Residential Area	5.27990	.022	.13831	.01913	.00287	-.05231	8.79531	.000
	5. Class	2.69949	.101	.14351	.02060	.00147	-.03890	7.58277	.000
	6. Whether Father works	2.15836	.142	.14754	.02177	.00117	-.04134	6.68276	.000
	7. Progressiveness Scale	1.17238	.279	.14968	.02240	.00064	-.01871	5.89611	.000
	8. Have friend in Nursing	.80725	.369	.15113	.02284	.00044	.01446	5.25945	.000
STEP 2	9. School performance	.19172	.662	.15148	.02295	.00010	-.02363	4.69427	.000
	10 Have t.v. at home	.23331	.629	.15190	.02307	.00013	.00397	4.24638	.000
	11 Socio-Economic Status	.10835	.742	.15209	.02313	.00006	-.02586	3.86828	.000
	12 Age	.06434	.800	.15220	.02317	.00003	-.02764	3.54944	.000
	13 Medical Resistances Scale	.04278	.836	.15228	.02319	.00002	.00721	3.27795	.000
	14 Have relative in Nursing	.02462	.875	.15232	.02320	.00001	-.00056	3.04391	.000

F.   PREDICTIVE ANALYSIS

a)   A study of the relationship of the dependent variables with other predictor variables.

The results from the previous sections strongly suggest
that the television programmes must have had some impact
as reflected in the changes in the attitudes, image and
information of the subjects who watched them. While the
tests of relationship showed no specific independent vari-
able that could be related to this change, it was still
decided to find out once more whether any of the indepen-
dent variables measured (demographic and other relevant
variables) could best predict this change.

As the experimental group two (who saw two or three pro-
grammes) showed the largest amount of change, it was
decided to run a multiple regression analysis on the
attitude change scores of this group as the dependent
variable, and see which of the independent variables chosen
accounted for the largest proportion of the variance.

The independent variables which were chosen to be entered
into the regression equation were basically the same ones
described earlier: the demographic variables of age, socio-
economic status, etc., and the media and topic related
variables like having a friend or relative in nursing,
having a television set, cultural resistances scales, etc.
Moreover, from the pool of questions administered to the
pupils during the course of the study, it was thought
interesting to include some other questions assumed to be
predictors of change. These were an academic confidence
(anxiety) scale, and Inkles and Smith's (1974) mini-
modernity scale items.

The academic confidence (anxiety) scale was made up
of six items measured in the personality inventory
(questionnaire): "Does it bother you?". These items
were used, together with other items, to bury the medi-
cal resistances items in that questionnaire. (See
Appendices E and N for the general frequencies and card
layout of these items). When all the items of this
questionnaire were factor analysed, these six items fell
into one factor with an eigenvalue of 1.74. Their load-
ings in descending order of magnitude were:

"not being able to concentrate"   (.59)

"having no self confidence"   (.44)

"being unpractical"   (.35)

"my schoolwork is bad"   (.34)

"not being able to complete work
started"   (.34)

and   "being scolded by the teacher"   (.34)

The responses on these items were added for each subject
and entered as one score.

Inkles and Smith's mini-modernity scale items were entered
as separate items but in one step in the regression equation.
The items were:

qualifications required for an important job;

vital aspects for national development;

attitude to contraceptives;

tolerance of foreign habits;

type of news enjoyed.

(See appendices F and P for the general frequencies and
card layout of these items.)

As it was found in the previous section, the variances
were low. However, one consistent feature that showed up

was that the cultural resistances scales, the traditional-
ism and progressiveness scales accounted for the largest
proportion of the variance. This happened whether all the
variables were entered in one step and no specific sequence
was asked for, and when blocking in relation to temporal
sequence (from childhood to adulthood) was requested. The
variance accounted for by those two scales was significant,
but this could be due to the large number of respondents.

Although it can be said that the cultural resistances scales
account for the largest proportion of the variance in rela-
tion to the attitude "change scores", and at least in this
study can be considered as the best predictors of change,
care has to be taken when making psychological inference
because the total amount of variance accounted for is low.

Not being able to predict"change"from any of the variables
measured, another attempt was made to find out whether we
can predict the position of the subjects' attitude before
the programme (raw"initial"attitude scores) from the inde-
pendent variables measured.

The results showed exactly the same feature as the analysis
above. The cultural resistances scale accounted for the
largest proportion of the variance, but again the total
amount of variance accounted for was quite low.

Tables 43 and 44 present the results of the multiple
regression analysis of change in attitude, and initial
attitude (of Experimental Group 2) with the independent
variables.

TABLE 43

Multiple Regression Analysis of Attitude Advantages Change Score with Independent Variables.

STEP	VARIABLE ENTERED	F TO ENTER OR REMOVE	SIGN	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	R SQUARE CHANGE	SIMPLE R	OVER-ALL F	SIGN
1.	Socio-Economic Status	.00184	.966	.00130	.00000	.00000	-.00130	.00184	.966
2.	Whether Father works	1.02427	.312	.03061	.00094	.00094	-.03034	.51306	.599
3.	Residential Area	1.79698	.180	.05076	.00258	.00164	-.04113	.94128	.420
4.	School Performance	.50979	.475	.05516	.00304	.00047	-.02193	.83309	.504
5.	Class	3.65568	.056	.07982	.00637	.00333	-.05797	1.39923	.222
6.	Age	1.26716	.261	.08675	.00753	.00115	-.04257	1.37750	.221
7.	Academic Anxiety Scale	.00489	.944	.08678	.00753	.00000	-.00893	1.18034	.311
8.	Traditionalism Scale	4.70048	.030	.10862	.01180	.00427	.06699	1.62386	.114
9.	Progressiveness Scale	2.05577	.152	.11690	.01366	.00187	-.03430	1.67326	.091
10.	Modernity Scale Items	.15638	.693	.11740	.01378	.00012	-.01293	1.17379	.290
		.85492	.355	.12039	.01449	.00071	.03266		
		.15715	.692	.12078	.01459	.00010	-.01793		
		.29367	.588	.12201	.01489	.00030	.00870		
		.08087	.776	.12231	.01496	.00007	-.00246		
11	Medical Resistances Scale	.42213	.516	.12387	.01534	.00038	-.01134	1.12309	.330
12	Have a relative in Nursing	.80189	.371	.12679	.01608	.00073	.02109	1.10283	.347
13	Have a friend in Nursing	.20767	.649	.12753	.01626	.00019	.01620	1.04941	.401
14	Have a t.v. or not	.00348	.953	.12755	.01627	.00000	-.00111	.99039	.468

TABLE 44

Multiple Regression Analysis of Attitude Advantage Initial Score with Independent Variables.

STEP	VARIABLE ENTERED	F TO ENTER OR REMOVE	SIGN	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	R SQUARE CHANGE	SIMPLE R	OVER-ALL F	SIGN
1.	Socio Economic Status	.09452	.759	.00929	.00009	.00009	-.00929	.09452	.759
2.	Whether Father works	6.68744	.010	.07850	.00616	.00608	.07511	3.39123	.034
3.	Residential Area	.06153	.804	.07885	.00622	.00006	.00866	2.27939	.078
4.	School Performance	0.23112	.631	.08017	.00643	.00021	-.01161	1.76612	.133
5.	Class	.16205	.687	.08109	.00658	.00015	.00943	1.44422	.206
6.	Age	6.20752	.013	.11046	.01220	.00563	.07135	2.24385	.037
7.	Academic Anxiety Scale	3.79656	.052	.12503	.01563	.00343	-.05591	2.47060	.016
8.	Traditionalism Scale	13.68609	.000	.16692	.02786	.01223	-.09755	3.89772	.000
9.	Progressiveness Scale	33.76098	.000	.23905	.05715	.02928	.16886	7.32018	.000
10	Modernity Scale Items	1.37304	.242	.24138	.05827	.00112	-.03788	5.08271	.000
		1.69234	.194	.24414	.05960	.00134	-.05650		
		.33395	.563	.24522	.06013	.00053	-.02158		
		.00186	.966	.24524	.06014	.00001	-.00740		
		1.80639	.179	.24841	.06171	.00157	-.03590		
11	Medical Resistances Scale	.77645	.378	.24976	.06238	.00067	.00140	4.79465	.000
12	Have a relative in Nursing	3.11902	.078	.25511	.06508	.00270	-.04918	4.69873	.000
13	Have a friend in Nursing	1.16907	.280	.25708	.06609	.00101	-.03246	4.49180	.000
14	Have a t.v. or not	.68296	.409	.25823	.06668	.00059	.03024	4.27895	.000

b)   <u>A study of the relationship of choosing to become
       a nurse with other predictor variables</u>.

As explained in Chapter VIII Section G, the variables
chosen for testing in this study were not only general
statements, but questions pertinent to liking or not
liking to become a nurse. Therefore, the next step was
to find out whether we can discriminate between a nurse
and a non-nurse by the questions measured in these
questionnaires.

It was decided to carry out a Discriminant Function
Analysis on some variables that were thought to   dis-
criminate between someone who would choose nursing and
one who would not. The variables that were thought rele-
vant were:

        the subjects' position on the dependent
        variable scales, attitude, information
        and image of nursing;

        the demographic variables;

        the media and topic related variables,
        cultural and medical resistances scales, etc;

        academic confidence (anxiety) scale and
        the rank ordering of a nurse in relation
        to social prestige;

plus   other variables measured in the "School and
        Work" questionnaire that were thought to
        be of relevance.

This included items such as whether the subject liked an intel-
lectual(or practical job;   adventure or security in a
job;   a job that required being well dressed or not;

whether she preferred to go to College after school,
or to get a job immediately; whether she would still
work after marriage. Other items questioned whether
she liked school, her relationship with the teacher,
whether she liked health science subjects and television
programmes on this topic.

The dependent variable in the Discriminate Function
Analysis was whether the respondent involved
chose to become a nurse, or chose some other job category.
To start with, the analysis was carried out on the
group who chose to become nurses before the television
programmes (N = 133), and those who chose to become
lawyers (N = 113). It was thought that the lawyer's
job would be an interesting one to start with in the
discriminant analysis, as it is an intellectual job
and as the percentage of subjects who chose it is close
to those who chose nursing.

There are basically three points to look into in the
analysis:

> 1. The percentage of subjects correctly
>   classified.
>
> 2. The best predictor variables.
>
> 3. Cross-validation of the results.

This last point is not relevant in this study as we are
dealing with the actual population of that year and not
a sample. However, it would be interesting if some
other study used these results to do a cross-validation
study in another year and on a similar population.

The results of the analysis on comparing those who chose
to become a nurse or a lawyer were as follows:

The %age of subjects correctly classified

	N	Predicted Nurse	Lawyer
Nurse	133	79%	21%
Lawyer	113	19%	81%

Therefore 79.9% of cases were correctly classified.

The best predictor variables were:

Variable	Standard Discriminant Function Co-efficient
Choose college/job	.54
Academic confidence anxiety scale	.49
Dress well for work	.45
Socio-economic status	.32
Attitude Disadvantages	.28
Progressiveness Scale	.24
Residential area	.23

The means of this analysis showed us that, in general, the
subjects who chose a nurse's versus a lawyer's job wanted
to get a job immediately after school, were more academic-
ally self conscious, liked being smartly dressed for work,
were lower on the socio-economic scale, had more favourable
attitudes (disadvantages) to nursing, were less prog-
ressive in their outlook on womens' role than lawyers
and more of them were non-town dwellers.

The same analysis was repeated on the subjects who chose
nursing and those who said they "didn't know" (N = 150).

The percentage of subjects correctly classified(76%) was
approximately the same as the one for nurse versus
lawyer. However, some other predictor variables
turned out to be relevant here. In descending order
of magnitude, those who chose nursing versus those who
said they "didn't know" had more friends in nursing,
were slightly older, showed a more favourable attitude
towards nursing (advantages), and more correct infor-
mation, wanted to work after marriage and did not like
school.

Comparing those who chose nursing after the television
programmes (N = 128) and those who said they "won't work"
(N = 282), the percentage of subjects correctly classified
(74%)was again approximate to the comparisons above, but
further predictor variables were identified. The pupils
who chose nursing were academically weaker performers,
a little more traditional, and liked a practical - not
intellectual - type of job.

These are some of the examples of the characteristics
(based on our measures) which best discriminate between
a potential nurse and one who chooses another job. There
are several comparisons that could be made and which
could show other relevant predictor variables. If all
possible comparisons are made and a note of the variables
that consistently show is drawn up, we can have a set
of variables to be used for cross-validation at a later
stage. However, this is beyond the scope of this study.

Problem of "Change Scores"

Whenever "change scores" are used, one has to take into account
the fallacy known as the "Regression Fallacy". In general,
this means that "measures of characteristics are generally
expected to regress towards the mean under certain measurement
conditions." (Marascuilo, 1971). It has always been argued
that the major problem in working directly with change scores
is that they are open to this regression effect.

One way of avoiding this problem is a suggestion to use
"residual change scores" instead of raw change scores. As is
explained by Nunnally, "residual change scores consist of
deviations of scores on a second occasion from those predicted
by regression analysis from knowledge of scores on a first
occasion." Thus in this figure drawn below, all the scores
above the regression line would have positive residual change
scores, and all those below the regression line would have
negative residual change scores.
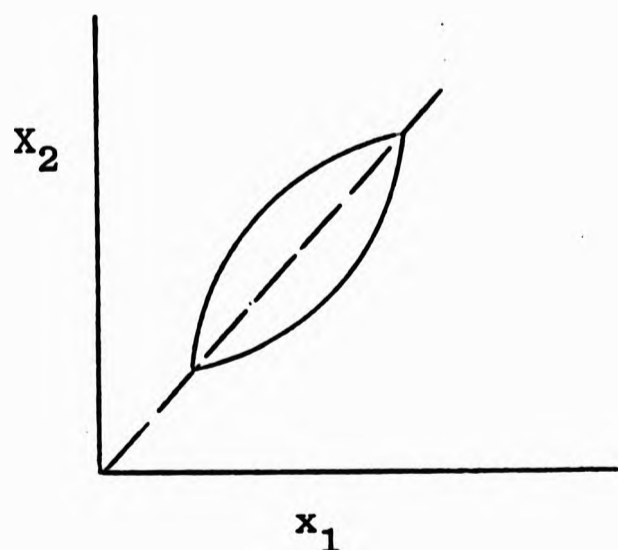
The argument goes on that the advantage of working with
residual scores is that they overcome the regression effect
which is definitely associated with absolute change scores
$(X_1 - X_2)$. However, there are still a number of problems

with the residual scores themselves:-

(a)   Finding the best way to compute them is still
        under intense argumentation;

(b)   They have several other conceptual and psycho-
        metric problems.

Lord (1963); Cronbanch and Furby (1970) and others have
discussed those problems in detail, and have suggested several
alternative formulæ for measuring change besides the traditional
ones used. But there is no concurrent trend on the best formula
to be used.

As the necessity for using "change scores" in this study was un-
avoidable, a lot of thought was given to the problem of whether
to use them in their "absolute forms" or to calculate and use
"residual scores", although the latter still have controversial
problems surrounding them. A careful look at the available data
showed that it is not absolutely necessary to calculate residual
scores to overcome regression bias in this study.

What is usually found when dealing with change scores is that
there is a negative correlation between the initial score of
the subject on an item and the change score. In simple terms,
this is usually due to the fact that, when the subjects choose
an extreme score on a scale (like a five or a one on a five-
point Likert scale) in their initial test, the possibility
for them to move in the next test is only towards the middle
of the scale, as opposed to the subject who initially chooses
a middle score. This creates the bias of negative correlation.
Although this applies mostly to single-item scales, for example
(1 - 5), and less to multi-item scales, for example (5 - 25)
or whatever, still it has to be considered.

The correlation coefficients of the raw initial attitude score
and the change score for each item and individual were calculated.
The results showed the predicted problem:

(a) The correlation between the "change scores" and the
initial score was negative;

(b) There was a high correlation between the initial
scores and the change scores. The mean was $r = -.60$

There are basically two dangers related to those results:

1. The danger of this high correlation becomes relevant
when one is trying to attribute "change" to other
characteristics like age, socio-economic status, etc.
Here, the fact that the change score is highly
correlated with the initial score has to be taken into
account. For example, the difference in "change scores"
between two age or class groups might not necessarily
be due to the independent variable (the television
programme), but to the initial positions of those
groups as well, as these are highly correlated with the
change score.

In the case of the general effectiveness analysis, little
evidence was found for this bias in this study, as the
initial raw scores on all the relevant items did not
differ greatly among the relevant groups, as it was shown
in the comparability studies.

2. The danger associated with the negative correlation aspect
of the regression was also considered not to be a major
problem for this study. Researchers usually transfer
their absolute change scores to residual change scores
when their results on the effectiveness of the independant
variable are found to be mushy and undecisive. The
regression towards the mean fallacy makes the net result
of the possible effectiveness of a campaign (for example)
a rather conservative, if not negligible one, if not
corrected. In the case of this study, even without
correcting the absolute to residual change scores, the
results in relation to the effectiveness of the campaign
were in the majority of cases quite "clear cut."

Therefore, as the best formula to calculate "residual change" scores is still controversial, and as the data show that the initial raw means of the relevant group do not diverge greatly from each other, and as the results pointing to the effectiveness of the programmes (even without correction) are quite clear cut, it was decided not to get involved with the problem of working with residual change scores, but to stick to absolute change scores. However, it is important to keep in mind the limitations and biases discussed earlier.

CHAPTER XI

CONCLUSIONS, EVALUATION AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter we shall try to summarize and pull together
the main findings of the study and discuss them, on the basis
of the chapter-by-chapter findings already presented.

The question as to whether television can make intended changes
in audiences' attitudes, information levels, intentions and (or)
behaviour is as yet highly controversial, and there are partic-
ular problems associated with the impact of mass media campaigns
on young people.

Part of the problem is in the nature of a methodological con-
troversy. Field experiments in naturalistic settings tend to
be poorly controlled, so it is difficult to be sure that any
shifts observed can be reliably attributed to the impact of
the television campaign, while, on the other hand, laboratory
experiments may be better controlled but tend to be conducted
in settings and with arrangements which are so artificial that
it is difficult to know to what extent their findings can be
generalized to the potential impact of television campaigns
on the air.

One of the important findings of the present study is that it
was entirely conducted in naturalistic settings and with
subjects who were unaware of the objectives of the campaign,
while at the same time special care was taken in the design of
the study not only to make possible comparisons between those
who had seen one or more of the campaign programmes and those
who had not, but also to compare those who had seen a single
programme with those who had seen more than one. Against this
must be put the possible bias due to self-selection of each

audience, but, as we have seen in Chapter X Section E, there
are virtually no indications of such a bias when comparing
the three groups on a number of relevant pre-existing variables.

Another controversial aspect of the literature on the impact
of television campaigns lies in the relevance of the contents
and appeal qualities of the campaign itself to the existing
attitudes, information levels, and motives of the audience.
Many campaigns have failed through insufficient knowledge
about the precise positions from which the audiences were
asked to shift; others have failed through not taking into
account the resistances to change present in the audience,
while still others contained appeals which were insufficiently
appropriate either to members of the target audience or to
their significant others. In all these respects, earlier
campaigns in Bahrain conducted with the same objectives had
failed and it is partly because of our meticulous attention
to the pre-existing positions, information levels, motives,
attitudes, expectations and, above all, culturally-embedded
resistances, that the present study has succeeded.

A.   WHY DID THIS CAMPAIGN SUCCEED WHERE OTHERS HAVE FAILED?

The first point to note is that one of the important factors
in determining the success of a mass media campaign is the
"expectations" with which the study is approached.

As discussed in Chapter VI, mass media researchers nowadays
do not approach a campaign with the notion of "the all-powerful
media" in mind. It is an accepted fact that the media alone
cannot "sweep people off their feet". The audiences of a
mass media campaign are no longer considered as passive,
motionless targets but as active participants in the total
communication process. Several intervening variables have to
be accounted for, when considering media effects. However,
while some researchers regarded these intervening

variables as "obstacles" in the way of successful campaigns, others have concentrated on understanding them and accepting them as an integral part of any mass communication situation.

This study was approached with full awareness of the limitations of mass media capabilities. However, a lot of effort was made towards understanding and influencing the intervening variables, based on our own research findings and other guidelines available.

It is with these expectations in mind, with an outline of modest objectives, and with a delineation of specific elements of success (in their limited manifestations), that we can account for the outcome of this campaign.

The five literature survey chapters have carefully dealt with most aspects of mass communication effectiveness from the theoretical and the practical point of view. The review culminated in a step-by-step analysis of the possible reasons for the failures and successes of mass media campaigns. The summary sketch framework presented at the end of Chapter VI was preceded by a discussion of the elements and variables that are within the control of the designer of a media campaign, what strategies can be deduced from previous research, and what is still largely unknown in this field and needs further research. This analysis of persuasive mass media communications was used in a systematic manner for the design of this campaign and will be of practical use to anyone attempting to design a mass media campaign. If each of the elements discussed in the framework is considered carefully, the probability of the success of a campaign would be greatly enhanced.

<u>Outline of Framework</u>:

I   The Communication Situation and External Events.
II   Psychological Elements in the Audience:
         ⌐→   Predispositions
         ⌐→   Selectivity
III   Communications Elements:
         A.   Source
         B.   Message Content
IV   Channel/Message Presentation and Distribution
V   Chanel Mix
VI   Researcher-Broadcaster co-operation
VII   Methodological Elements.

Retracing our steps in dealing with the problem of this study, we shall present possible explanations for the success of the campaign:

1.   A careful review and application of the literature in relation to the theories and strategies of attitude change and the intervening variables of a mass communication situation.

2.   Application of the causes of the failures and successes of previous campaigns to a framework of intervening variables and problems that have to be dealt with; specification of what can be controlled by the communicator and what has to be deduced from previous research findings.

3.   An elaborate pre-study of the target audiences. This involved:

         a)   An examination of the 'true' problem of the campaign and the audiences' positions in relation to the topic of the campaign;

         b)   A study of the audiences' mass communication

habits, uses of the media and their tastes and
behaviour patterns;

c) An examination of the cultural values and
beliefs and other variables that were thought
to be relevant to theme development, in partic-
ular the resistances to be overcome.

4. Delineation of clear-cut and limited campaign objectives
on the basis of the findings above and the choice of the
most suitable theoretical and applied strategy to approach
the target audiences to create the effect desired.

5. The development and careful selection of the themes of
the campaign on the basis of the results of the pre-
studies, using the framework designed for the study.

6. Continuous researcher-broadcaster co-operation in the
making of the programmes. The broadcaster accepted
the researcher's judgement of the audience involved and the
theme development as well as the criticisms from the feed-
back after each programme. On the other hand, the
researcher was fully dependent on the producer in
conveying the message with artistic and creative skills
and using innovative presentation formats.

7. The choice of a practical research design to measure
and evaluate the effectiveness of the campaign.

8. Access to the schools for measurement, and the co-
operation of all the Ministries involved.

B.   SUMMARY OF THE MAIN RESULTS

The results of this research showed that properly researched
and appropriately designed persuasive television programmes
(campaigns) are capable of enhancing information acquisition
and modifying attitudes and behaviour, at least in our
particular case.

A summary of the findings in relation to the set objectives
of the study would seem to justify the above conclusion.

1.   Attitude Change:

The attitude towards the nursing vocation for both the
advantages and disadvantages factors (as measured by the
items of our research instrument) showed a significant
positive shift in the experimental groups and none in the
control group from before to after the television programmes.

2.   Information Level:

For items included in the programmes, there was a significantly
larger increase in the information level of the experimental
groups than the control group from before to after the tele-
vision programmes.

3.   Image Change:

The social image of the nursing vocation (as measured by the
items of our research instrument) showed a larger and significant
positive shift in the experimental group 2 than the control
group from before to after the television programmes.

4.   Behavioural Intention (intention to enrol in Nurse
       Training:

For experimental group 2 (those who saw two or more of the
television programmes) there was a significant increase in the
percentage of the pupils who declared that they intended to

join nursing (from 7% before the programmes to 11% after the programmes). There was a decrease in the percentage of the control group and no change in experimental group 1 (who saw one programme only)*.

5.   Behaviour Change:

There was a larger percentage of female applicants to the nursing vocation for the campaign year as compared to the preceding year (see table 25).

In addition, officials of the Nursing School claimed that immediately after the campaign programmes ten pupils showed up in the school asking for application forms. It was also claimed that the applicants in the campaign year generally showed a higher academic ability than the previous years. Comparing the educational quality of the applicants of the campaign year with preceding years was one of the set objectives of the study; however, the records available were not sufficient to give objective comparative proof that the applicants of the campaign year were of better academic ability. Nevertheless, the officials of the school considered that their educational quality was better.

Changes in the Control Group

One of the important points to note when referring to these results is that the control group was not isolated from the other groups. Not watching any of the television programmes did not mean that no interaction might have occurred between the control group and the other groups at any time between the pre-tests and post-tests. Interaction regarding the campaign topic could have taken place at home (with family or relatives who might have seen the programmes), or in school with friends and (or) teachers. This interaction may have contributed to the slight change in the information level and image of the nursing vocation in the control group.

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* The results for experimental group 1 will be discussed later.

This possibility for interaction between the control group and the experimental groups is relevant to studies carried out in complete naturalistic settings. In a laboratory situation, no change is expected to occur in the control group, as all the intervening variables are fully controlled. In a completely naturalistic setting the effectiveness of the programmes can only be measured as the change in the experimental groups over and above any changes in the control group (having checked the comparability of all the relevant characteristics of the groups concerned.

Although there was a slight change in the information level and image score of the control group, there was no change in their attitudes.

Some psychologists (see Emmett, 1965) have always argued that attitudes are very stubborn concepts, much more stubborn than they are believed to be; this might explain why we observed no change in them in subjects who did not see any of the television programmes.

The Impact of Several versus a Single Programme

One of the interesting findings of the study was that the effectiveness of the television programmes seemed to be related to the number of programmes seen. One 15-30 minutes' television programme seemed to produce inconsistent results. Some of the subjects who saw one programme shifted favourably, while others did not. However, when two or more programmes had been viewed, the results were consistent throughout, showing a definite and significant impact in the intended direction.

For simplifying the Analyses of the Main Results, we combined the respondents who saw 2-3 television programmes into one group (Experimental Group 2). However, it is interesting to note that there was a "graduated" and significant difference in the information image and attitudes if we divided Experimental Group 2 into those who saw 2 programmes only and those who saw 3 programmes. This further reinforces this finding that the impact of the programmes is partly related to the number of programmes seen. (See Appendix X, p. 555).

C.   DISCUSSION

In considering the validity and importance of our findings,
we should now consider a number of possible objections and
criticisms. Such objections might come from research workers
in different traditions (for example, from experimentalists
rather than survey researchers) or from critics who make
different assumptions or have different expectations (for example,
concerning the persuasibility of young adolescents). Those
criticisms were referred to in Chapters V and VII while dis-
cussing the effectiveness of mass media campaigns and the method-
ological problems facing such campaigns. We shall list a number
of possible criticisms and consider each of them in the light
of the evidence from the present study.

1.   Change chould have been due to unimportance of the
        topic, or to unfamiliarity with it.

2.   Change could have been due to persuasibility character-
        istics of the audience.

3.   That there was re-inforcement, but no "effects".

4.   Methodological criticisms.

1.   In Chapter V it was explained that television campaigns
can enhance information and change attitudes if the topic of the
campaign is new, unfamiliar or unimportant, and if the attitudes
held towards it are weak and not ego-involving. This argument
may apply to a number of studies but it is not true of the present
one, for the following reasons:

        a) there had been several television programmes
            about nursing before this campaign, so it
            cannot be regarded as a new and unfamiliar
            topic.

b) Deciding what career to choose can be one of the most important decisions in life, so attitudes towards it cannot be considered as weak and unimportant.

Some critics have argued that political mass media campaigns showed little effects compared, for example, to selling a new brand of soap because of the high ego-involvement of the audience with political behaviour and its social consequences, while buying a new soap brand had only minor social consequences.

Taking into account the Bahraini womens' cultural resistances and traditionally held beliefs, the decision for a "culturally fit" job can be considered as highly ego-involving, and with more relevant social consequences than a political campaign in a Western culture. Besides, the target audience was tested at a time when the decision on a job choice was very salient.

2. Another counter-argument could be that the change measured was due to the persuasibility characteristics of the audience. First, it should be recalled that no significant correlations were found between change in attitudes, image or information and any of the demographic and other variables of relevance, such as age, school grade, socio-economic status, school performance, intelligence, residential area, anxiety level and traditionalism measures. So it cannot be argued (at least in this case) that any of the above characteristics could be responsible for the change measured.

However, it can be argued that adolescent female pupils might have an uncritical attachment to the mass media and that this might have facilitated the change. McGuire (1969) suggested that maximum suggestibility was generally found at about eight or nine years of age; his evidence indicated that, after the age of nine and until adolescence, there was a decided decline in suggestibility, after which it levelled off. Noble (1975), basing his experiments on Piaget's developmental theory, argued that the age of maximum vulnerability to television propaganda was

actually about ten to eleven years. He carried out a pilot
study on the developmental trends in childrens' perceptions
of the televised labour force. On the basis of his results
on age differences and susceptibility to televised propaganda,
he came to the following conclusion:

> "At about twelve years, children use relative
> standards in thought and from considerable distance
> compare what they have seen with other propaganda..."
>
> (p. 120).

Noble considered twelve years as the turning point in the child's
life as related to attitude change and television propaganda:
before that age, children are still quite susceptible, but after
it they become more critical.

The age range of the subjects of this study was 13 to 20 years,
with a mean of 16 years. This is above the critical vulner-
ability and susceptibility age levels and so unlikely that they
have an uncritical attachment to the media.

3.   Another of the counter-arguments that could be raised
is that our television programmes merely reinforced pre-existing
positions and did not change them. It is not always easy to
distinguish between "reinforcement" and "effect". It seems that
in this study we have a bit of both. The power of the mass
media campaigns to reinforce existing beliefs is accepted by
almost all mass media researchers.

However, the ability of mass media campaigns only to reinforce
and not to convert is emphasized by psychologists who have
different expectations of media effectiveness and who stress
the minimal power of the media to influence attitudes and
behaviour (see McGuire - 1969, Klapper - 1960, and others).
As discussed in Chapter V, Larson (1964) argued that the
reinforcement effects of the mass media are emphasized because
of lack of evidence of conversion effects. He stressed that

what is probably being overlooked is that "encouragement of constancy" or reinforcement may be an important effect in itself; reinforcement should not be regarded as "no effect", as it involves maintaining a position which could have been changed in the opposite direction in the absence of the campaign stimulus. This argument is also stressed by Miller & Burgoon (1973) who suggested that a new look at the concept of persuasion and influence is now necessary (see page144).

In the case of this study, a number of points have to be clarified. An analysis of the target audiences' positions on the topic of the campaign (as discussed in Chapter VIII) were favourable on the majority of the items before the campaign was started. The campaign themes were therefore designed not to change those positions but to present a remodelled image of nursing and a new motivation for action. If the campaign acted as a reinforcing agent only, then we would expect the positions of the target audiences to have remained favourable, and not to have moved in the opposite direction. On the majority of items, the subjects showed a shift in intensity from favourable to more favourable. According to some analysts, this would be considered as reinforcement only, while according to others it is regarded as a definite impact. However, there were some items which had divergent responses from the subjects to start with. After the programmes, there was a clear change in the positions of the subjects on those items from unfavourable to more favourable, especially in the experimental group who saw two or more programmes.

4. Methodological Criticisms: One of the major arguments about the effects of mass communications concerns differences in the methodological situations. Hovland (1959) explained that the positive findings on mass communication effects found in laboratory experiments might be due to:

a) Absence of self-selected exposure;
b) Immediate measurement after the communication
c) Absence of counterbalancing communications.

McGuire (1969) considered such reasons as simply "salvaging" explanations for the measured minimal effects of media communications in real-life situations.

The results of our study seem to show that, despite the interplay of variables in a real-life situation, it has been possible to measure the effectiveness of the mass communication by means of a careful research design.

To evaluate this design, we shall quote Haskin's (1970) step-by-step requirements for a valid campaign evaluation (as presented in Chapter VII) and discuss where this research has succeeded or failed in fulfilling those requirements.

The characteristics necessary to measure the true effects of mass media communications in the real world (according to Haskins) are:

1) "Natural communications should prevail during the research".

   a)   Representatives of the target population did get normal messages through an accustomed medium in their usual surroundings.

   b)   The message distribution was unobtrusive and the subjects were unaware of any special research purpose of the communication. The messages were presented by familiar spokesmen (ordinary student nurses).

   c)   The usual processes of selective attention and incidental learning were operative. Noise, in the form of competing stimuli and messages, other persons and social interaction as in everyday life, was present.

What makes this study relevant to the controversy over the effectiveness of television programmes was its capacity to

measure the effectiveness of a specifically designed campaign
in a completely naturalistic, yet controlled, setting. The
target audiences of the campaign were not removed from their
everyday situations into a laboratory. Yet access to them for
measurement could be obtained at several points, and it was
possible to measure their reactions to the programmes within
a few days of the showing of the last programme. Moreover,
the manipulation of the dependent variables was done without
the subjects knowing the true purpose of the research. The
aim throughout was to produce findings which would be general-
izable to everyday life.

Although a degree of control equal to that of a tight laboratory
experiment was not possible (as will be explained later), and
the costs were relatively high, it is important to weigh the
advantages of including the complex interactions of variables
that occur in true-life situations. The inferences from those
interactions and relationships can add to our knowledge of mass
media effects.

Generalizability

Measuring the effects in a real-life situation necessarily
implies that the findings should be more generalizable than
those obtained in the laboratory. What can, and what cannot,
be generalized from this research?

i.   It can be claimed that the results show that
     carefully designed programmes can have an effect
     of enhancing information and changing attitudes,
     but it has to be remembered that the samples
     measured in this study consisted of adolescent
     female pupils, so while the results can be safely
     generalized to an adolescent population, one has
     to be careful when generalizing the results to an
     adult population.

ii.   The programmes designed would be effective from
year to year and are not unique or specific to the
campaign year. (They were actually put on the air
in the year following the campaign for recruiting
more nurses).

iii.   The results seemed to show that at least two or
three 15/30 minutes' programmes are needed to
produce the desired impact. One 15/30 minutes'
television programme produced conflicting results.

iv.   The specific style and appeal of the programmes
might be limited to a developing Arab country;
however, the framework designed to decide what
type of appeal and strategy to choose, depending
on the characteristics of the target audience,
the external events and the communication situation
(as presented in Chapter VI) is generalizable to
any attempted mass media campaign in any culture.
The theoretical generalizations are discussed later.

2) Haskins' next requirement for a valid campaign is that:
"The relationship between cause and effect should be clear".

The measurement effects should be demonstrably due to the
communication treatment(s) and to nothing else.

When designing this study, special care was taken   to account
for possible weaknesses that might reduce the clarity of the
cause-and-effect relationship. Before discussing what was
done, it is relevant to consider the following points:

i.   As discussed in Chapter VII, to ensure external
validity and generalizability, one necessarily
tends to restrict the internal precision validity
of the study; this is a matter of relative
priorities.

ii.   When considering broadcasting effects, one should
        remind oneself of Klapper's (1959) warning about
        fallacious one-to-one cause and effect models of
        mass media research, and the temptation to see
        simple and direct effects of which broadcasting is
        treated as the "sole and sufficient cause".

Nevertheless, the chosen design of this study did attempt to
eliminate extraneous influences by having a control group,
comparable experimental and control groups, and by checking
for other influences such as reactivity due to instrumentation
(i.e. reactivity due to pre-testing).

Let us start with a major condition for a true experiment: the
random assignment of subjects to treatments. This was not poss-
ible in this study because it would have been too difficult to
prevent a specific group from watching the television programmes,
so the treatment groups were based on self-selective viewing.
It might be argued that, due to this self-selective process,
the results could be biased because of the unequivalence of the
groups. This is, however, an empirical question, which in our
case was anticipated by including relevant measures in the pre-
test battery.

Self-selectivity was not found to be a major source of bias in
this study, as was discussed in Chapter X. Briefly, the reasons
were as follows:

1. An analysis of the pre-test dependent variable scores
    showed no significant differences between the control
    and experimental groups in the attitudes of the pupils
    towards nursing.

2. Both the information and the nursing image scales showed
    a slight pre-test difference between the control and
    experimental groups, but this difference was only sig-
    nificant at the $p < .05$ level. Moreover, as explained in
    the results chapter, Section D, the "majority" of

individual items: 8 out of 9 information items and
4 out of 7 image items showed no significant differences
between the scores of the three groups before the pro-
grammes.

3. The demographic and other relevant variables showed no
   differences between the control and experimental groups
   except for the school class (grade) level, where more
   intermediate-class pupils viewed the programmes than
   secondary class pupils. However, as the age range of
   the intermediate class was between 13 - 18, this was not
   considered a major problem.

Two other strategies have helped to reduce the cause-effect
ambiguity of this study:

    i.   The use of additional measures of unintended
           effects, for comparison;

    ii.   The use of multiple indicators of change.

A number of measures were used to find out the effectiveness
of the campaign and change was found on almost every measure.
Moreover, for each measure of intended effect, there was
another control measure of unrelated change, to find how
specific the effects were. Over all those measures, there
was a significant change in the ones measuring the campaign's
effects, while there was no change in the measures of unrelated
effects.

Though this was a rather expensive technique, it rendered further
proof that the television programmes could produce their own
intended impacts.

3) "Measurement should be unobtrusive and valid."

Unobtrusive non-reactive measures should be used where possible
or, at the very least, no perceptible connection between
communication and measurement should be apparent. Special

care has been taken to ensure that the subjects of the campaign would not perceive the connection between the communication and the measurement: both the instruments of measurement and the purpose of the campaign were disguised, as discussed in detail in Chapter VIII.

a) The choice of the dependent variables was based on pertinance to criterion behaviour under investigation, rather than on convenience. It would have been simpler to choose very general measures regarding the topic of the campaign, as is usually the case in attitude scales. The intention of the campaign was to try to shift more specific resistances in the attitudes, social imagery and information concerning the nursing job. It was assumed that changing such specific resistances would be more difficult than changing general ideas about nursing; therefore, even slight changes would mean that some impact must have occurred.

b) The period between treatment and measurement should be long enough to show a long-term, as well as an immediate, effect. Although this was an intended objective of the original design, it was not possible to get a measure of long-term effect in this study. The delays that happened as a result of the television programmes pushed the time for the post-tests' measures to the last possible deadlines, and this meant that no further access could be obtained to the pupils at a later time. However, behavioural change in the long run did occur, though this change cannot be traced with certainty to the effects of the television programmes, as many intervening variables could have occurred after the post-test measures, but before applications for nursing training took place.

c) The question of a valid representative sample of the target population does not arise in this study. As Bahrain is a small country, it was possible to carry out the testing on the whole potential population.

d) There was a relatively good re-test rate, but it was not
as high as desired. Around 17% of the total number of
subjects were absent during the post-testing period.
However, this absenteeism was random, and no bias in
the results has occurred as a result of it, as discussed
in Chapter IX. Despite this loss of subjects, the numbers
of respondents remaining in each group was large enough
to show up even small changes in the measures.

4) Haskins' final requirement was that: "The total communi-
cations and research design should be accurately executed."
Haskins argued that the design of a valid campaign is relatively
easy, but that the execution of it is very laborious. The total
plan should be followed exactly, and any deviations should be
applied equally to all treatment groups.

It can be said that, as a whole, the plan of this campaign was
followed and that any deviations did apply equally to all treat-
ment groups. However, no campaign of this size moves smoothly,
no matter how much organization is done beforehand, and this
campaign is no exception. Some of the things that went wrong
as a result of administrative shortcomings were:

i. Only three out of the five designed television
programmes were put on the air on time. If more
programmes had been shown as intended, the effect-
iveness of the campaign might well have been
greater. On the other hand, it is not known at
what point repetition becomes useless, and by
using all five programmes we might have obtained
an answer to this question.

ii. The delay in creating the television programmes
led to absenteeism which could have been avoided
if the timing of the campaign had been adhered to
as originally planned. Forty-one subjects who
originally stated that they would have liked to

become nurses were absent during the post-testing and it would have been interesting to obtain their reactions to the t.v. programmes.

iii.   The same delay also necessitated the reduction of the contents of the post-tests to the minimum possible, so as to fit the whole questionnaire into one class period. This meant that interesting information, such as the social ranking of the jobs, and the cultural resistances scales could not be administered again.

iv.   Some information gathered at the beginning of the research to measure the academic calibre of the applicants to nursing became useless for comparative purposes as there was a change in the schools' grading system half-way through the research period.

v.   It was intended that the number of new applicants should be compared with the preceding two years, at least. However, due to changes in the filing system at the time, only the numbers of the applicants of the preceding year could be traced.

vi.   The decision to choose the whole target population for the study meant that the class teachers had to carry out the administration of the tests. This had its advantages and disadvantages. The main advantage was that the pupils did not have an intruder in their everyday surroundings, and the testing was carried out in completely naturalistic settings. The disadvantage was that some teachers might have biased the experimental situation by helping, etc. It has to be emphasised (as discussed in Chapter IX) that great care was taken by the researcher to maximize the objectivity of the testing situation. This involved a laborious preparation of detailed step-by-step sheets of instructions given to each class teacher, showing them exactly

how to deal with the questions, what examples to give,
etc. The researcher also met all the teachers person-
ally to emphasize the necessity of adhering strictly
to the instructions. However, it remains a possibility
that some of these instructions were not strictly
followed.

D. THEORETICAL COMMENTS

A discussion of the theoretical strategies of attitude-change
and their possible applications is presented in Chapter IV.

Our study did not set out to test a particular theory of
attitude change, but it did apply and make use of a specific
approach. It would therefore be interesting to note what
theoretical suggestions have arisen from this application.

When considering how to approach the target population, it was
decided to apply DeFleur's Socio-Cultural model of attitude
change to the theme-development and design. This was decided
because the culture being dealt with was not an individualistic
culture, but a deeply institutionalized religious culture,
where conformity to traditional roles and norms was the rule,
not the exception.

It was found that the underlying problem was not with the
nursing job itself, but with the social role of nursing as
compared to other jobs. In a developing country with old
cultural traditions, there are 'culturally fit' jobs and
'culturally unfit' jobs. Some characteristics of the nursing
job, such as the serving aspects and working during unsocial
hours, could have created low social status for nursing as
compared to other jobs such as teaching. Assuming that
incongruence and dissonance existed in the target population
between the social status of nursing versus its great humani-
tarian appeal, the problem was how to find a socially approved
way to reduce this dissonance and incongruence. Eventually,
it was decided to approach the target audience by making the
objective of persuasion (positive attitudes to nursing) appear
as a normative and approved aspect of society (so that a
dissonant element came to look like a consonant one).

Adopting De Fleur's strategy, this involved basically three steps:-

a) The t.v. message showed the adoption of the propagated nursing role to be normative in the relevant groups, and a non-adoptor was shown as deviant and non-conformist.

b) The social rewards and gratifications for the adoptor were stressed.

c) It was clarified how adoption could achieve group integration consistent with approved group norms and values.

Summary of theme development

The complete description of how the programme themes were developed using the above strategy was presented in Chapter VIII. We shall present here a summary of this section to help in the following discussion.

The television communications were directed not only at the pupils (target audiences) but also at their parents, brothers, sisters and other influential figures. The aim was to present a remodelled image of the nursing job consistent with the society's approved cultural norms and traditions. It was hoped that this approach would work on the basis of two assumptions:

i. If we present the role of the nurse in the approved cultural context, it would help avoid the antagonism of the traditional beliefs of the relevant groups;

ii. If the resistances to nursing were due to social pressures, then this remodelling of the nurse's job might help to neutralize this pressure, and thus reduce the social resistances facing the target population in their final choice.

The programme themes were developed along the following principles and needs:-

1. To satisfy the principle of consistency and congruity, the programmes presented the nursing job in a culturally and religiously approved role, yet one that is also relevant to the modern world. The themes avoided any aspect that conflicted with culturally approved moral and ethical standards. They portrayed the womens' role in the respected educational sphere and emphasized the security of the job.

2. To satisfy the cognitive needs of the pupils, the advantages of the nursing job were presented. It was shown as a job involving basic health knowledge, of use not only at work but also for friends, family and in the home. Other advantages were also emphasized, such as social and career mobility, chances to go overseas for further education and economic independence - but they were carefully presented within an accepted cultural mode.

3. To satisfy affective needs and gratifications, the programme emphasized the humanitarian appeal of real-life incidents in our society. Horrific sights of blood and disasters were avoided, but there was a low threat content in the message, referring to the consequences of ignorance of basic health problems. The affective needs for the "beautiful and aesthetic" (as suggested by McQuail, Blumler and Brown 1972) were conveyed in these programmes by the producer's skill in associating the appropriate visual effects with the message propagated, such as the angel-like figure of the nurse walking in the beautiful hospital gardens accompanied by the Arab poet's verses about a nurse; the smiling, paralyzed child in the push-chair; and the nurse consoling the old man accompanied by the Holy Qura'an verses.

4. To satisfy individual psychological and stability needs, the programmes emphasized how much this job has been

appreciated by religion, and by famous writers, while the
socially approved values of knowledge and education were
presented as characteristic of this job. Feelings of
personal identity and status were re-inforced by the human-
itarian appeals and the promise of a worthwhile job, and
conveying meaning to life and existence by making others
happy. The importance of friends and integration into a
group was also conveyed, together with the College atmos-
phere which is much respected in this society.

It can be argued that this was not necessarily the most effective
way of designing the campaign, and that there is no objective
proof that it was this type of approach versus, for example, one
based on individual decision making, that created the effect.

However, it is interesting to consider the answers of the pupils
from the panel study. They were asked what aspects of the pro-
grammes were, in their opinion, the most effective (the complete
analysis can be found in Chapter IX).

The majority of the subjects thought that the Qura'an messages
and the real-life story with its humanitarian appeal were the
most effective aspects of the campaign programmes. There were
answers such as:

-    "the programmes showed nursing as an honourable and
     decent job. . ."

-    "God told us in his Book to serve humanity. . ."

-    "the programmes prove that nursing is a humanitarian
     job. . ."

-    "the programmes show us how humanitarian work is a
     duty put by God to the people. . ."

-    "showed us the sacrifice and noble aspect of nursing
     as compared to a banking job. . ."

These and other answers (as presented in Chapter IX) clearly illustrate that the programmes succeeded in altering the popular image of nursing.

Besides the responses from the panel study subjects, a number of nurses were informally asked after the programmes what they thought of them. The majority of their answers were that they showed how religiously prestigious a humanitarian job like nursing was. They also said that this aspect increased their confidence in themselves and among their friends and family.

Based on the decision that the campaign was to be carried out in complete natural settings, the researcher was aware of the possible interactions between the target audience, their family and significant others all through the campaign period. This informal communication was considered a vital part of the total communication process and the assumption that it was the television programmes PLUS the informal interaction that might have caused the measured change cannot be ruled out. In fact, the belief that this kind of informal interaction does occur and is effective has made us decide to direct the television programmed not only at the target audiences, but also at these significant others. On the other hand, using completely naturalistic settings made it necessary to disguise as much as possible the purpose of the campaign, and to avoid further testing of the subjects or their relatives. This decision may have helped the effectiveness of the television programmes, but it left some doubts about our theoretical assumptions. Except for the responses from the panel study, we have no evidence that the indirect approach enhanced the effect of the programmes, i.e., we have no evidence that:

   i.   The programmes reached the parents or significant others;

   ii. The programmes were effective in reducing the resistances of the parents and significant others;

   iii. That the possibly reduced resistances were effectively conveyed to the target audience.

The possible use of this indirect approach, using informal
interaction with significant others to strengthen the
campaign's impact, might well be a fruitful subject for
future research.

E. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Several recent studies have presented detailed reviews of
the state of mass communications and suggestions for further
research. See for example Comstock (1975) "The Research
Horizon", and Davison and Yu (1974) "Mass Communication
Research: Major Issues and Future Directions".

However, Chisman's (1974) article "Afterword: Another View
of Research Priorities", which is presented at the end of
Davison and Yu's book, is of particular relevance to this
study. Chisman is not a mass communications academic but
a foundation executive looking at the field as an out-
sider. He explained that his suggestions are based on the
studies of the academics and researchers in the field;
however, as he is not a specialist, he could look into
the field without becoming too involved in the specialist's
details.

Chisman argued that research in the future should be both
"fine-grained" and "broad-gauged". He said:

> "While acknowledging that most studies
> show the effect of mass communications
> on attitudes, particularly political
> attitudes, to be small, I am not sure
> whether we should give up on attitudinal

> research. Looking for the moment only at
> studies of political attitudes, I think
> it is fair to say that the more fine-grained
> the research has been - that is, the more it
> has taken into account a great number of the
> psychological variables - the greater signifi-
> cance attitudes have seemed to have in
> explaining individual behaviour. Most
> research on the effects of mass communica-
> tions has not been very fine-grained in this
> sense."
>
> (p. 198)

He continued that, as much as he believed communication
research should be fine-grained, it should also become
broad-gauged. By this he meant that research should
take into account all aspects of a particular communica-
tions system simultaneously and set new typologies of
communication systems. For example, one might find that
all public information systems about health care,
accident prevention, civil defense etc., are similar in
many ways. This approach renders the research more
practical and applicable and leads to policy-relevant
findings - as it takes into account more of the factors
relevant to mass communications. This suggestion is
supported by most of the mass communication researchers
who call for more policy-relevant studies.

Our research can be considered an example of an attempt
to keep a balance between the detailed attention to all
the psychological factors relevant in creating change and
measuring the effectiveness of the mass communication
campaign. At the same time, the framework developed for
designing more successful campaigns is applicable to a
wide range of public information programmes.

While carrying out this study, it was found that there
is a lot we do not know about the best channel-mix for
designing effective campaigns, (see page 194). This
applies to both personal versus media channels and media
channels among themselves. This means that more specific
research as related to this aspect is needed. Another
aspect which was found to be a hindrance was lack of free
exchange of information between the diverse disciplines
dealing with mass communication research.

With a practical yet educated approach to the problems
of mass communication research, free access to informa-
tion across the disciplines and broadcaster/researcher
co-operation, the field might develop more definitive
answers for the future.

APPENDIX **A**   GENERAL FREQUENCIES

Questionnaire: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
1	**AGE**			
	1. Less than 13 years	29	1	
	2. 13 years	318	11.2	
	3. 14 years	588	20.7	
	4. 15 years	455	16.0	
	5. 16 years	567	19.9	
	6. 17 years	501	17.6	
	7. 18 years	295	10.4	
	8. 19 years	72	2.5	
	9. 20 years	19	0.7	
	10. More than 20 years	1	0.0	
		(263)		
2	**FATHER LIVING AT HOME**			
	1. Yes	2481	86.3	
	2. No	394	13.7	
	0	(235)		
3	**MOTHER LIVING AT HOME**			
	1. Yes	2767	96.6	
	2. No	98	3.4	
	0	(245)		
4	**HOW MANY BROTHERS & SISTERS DO YOU HAVE?**			
(a)	Brothers: 1	343	12.4	
	2	668	24.1	
	3	614	22.2	
	4	558	20.1	
	5	341	12.3	
	6	147	5.3	
	7	79	2.8	
	8	12	0.4	
	9	4	0.1	
	10	4	0.1	
	11	2	0.1	
	0	(338)	-	

Quest No.	Statement		N	% age	Remark
(b)	Sisters	1	305	11.2	
		2	480	17.6	
		3	586	21.4	
		4	508	18.6	
		5	411	15.0	
		6	237	8.7	
		7	124	4.5	
		8	44	1.6	
		9	23	0.8	
		10	8	0.3	
		11	5	0.2	
		12	3	0.1	
		0	(375)		
5	DO YOU HAVE OLDER BROTHERS?				
	1. Yes		2022	71.0	
	2. No		826	29.0	
	0		(262)		
6	DO YOU HAVE OLDER SISTERS?				
	1. Yes		1990	69.8	
	2. No		859	30.2	
	0		(261)	−	
7a	MOTHER WORKS				
	1. Yes		192	6.9	
	2. No		2591	93.1	
	0		(327)		

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
7b	IF YES, WHAT?			
	1. Teacher	32	16.7	
	2. Dressmaker	55	28.6	
	3. Secretary	3	1.6	
	4. Engineer	0	0.0	
	5. Nurse	10	5.2	
	6. Accountant	3	1.6	
	7. Doctor	3	1.6	
	8. Worker(Cleaner)	12	6.3	
	9. Private business	16	8.3	
	10. Civil Servant	55	28.6	
	0	(2918)		
7c	IF CIVIL SERVANT, WHAT GRADE?			
	1.	4	12.5	
	2.	3	9.4	
	3.	5	15.6	
	4.	5	15.6	
	5.	1	3.1	
	6.	5	15.6	
	7.	3	9.4	
	8.	3	9.4	
	11.	2	6.3	
	0	(3078)		
8	NATIONALITY			
	1. Bahraini	2754	96.6	
	2. Arab	87	3.1	
	e. Others	9	0.3	
	0	(260)		
9a	HAVE T.V. AT HOME			
	1. Yes	2723	95.6	
	2. No	124	4.4	
	0	(263)		

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
9b	**IF YES, SINCE WHEN?**			
	1. More than 5 years	1742	63.7	
	2. 5 years	223	8.2	
	3. 4 years	200	7.3	
	4. 3 years	221	8.1	
	5. 2 years	157	5.7	
	6. 1 year	82	3.0	
	7. Less than 1 year	108	4.0	
	0	(377)		
10	**HOW OFTEN DO YOU WATCH T.V.?**			
	1. Every day	2660	93.4	
	2. Twice a week	100	3.5	
	3. Once a week	44	1.5	
	4. Once every 2 weeks	17	0.6	
	5. Less than once every 2 weeks	14	0.5	
	6. Don't watch at all	14	0.5	
	0	(261)		
11	**IF YOU HAVE T.V. AT HOME, WHICH CHANNELS CAN YOU SEE ON IT?**			
	Bahrain 1.	2795	89.9	
	0	(315)	10.1	
	Saudi Arabia 1.	2573	82.7	
	0	(537)	17.3	
	Aramco 1.	1612	51.8	
	0	(1497)	48.1	
	Kuwait 1.	2303	74.1	
	0	(807)	25.9	
	Qatar 1.	2683	86.3	
	0	(427)	13.7	
	Abu Dhabi 1.	2281	73.1	
	0	(826)	26.6	
	Dubai 1.	1976	63.5	
	0	(1132)	36.4	

0 = missing observations and subjects who cannot see the specific channel

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
12	HAVE RELATIVES IN NURSING? 1. Yes 2. No 0	1390 1421 (299)	49.4 50.6	
13	HAVE RELATIVES IN TEACHING? 1. Yes 2. No 0	2080 752 (278)	73.4 26.6	
14	HAVE FRIENDS IN NURSING? 1. Yes 2. No 0	1021 1791 (295)	36.3 63.7	
15	HAVE FRIENDS IN TEACHING? 1. Yes 2. No 0	1570 1250 (290)	55.7 44.3	
16a	FATHER WORKS? 1. Yes 2. No 0	2348 472 (290)	83.3 16.7	
16b	IF YES, WHAT? 1. Professional Grade I & Administrative 2. Professional Grade II & Service 3. Commercial 4. Skilled 5. Semi-skilled 6. Unskilled 0	205 558 447 432 523 146 (799)	8.9 24.1 19.3 18.7 22.6 6.3	

Quest No.	Statement		N	% age	Remark
17	WHERE DO YOU LIVE?				
	101	Manama West	1283	45	
	102	Manama East	32	1	
	210	Muharaq	721	25	
	220	Hidd	124	4	
	231	Kalab	18	1	
	232	Al-Deir	9	0	
	233	Samahij	13	0	
	311	Jidhafs	43	2	
	321	Sanabis	82	3	
	313	Daih	23	1	
	325	Shakhura	1	0	
	326	Busaiba	3	0	
	328	Al-Qadum	39	1	
	330	Karrama	1	0	
	335	Karbabad	2	0	
	401	Diraz	32	1	
	402	Budaia	25	1	
	403	Bani-Jaura	16	1	
	404	Barbar	1	0	
	507	Zallaq	9	0	
	610	Issa Town	198	7	
	710	Sitra	7	0	
	723	Aker Kharbia	1	0	
	810	Rifa'a	172	6	
	0		(255)		
18	SCHOOL PERFORMANCE				
	1.	Excellent	252	8.8	
	2.	Very Good	402	14.0	
	3.	Good	925	32.8	
	4.	Fair	970	33.9	
	5.	Bad	315	11.0	
	0		(246)		

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
19	SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS? 1. Above middle 2. Middle 3. Below middle 0	587 1747 528 (3110)	20.5 61.0 18.4	

APPENDIX B   —   GENERAL FREQUENCIES

Questionnaire: SCHOOL & WORK

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
1	IF YOU HAD THE CHOICE, WHEN WOULD YOU LEAVE SCHOOL?			0=missing observations
	1. After Primary level	0	0	
	2. After Intermediate level	30	1.1	
	3. After Secondary level	619	21.8	
	4. After University	1521	53.5	
	5. Don't know	672	23.6	
	0	(268)		
2	WHEN DO PARENTS WISH YOU TO LEAVE SCHOOL?			
	1. After Primary level	8	0.3	
	2. After Intermediate level	25	0.9	
	3. After Secondary level	599	21.1	
	4. After University	1475	52.0	
	5. Don't know	731	25.8	
	0	(272)		
Quest 3 is	For Intermediate Level Only			
3a	PLAN TO LEAVE SCHOOL AFTER INTERMEDIATE?			
	1. Yes	44	2.4	
	2. No	1800	97.6	
	0	(1266)		
3b	IF YES, WHY?			
	1. Don't like studying	32	13.2	
	2. Not happy at school	25	10.3	
	3. Help family materially	78	32.1	
	4. Going to get married	13	5.3	
	5. Father doesn't want me to continue	17	7.0	
	6. Mother wants help at home	3	1.2	
	7. Found a job	5	2.1	
	8. Want to train as a nurse	11	4.5	

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
3b	Continued...			
	9. Want to train as a waitress	3	1.2	
	10. Want to train as a dressmaker	8	3.3	
	11. Want to train in another job	48	19.8	
	0	(2867)		x2
4	PLANS AFTER SECONDARY GRADUATION?			
	1. Don't know if I'd reach secondary level	169	6.0	
	2. Wait and see if I pass first	518	18.4	
	3. If I get good grades, enter University	1100	39.0	
	4. Apply to Teachers' Training College	274	9.7	
	5. Apply to College of Health Science	40	1.4	
	6. Apply to School of Nursing	84	3.0	
	7. Apply for a Company job	35	1.2	
	8. Apply to train as a Secretary	36	1.3	
	9. Apply to Gulf Technical College	121	4.3	
	10. Work with family	24	0.9	
	11. Apply to train as an Air Hostess	84	3.0	
	12. Wait to get married	11	0.4	
	13. Don't know	324	11.5	
	0	(290)		
	Questions 5 & 6 percentages (plan to work & wish to work) are presented in main text, Results Chapter.			
7	IF GETTING MARRIED WHILE WORKING WOULD YOU WORK AFTER MARRIAGE?			
	1. Plan to work	1344	47.3	
	2. Leave work	182	6.4	
	3. Don't know	1315	46.3	
	0	(267)		

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
8	IF YOU HAD THE CHOICE, AND WERE ASKED TO MARRY EARLY, AT WHAT LEVEL WOULD YOU LEAVE SCHOOL?			
	1. After Primary level	11	0.4	
	2. After Intermediate level	33	1.2	
	3. After Secondary level	427	15.0	
	4. After University	1312	46.1	
	5. Don't know	1062	37.3	
	0			
	PLANNING TO CHOOSE A JOB, WHICH OF THESE TYPES OF JOB WOULD YOU PREFER?			
9	1. Job requiring intellectual work	1804	64.3	
	2. Job requiring practical work	1000	35.7	
	0	(306)		
10	1. Job having adventure, future but no security	672	24.2	
	2. Job having no future but security	2101	75.8	
	0	(337)		
11	1. Job requiring good dress-sense	812	29.2	
	2. Job where dress-sense does not matter	1966	70.8	
	0	(332)		
12	1. Job requiring your thinking ability	791	28.8	
	2. Job when learned will know always	1910	71.2	
	0	(359)		
13	1. Go to College or University	1985	70.9	
	2. Get a job straight away	815	29.1	
	0	(310)		

Quest No.	Statement		N	% age	Remark
14	DO YOU LIKE SCHOOL?				
	1. Like a little		466	19.9	
	2. Like a lot		1693	59.6	
	3. Don't like		35	1.2	
	4. Have to go		548	19.3	
	0		(268)		
15	IS YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH TEACHER GOOD?				
	1. Less than other pupils		129	4.5	
	2. Like other pupils		2414	84.9	
	3. Better than other pupils		301	10.6	
	0		(266)		
16	WHICH OF THESE SCHOOL SUBJECTS DO YOU LIKE HATE OR DON'T MIND?				
	1. Like	Religion	2309	84.9	
	2. Don't mind		400	14.7	
	3. Don't like		10	0.4	
	0		(391)		
	1. Like	Arabic	1637	60.9	
	2. Don't mind		912	33.9	
	3. Don't like		141	5.2	
	0		(420)		
	1. Like	English	1622	60.1	
	2. Don't mind		840	31.3	
	3. Don't like		236	8.7	
	0		(236)		
	1. Like	Mathematics	1236	46.0	
	2. Don't mind		809	30.1	
	3. Don't like		641	23.9	
	0		(424)		

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
16	Continued....			
	1. Like ⎫	1439	54.1	
	2. Don't mind ⎬ Science	855	32.2	
	3. Don't like ⎭	365	13.7	
	0	(451)		
	1. Like ⎫	1080	40.3	
	2. Don't mind ⎬ Social Science	959	35.8	
	3. Don't like ⎭	642	23.9	
	0	(429)		
	1. Like ⎫	1326	49.8	
	2. Don't mind ⎬ Home Economics	1047	39.3	
	3. Don't like ⎭	289	10.9	
	0	(448)		
	1. Like ⎫	1648	61.7	
	2. Don't mind ⎬ Physical Education	703	26.3	
	3. Don't like ⎭	321	12.0	
	0	(438)		
	1. Like ⎫	1286	49.3	
	2. Don't mind ⎬ Arts Education	898	34.4	
	3. Don't like ⎭	426	16.3	
	0	(500)		
17	WHICH SUBJECT DO YOU LIKE MOST?			
	1. Religion	428	15.2	
	2. Arabic language	346	12.3	
	3. English language	715	25.3	
	4. Maths	421	14.9	
	5. Science	306	10.8	
	6. Social Science	232	8.2	
	7. Home Economics	54	1.9	
	8. Physical Education	190	6.7	

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
17	Continued....			
	9. Arts Education	131	4.6	
	0	(286)		
18	WHICH MAGAZINES DO YOU USUALLY READ?			
	1. Yes Hawaa	547	17.6	
	0	(2563)	82.4	
	1. Yes Al-Hilal	103	3.3	
	0	(3007)	97.6	
	1. Yes Al Araby	1741	56.0	
	0	(1369)	44.0	
	1. Yes Al Mowid	933	30.0	
	0	(2177)	70.0	

APPENDIX C   **GENERAL FREQUENCIES**

Questionnaire: THE TELEVISION

Quest No.	Statement			N	% age	Remark
1.	WATCH TV MORE THAN ONCE A WEEK?					
	1. Yes			1720	96.3	
	2. No			104	3.7	
	0			(286)		
	(if NO, questionnaire not to be answered)					
2.	DO YOU HAVE TV AT HOME?					
	1. Yes			2779	98.1	
	2. No			52	1.8	
	0			(277)		
3.	IF YES, SINCE WHEN?					
	1. More than 5 years			1830	65.4	
	2. Five years ago			217	7.7	
	3. Four years ago			194	6.9	
	4. Three years ago			232	8.3	
	5. Two years ago			163	5.8	
	6. One year ago			88	3.1	
	7. Less than a year ago			76	2.7	
	0			(310)		
4.	WHAT CHANNELS CAN YOU GET ON YOUR TV SCREEN				RF	RF=Relative Frequencies AF=Adjusted Frequencies
	Bahrain	1.	Yes	2727	87.7	
			0	(382)	12.3	
	Saudi Arabia	1.	Yes	2481	79.8	
			0	(629)	20.2	
	Aramco	1.	Yes	1653	53.2	
			0	(1457)	46.8	
	Kuwait	1.	Yes	2334	75.0	
			0	(776)	25.0	

Quest No.	Statement		N	% age	Remark
4. cont.	Qatar	1. Yes	2690	86.5	
		0	(420)	13.5	
	Abu Dhabi	1. Yes	2323	74.7	
		0	(787)	25.3	
	Dubai	1. Yes	2001	64.3	
		0	(1108)	35.6	
	Oman	1. Yes	128	4.1	
		0	(2981)	95.9	
5.	WHICH CHANNEL'S PROGRAMMES DO YOU LIKE MOST?			AF	
	1. Bahrain		1133	41.1	
	2. Saudi Arabia		30	1.1	
	3. Aramco		56	2.0	
	4. Kuwait		455	16.5	
	5. Qatar		838	30.4	
	6. Abu Dhabi		102	3.7	
	7. Dubai		143	5.2	
	0		(353)		
Quests. 6-9:For those who do not have a t.v. at home					
6	IN WHOSE HOME DO YOU USUALLY WATCH TV?				
	1. Neighbours		60	31.6	
	2. Relatives		59	31.1	
	3. My friends		19	10.0	
	4. All, sometime		52	27.4	
	0		(2920)		
7.	PARENTS PLANNING TO GET TV?				
	1. Yes		198	76.7	
	2. No		60	23.3	
	0		(2852)		

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
8.	IF YES, WHEN?			
	1. Don't know	139	72.0	
	2. Next 2 months	26	13.5	
	3. Before summer	23	11.9	
	4. Next year	5	2.6	
	0	(2917)		
9a	CAN YOU USUALLY WATCH T.V. AT A FRIENDS HOUSE?			
	1. Usually can	65	29.7	
	2. Usually cannot	64	29.2	
	3. Sometimes	90	41.1	
	0	(2891)		
b	IF CAN, DO YOU HAVE TO RETURN HOME AT SPECIFIC TIME?			
	1. Can stay as long as I like	53	25.6	
	2. Have to go back on time	153	73.9	
	0	(2903)	0.5	
c	IF HAVE TO KEEP TIME, WHEN IS THAT?			
	1.00 p.m.	9	7.6	
	2.00 p.m.	5	4.2	
	3.00 p.m.	3	2.5	
	4.00 p.m.	7	5.9	
	5.00 p.m.	23	19.5	
	6.00 p.m.	11	9.3	
	7.00 p.m.	3	2.5	
	8.00 p.m.	20	16.9	
	9.00 p.m.	20	16.9	
	10.00 p.m.	12	10.2	
	11.00 p.m.	3	2.5	
	12 midnight	1	0.8	
		(2992)		

Rest of Questions for Everybody

Quest No.	Statement			N	% age	Remark
10.	DO YOU DO ANYTHING WHILE WATCHING TV?					
	1.	Just watch		1401	50.1	
	2.	Do homework		393	14.0	
	3.	Read		122	4.4	
	4.	Sew or knit		129	4.6	
	5.	Converse		636	22.7	
	6.	Play		1	0.0	
	7.	Do housework		77	2.8	
	8.	Do other things		40	1.4	
	0			(311)		
11.	DO YOU WATCH CHILDRENS PROGRAMMES?					
	1.	Yes		2397	88.2	
	2.	No		318	11.7	
	0			(392)		
12.	IF YES, WHAT DAYS & HOW OFTEN?					
	Saturday	1.	Always	554	29.6	
		2.	Sometimes	1006	53.7	
		3.	Never	314	16.8	
		0		(1236)		
	Sunday	1.	Always	632	35.9	
		2.	Sometimes	807	45.9	
		3.	Never	319	18.1	
		0		(1352)		
	Monday	1.	Always	402	27.3	
		2.	Sometimes	660	44.8	
		3.	Never	410	27.8	
		0		(1637)		
	Tuesday	1.	Always	364	24.8	
		2.	Sometimes	674	46.0	
		3.	Never	427	29.1	
		0		(1645)		

Quest No.	Statement			N	% age	Remark
12. Cont.	Wednesday	1.	Always	337	23.0	
		2.	Sometimes	703	48.0	
		3.	Never	424	29.0	
			0	(1646)		
	Thursday	1.	Always	557	36.0	
		2.	Sometimes	687	44.4	
		3.	Never	304	19.6	
			0	(1562)		
	Friday	1.	Always	785	48.2	
		2.	Sometimes	596	36.6	
		3.	Never	248	15.2	
			0	(1481)		
13.	DO YOU WATCH ALL THE CHILDRENS' PROGRAMMES OR PART OF THEM?					
		1.	All	1047	41.6	
		2.	Part	1446	58.3	
			0	(595)		
14.	WHICH CHILDRENS' PROGRAMME DO YOU LIKE MOST?					
		1.	Cartoons	937	36.4	
		2.	Children's Paradise	87	3.4	
		3.	Mother Anissa & Children	79	22.5	
		4.	Our Children	386	15.0	
		5.	Puppet Show	98	3.8	
		6.	Western movies	281	10.9	
		7.	Documentaries	196	7.6	
			0	(539)		
15.	DO YOU WATCH EVENING PROGRAMMES, i.e. THOSE AFTER 7 P.M.?					
		1.	Yes	2602	93.5	
		2.	No	179	6.4	
			0	(328)		

Quest No.	Statement		N	% age	Remark
16.	IF YES, WHAT DAYS AND HOW OFTEN?				
	Saturday	1. Always	872	38.5	
		2. Sometimes	880	38.9	
		3. Never	511	22.6	
		0	(847)		
	Sunday	1. Always	1041	49.1	
		2. Sometimes	771	36.4	
		3. Never	308	14.5	
		0	(990)		
	Monday	1. Always	1078	52.3	
		2. Sometimes	674	32.7	
		3. Never	310	15.0	
		0	(1048)		
	Tuesday	1. Always	990	49.4	
		2. Sometimes	681	34.0	
		3. Never	333	16.6	
		0	(1106)		
	Wednesday	1. Always	959	47.6	
		2. Sometimes	707	35.1	
		3. Never	349	17.3	
		0	(1095)		
	Thursday	1. Always	1432	16.5	
		2. Sometimes	511	23.7	
		3. Never	209	9.7	
		0	(958)		
	Friday	1. Always	1537	77.0	
		2. Sometimes	299	15.0	
		3. Never	160	8.0	
		0	(1114)		
17a	TILL WHAT TIME IN THE EVENING DO YOU USUALLY WATCH TV?				
	From Saturdays - Wednesdays Watch till 1.00 a.m.		10	0.4	
	3.00 p.m.		3	0.1	
	4.00 p.m.		3	0.1	

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
17a Cont.	Watch till 5.00 p.m.	11	0.4	
	6.00 p.m.	20	0.8	
	7.00 p.m.	61	2.4	
	8.00 p.m.	511	20.2	
	9.00 p.m.	931	36.8	
	10.00 p.m.	612	24.2	
	11.00 p.m.	276	10.9	
	12.00 midnight	89	3.5	
	0	(582)		
17b	On Thursdays			
	Watch till 1.00 a.m.	197	7.7	
	2.00 a.m.	27	1.1	
	3.00 p.m.	8	0.3	
	4.00 p.m.	9	0.4	
	5.00 p.m	12	0.5	
	6.00 p.m.	30	1.2	
	7.00 p.m.	270	10.6	
	8.00 p.m.	434	17.1	
	9.00 p.m.	432	17.0	
	10.00 p.m.	368	14.5	
	11.00 p.m.	755	29.7	
	12.00 midnight			
	0	(565)		
17c	On Fridays			
	Watch till 1.00 a.m.	180	6.9	
	2.00 a.m.	32	1.2	
	3.00 p.m.	1	0.0	
	4.00 p.m.	4	0.2	
	5.00 p.m.	9	0.3	
	6.00 p.m.	24	0.9	
	7.00 p.m.	59	2.3	
	8.00 p.m.	329	12.7	
	9.00 p.m.	510	19.7	
	10.00 p.m.	353	13.6	
	11.00 p.m.	355	13.7	

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
17c Cont.	12.00 midnight 0	736 (515)	28.4	
18	WHICH THREE TELEVISION PROGRAMMES DO YOU LIKE MOST?			
	Arabic Serial 1. 0	2260 (849)	72.7 27.3	
	News in English 1. 0	22 (3088)	0.7 99.3	
	Western Series 1. 0	577 (2532)	18.6 81.4	
	News in Arabic 1. 0	163 (2946)	5.2 94.7	
	Documentaries 1. 0	400 (2710)	12.9 87.1	
	Arabic films 1. 0	1813 (1295)	58.3 41.5	
	Western films 1. 0	614 (2495)	19.7 80.2	
	Indian films 1. 0	1059 (2051)	34.1 65.9	
	Gulf musicals 1. 0	474 (2636)	15.2 84.8	
	Western musicals 1. 0	293 (2817)	9.4 90.6	
	Family World 1. 0	276 (2834)	8.9 91.1	
	Local programmes 1. 0	457 (2653)	14.7 85.3	

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
19a	DO YOU KNOW THE PROGRAMMES BEFORE PUTTING ON THE TV SET?			
	1. Yes	2335	83.6	
	2. No	458	16.4	
	0	(317)		
b	IF YES, HOW?			
	From: Tomorrow's progrms. 1.	1059	35.2	
	0	(2015)	64.8	
	Today's progrms. 1.	253	8.1	
	0	(2857)	91.9	
	Newspaper 1.	1489	47.9	
	0	(1620)	52.1	
	Family 1.	265	8.5	
	0	(2844)	91.4	
	Friends 1.	439	14.1	
	0	(2671)	85.9	
20	IS TV SET LEFT ON ALL THE TIME, OR FOR SPECIFIC PROGRAMMES?			
	1. Left on most of the time	2090	74.0	
	2. Put on for specific programmes	732	25.9	
	0	(287)		
21	WHAT DO YOU DO IF YOU DON'T LIKE A PROGRAMME?			
	1. Go on watching	242	8.6	
	2. Stop watching	519	18.3	
	3. Stop watching & do something else	2068	73.1	
	0	(281)		

Quest No.	Statement		N	% age	Remark
22.	WHAT DO YOU DO WITH THE SET?				
	1.	Keep it on	179	6.4	
	2.	Switch it off	139	5.0	
	3.	Switch to another channel	2143	76.3	
	4.	Volume lowered	346	12.3	
		0	(303)		
23.	WITH WHOM DO YOU USUALLY WATCH TV?				
	Alone	1.	264	8.5	
		0	(2846)	91.5	
	With friends	1.	233	7.5	
		0	(2876)	92.5	
	With brothers & sisters	1.	2573	82.7	
		0	(537)	17.3	
	With relatives	1.	424	13.7	
		0	(2683)	86.3	
	With parents	1.	268	22.4	
		0	(2410)	77.5	
74	WHEN DO YOU MOST OFTEN WATCH BAHRAIN TELEVISION ?				
	1.	Around six in the evening	397	14.0	
	2.	Around seven in the evening	1729	61.0	
	3.	Around eight in the evening	176	6.2	
	4.	Between eight & nine in the evening	286	9.9	
	5.	Between nine & ten in the evening	140	4.9	
	6.	After ten in the evening	111	3.9	
		0	(275)		

Quest No.	Statement	N	% age	Remark
25	WHICH PROGRAMMES DO YOU TRY YOUR BEST NOT TO MISS?			
	1. Arabic serial	2252	79.0	
	2. News in English	2	0.1	
	3. Western serials	64	2.2	
	4. News in Arabic	15	0.5	
	5. Documentaries	57	2.0	
	6. Arabic films	146	5.1	
	7. Western films	61	2.1	
	8. Indian films	150	5.3	
	9. Gulf musicals	14	0.5	
	10. Western musicals	26	0.9	
	11. Family world	30	1.1	
	12. Local programmes	32	1.1	
	0	(258)		
26	CAN YOU CHOOSE WHAT YOU WANT ON TV OR OTHERS HAVE TO AGREE FIRST?			
	1. Watch what I want	346	12.2	
	2. Others have to agree	753	26.6	
	3. We like same things	1732	61.2	
	0	(279)		
27	WHO DECIDES IN THE FAMILY WHAT CAN BE WATCHED AND WHAT SHOULD NOT BE WATCHED ?			
	1. Father	318	11.2	
	2. Mother	139	4.9	
	3. Brother	486	17.1	
	4. Sister	349	12.3	
	5. Relative	36	1.3	
	6. No-one	1512	53.2	
	0	(270)		

Quest. No.	Statement	Like 1	Don't Mind 2	Don't Like 3	N
		%	%	%	
28	WHAT TYPES OF PROGRAMMES DO YOU LIKE TO WATCH ON TV?				
1	Westerns (Cowboys)	36.6	44.4	19.0	2654
2	Adventure	55.0	31.9	13.2	2631
3	Detective	57.3	29.8	12.9	2667
4	Space & spacemen	32.7	36.6	30.7	2651
5	School Life	65.0	30.2	4.8	2646
6	Drama	47.6	37.9	14.4	2636
7	Comedy	77.8	17.2	5.0	2685
8	Tragedy	47.6	32.9	19.6	2644
9	Religious Plays	44.8	42.7	12.5	2640
10.	Historical Plays	26.8	44.1	29.0	2632
11	War Plays	31.6	36.4	32.0	2616
12	Of Great People	41.5	42.4	16.1	2643
13	Home Life & Society Problems	79.9	16.3	3.8	2686
14	Bedouin Plays	61.2	31.3	7.4	2649
15	Travel	43.8	43.1	13.1	2624
16	Science & Inventions	40.0	41.6	18.4	2620
17	Aeroplanes & Flying	23.8	49.0	27.2	2601
18	Sea and Ships	33.2	46.8	20.0	2593
19	Painting & Sculpture	39.5	42.7	17.8	2597
20	Home Economics & Cooking	57.9	34.3	7.8	2627
21	Dancing	53.3	30.9	15.7	2643
22	Wild Animals	30.2	37.2	32.7	2602
23	Domestic animals	53.2	37.7	9.1	2647
24	People from other lands	50.4	42.2	7.5	2643
25	Agriculture & Village Life	62.7	29.6	7.7	2646
26	Great Books	57.0	34.8	8.3	2637
27	Children & Childcare	54.3	36.5	9.2	2628
28	Health Science	59.6	34.3	6.1	2631
29	News & World Events	52.2	36.5	11.3	2646

Quest. No.	Statement	Like 1	Don't Mind 2	Don't Like 3	N
		%	%	%	
30	Politics	33.2	43.1	23.7	2617
31	Competitions and Quizzes	23.0	36.2	40.8	2606
32	Musicals as a whole	61.7	28.8	9.6	2613
33	Gulf Musicals	61.7	28.8	9.6	2613
34	Arabic Musicals	77.7	17.9	4.4	2490
35	Western Musicals	72.6	23.8	3.6	2492

APPENDIX D

Questionnaire:

GENERAL FREQUENCIES

CULTURAL RESISTANCES:
WOMENS' ROLE

Quest. No.	Statement	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Uncertain 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5	N
1	Housework is womens' real work	33.7	37.7	10.6	14.0	4.0	2863
2	Women should have freedom of choice	15.3	19.6	15.7	33.3	16.1	2841
3	Womens' role is to marry and have children	3.6	7.5	11.7	38.2	39.0	2852
4	If woman is working, husband should share housework	29.5	38.2	11.9	13.9	6.5	2852
5	Womens' place is the home	23.3	40.3	11.0	18.3	7.1	2856
6	Further education is beneficial to women	63.8	32.1	3.3	0.6	0.2	2856
7	If husband is well off, women should not work	20.1	28.9	16.4	25.9	8.7	2821
8	Women are capable of housework and work	28.7	43.6	20.4	5.8	1.6	2836
9	Women are less intelligent than men	8.8	19.1	26.3	24.0	21.8	2857
10	Marriage should not be only for shelter and security	15.2	25.2	23.7	23.6	12.2	2850
11	Women should be taught only what is useful for home	10.9	17.7	10.1	38.3	23.0	2861

Continued....

Question No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	N
12	Women should use talent outside home	52.8	39.8	4.3	2.3	0.9	2862
13	When a girl gets married, she should leave work	12.5	20.6	18.7	32.3	15.9	2855
16	Women should become economic-ally independent	28.8	35.4	14.4	14.9	6.5	2862
15	Women should choose only secure and sheltered jobs	44.7	46.3	6.9	1.5	0.7	2866
16	A girl should marry only after graduation	59.0	27.9	7.6	3.2	2.3	2868

APPENDIX E   GENERAL FREQUENCIES

Questionnaire   FEAR INVENTORY (including)
MEDICAL RESISTANCES

Quest No.	Statement	Bothers me a lot 1	Bothers me a little 2	Doesn't bother me 3	N
		%	%	%	
1	Working with a Dentist	42.8	36.2	21.0	2875
2	Work at school unsatisfactory	41.7	36.5	21.8	2811
3	Illnesses	88.0	9.3	2.7	2870
4	Start something and not finish it	64.1	27.6	8.3	2832
5	Marriage	56.7	29.4	13.9	2872
6	The sight of blood	47.1	32.8	20.0	2878
7	Exams	31.2	43.4	25.4	2871
8	School Uniforms	8.4	15.0	76.6	2865
9	Scolded by teacher	65.9	14.7	10.7	2839
10	Thoughts of death	55.1	19.6	25.3	2875
11	Studies	7.8	34.5	57.7	2875
12	Strict discipline	32.3	33.8	33.9	2875
13	Going to work	7.0	20.6	72.4	2861
14	Obeying orders	23.7	38.8	37.5	2864
15	Leaving school	74.0	14.0	12.0	2856
16	Smell of antiseptic and disinfectants	48.4	34.1	17.5	2864
17	Lack of self confidence	70.7	17.4	11.9	2852
18	Taking decisions	17.8	33.2	49.0	2845
19	Darkness	44.8	29.3	25.9	2757
20	Working with people	10.2	17.0	72.9	2800
21	Insects	89.1	8.0	2.9	2836
22	Working with a Doctor	38.2	44.9	16.9	2830
23	Inability to concentrate	71.4	21.8	6.8	2859
24	Infectious diseases	90.6	7.7	1.8	2860
25	Called to the headmistress office	55.4	29.3	15.3	2854
26	Sound of someone in pain	85.7	11.4	2.8	2884
27	Staying alone at night	63.4	23.2	13.4	2882
28	Thunder and lightning	27.7	39.5	32.8	2879
29	Hospital atmosphere	48.5	39.3	12.2	2867
30	Starting work	13.7	43.1	43.2	2861

Continued...

Quest No	Statement	1	2	3	N
		%	%	%	
31	Administering injections	52.9	31.4	15.7	2878
32	Nightmares	80.4	15.6	4.0	2882
33	Ambulance siren	57.6	29.7	12.7	2878
34	Being unpractical	36.6	40.8	22.5	2865
35	Going to school	9.0	18.4	72.6	2865
36	Seing victims of accident	71.2	20.8	8.0	2876
37	Strong winds	34.0	43.6	22.4	2880

APPENDIX F   GENERAL FREQUENCIES

Questionnaire: POST PROGRAMME - Individual Questions

Question No	Statement	N	Frequency	Remarks
18	WATCHED ANY OF THE PROGRAMMES PUT ON TV?			0 = missing abreviations
	1. Yes	1823	83.7	
	2. No	308	16.3	
	0	(979)		
19	IF YES, HOW MANY?			
	1. None	308	14.5	
	2. One	534	25.1	
	3. Two	600	28.2	
	4. Three	689	31.3	
	0	(979.)	-	
3	WHICH MEDIUM DO YOU TRUST MOST?			
	1. T.V.	920	42.6	
	2. Radio	123	5.7	
	3. Newspapers	353	16.4	
	4. Magazines	36	1.7	
	5. Books	77	3.6	
	6. None	41	1.9	
	7. Don't know	609	28.2	
	0	(951)	-	
4	WHAT QUALIFIES A PERSON TO AN IMPORTANT JOB?			
	1. Known family	131	6.1	
	2. Religion & tradition	105	4.9	
	3. Popularity	273	12.7	
	4. Work & experience	1643	76.3	
	0	(956)	-	

Question No	Statement	N	Frequency	Remarks
5	WHAT IS THE MOST IMPORTANT ELEMENT FOR OUR NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT?			
	1. Citizen's hard loyal work	1308	60.8	
	2. Government planning	521	24.2	
	3. God's help	251	11.7	
	4. Good luck	70	3.3	
	0	(960)		
6	OPINION OF FAMILY PLANNING?			
	1. Agree	1642	76.5	
	2. Disagree	505	23.5	
	0	(963)	–	
7	COULD YOU ACCEPT OTHER NATIONAL'S TRADITIONAL THINKING & HABITS?			
	1. Yes	1317	62.1	
	2. No	803	37.9	
	0	(990)	–	
8	WHICH NEWS DO YOU ENJOY MOST?			
	1. World news	1130	52.4	
	2. Local news	333	15.5	
	3. Fashion	137	6.4	
	4. Celebrations, etc.	555	25.8	
	0	(955)		

APPENDIX X

Comparison of Dependent Variable Scales (After the Programmes) by the number of programmes seen.

SCALE	GROUP	N	$\bar{X}$ AFTER PROG.	F RATIO	SIGN	
Information	CONTROL	266	2.4962			
	Saw 1 Prog	468	2.6987	20.1273	<.001	†
	Saw 2 Progs	517	2.8414			
	Saw 3 Progs	592	3.5152			
Image	CONTROL	268	17.9664			
	Saw 1 Prog	472	18.1801	5.6426	<.001	*
	Saw 2 Progs	531	18.4463			
	Saw 3 Progs	609	18.6125			
Attitude Advantages	CONTROL	255	15.4627			
	Saw 1 Prog	457	16.0000	15.4672	.001	*
	Saw 2 Progs	506	16.3874			
	Saw 3 Progs	573	16.7138			
Attitude Disadvantages	CONTROL	255	17.6196			
	Saw 1 Prog	457	17.9891	2.9913	<.05	*
	Saw 2 Progs	506	18.0514			
	Saw 3 Progs.	573	18.5096			

* $\bar{X}$s Before Progms. Not Sign.
† $\bar{X}$s " " $p < .05$

APPENDIX   G

FINAL CARD LAYOUT AND CODE CONTENT

Questionnaire: BACKGROUND INFORMATION   Code: 902

Key to last column: C = coded

sm = single mention

mm = multiple mention

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques No.	Question & Code Content	
	3	1-3		Questionnaire Code	
	4	4-7		Student No.	
	2	8-9		School No.	
	2	10-11		Class No.	
	2	12-13	(1)	HOW OLD ARE YOU?	sm
				1. Less than 13 years old	
				2. 13 years old	
				3. 14 " "	
				4. 15 " "	
				5. 16 " "	
				6. 17 " "	
				7. 18. " "	
				8. 19 " "	
				9. 20 " "	
				10. Over 20 years old	
	1	14	(2)	IS YOUR FATHER LIVING AT HOME ?	sm
				1. Yes	
				2. No	
	1	15	(3)	IS YOUR MOTHER LIVING AT HOME ?	sm
				1. Yes	
				2. No	
			(4)	HOW MANY BROTHERS & SISTERS DO YOU HAVE ?	
	2	16-17	a	_____ No. of brothers	
	2	18-19	b	_____ No. of sisters	

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques No.	Question & Code Content	
	1	20	(5)	HAVE BROTHERS OLDER THAN YOU? 1. Yes 2. No	sm
	1	21	(6)	HAVE SISTERS OLDER THAN YOU? 1. Yes 2. No	sm
	1	22	(7a)	DOES YOUR MOTHER GO TO WORK? 1. Yes 2. No	
	2	23-24	(7b)	IF YES, WHAT DOES SHE DO? 1. Teacher 2. Dressmaker 3. Secretary 4. Engineer 5. Nurse 6. Accountant 7. Doctor 8. Worker(cleaner) 9. Self employed(private business) 10. Civil servant	
	2	25-26	(7c)	IF CIVIL SERVANT, WHAT GRADE? _____No. of Grade	
	1	27	(3)	WHAT IS YOUR NATIONALITY? 1. Bahraini 2. Other Arab Nationality 3. Other	sm
	1	28	(9a)	DO YOU HAVE TV AT HOME? 1. Yes 2. No	sm
	1	29	(9b)	IF YES, SINCE WHEN? 1. More than five years ago 2. Five years ago 3. Four years ago	sm

(cont.)

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques No.	Questions & Code Content	
				4. three years aog	
				5. two years ago	
				6. one year ago	
				7. less than a year	
	1	30	(10)	HOW OFTEN DO YOU WATCH TV? (at your, or someone else's home)	sm
				1. Everyday	
				2. Twice a week	
				3. Once a week	
				4. Less than once a week	
				5. Never watch t.v.	
			(11)	IF YOU HAVE TV, WHICH CHANNELS CAN YOU SEE ON YOUR SET?	mm
		31		Bahrain	
		32		Saudi Arabia	
		33		Aramco	
		34		Kuwait	
		35		Qatar	
		36		Abu Dhabi	
		37		Dubai	
	1	38	(12)	DO YOU HAVE RELATIVES IN THE NURSING PROFESSION?	sm
				1. Yes	
				2. No	
	1	39	(13)	DO YOU HAVE RELATIVES IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION?	sm
				1. Yes	
				2. No	
	1	40	(14)	DO YOU HAVE FRIENDS IN NURSING PROFESSION?	sm
				1. Yes	
				2. No	

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques No.	Questions & Code Content	
	1	41	(15)	DO YOU HAVE FRIENDS IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION? 1. Yes 2. No	sm
	1	42	(16a)	DOES YOUR FATHER WORK? 1. Yes 2. No	sm
	2	43-44	(16b)	IF YES, STATE IN DETAIL WHAT HE DOES:	c
	3	45-46	(17)	WHERE DO YOU LIVE?	c
	1	45	(18)	PERFORMANCE IN CLASS (answered by Teacher) 1. Excellent 2. Very Good 3. Good 4. Fair 5. Weak	sm
	1	49	(19)	SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS (answered by Teacher) 1. Above middle 2. Middle 3. Below middle	sm

NOTE:

Questions 18 and 19 were put in "blank" form on the original questionnaires. The teachers had the codes for those questions and filled them in later.

APPENDIX H

FINAL CARD LAYOUT AND CODE CONTENT

Questionnaire: SCHOOL AND WORK   Code: 903

Key to last column: C = coded, sm = single mention
                                   mm = multiple mention

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content	
3	1-3		CODE	
4	4-7		STUDENT NO.	
2	8-9		SCHOOL NO.	
2	10-11		CLASS NO.	
1	12	(1)	IF YOU HAD THE CHOICE, WHEN WOULD YOU LEAVE SCHOOL? 1. After primary level 2. After Intermediate level 3. After Secondary level 4. After University 5. Don't know	sm
1	13	(2)	WHEN DO YOUR PARENTS WISH YOU TO LEAVE SCHOOL? 1. After Primary level 2. After Intermediate level 3. After Secondary level 4. After University 5. Don't know	sm
			For Intermediate Class only	
1	14	(3a)	DO YOU PLAN TO LEAVE SCHOOL AFTER THE INTERMEDIATE? 1. Yes 2. No	sm

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content	
2	15-16	(3b)	IF YES, WHY? 1. I don't like studying 2. Not happy at school 3. Have to help family materially 4. Going to get married 5. Father doesn't want me to continue 6. Mother wants me to help at home 7. Found a job 8. Want to train as Nurse 9. Want to train as Waitress 10. Want to train as Dressmaker 11. What to train for another job.	sm
2	17-18	(4)	AFTER GRADUATING FROM SECONDARY SCHOOL, WHAT ARE YOU PLANNING TO DO? 1. I don't know if I'd get to final Secondary class 2. Wait and see if I pass first 3. If my grades are good, enter a University 4. Apply to Teachers' Training College 5. Apply to College of Health Sciences 6. Apply to Nursing School 7. Apply for training in a Company 8. Apply to train as a Secretary 9. Apply to Gulf Technical College 10. Work in family business 11. Apply to train as Air Hostess 12. Wait to get married 13. I don't know yet	sm

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content
2	19-20	(5)	IF YOU ARE PLANNING TO WORK, WHAT WORK DO YOU HAVE IN MIND? sm 1. Not planning to work 2. Teacher 3. Dressmaker 4. Secretary 5. Nurse 6. Accountant 7. Doctor 8. Air Hostess 9. Employee at Company 10. Self employed(private business) 11. Lawyer 12. Journalist 13. Broadcaster 14. Traffic Warden 15. Engineer 16. Policewoman 17. Civil Servant 18. Don't know
2	21-22	(6)	PEOPLE CANNOT ALWAYS DO WHAT THEY WISH TO DO, WHAT JOB DO YOU WISH YOU COULD DO? sm 1. I don't wish anything 2. Teacher 3. Dressmaker 4. Secretary 5. Nurse 6. Accountant (continued)

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content	
cont/				7. Doctor 8. Air Hostess 9. Employee at Company 10. Self employed (private business) 11, Lawyer 12. Journalist 13. Broadcaster 14. Traffic Warden 15. Engineer 16. Policewoman 17. Civil Servant 18. Don't know	
	1	23	(7)	IF GETTING MARRIED WHILE WORKING, WOULD YOU WORK AFTER MARRIAGE? 1. Plan to work 2. Leave work 3. Don't know	sm
	1	24	(8)	HAD CHOICE, & ASKED TO MARRY EARLY, AFTER WHAT LEVEL WILL YOU LEAVE SCHOOL? 1. After Primary level 2. After Intermediate level 3. After Secondary level 4. After University 5. Don't know	sm

> The following questions you have to tick one out of two alternatives, the one that suits you most

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content	
1	25	(9)	IF YOU WANT TO CHOOSE A JOB, WHICH OF THESE DO YOU PREFER? 1. Job requiring intellectual work 2. Job requiring practical work	sm
1	26	(10)	AND WHICH OF THESE DO YOU PREFER? 1. Job which is adventurous, has future, but risky 2. One which is not adventurous, has no future, but is secure	sm
1	27	(11)	AND WHICH OF THESE DO YOU PREFER? 1. One which requires you to be well dressed 2. One in which dressing does not matter	sm
1	28	(12)	AND WHICH OF THESE DO YOU PREFER? 1. Job which requires your thinking ability 2. Job which, once you learn, you'll always know	sm
1	29	(13)	WHICH OF THESE WOULD YOU PREFER DOING AFTER LEAVING SCHOOL? 1. Go to a College or University 2. Find a job straight away	sm
1	30	(14)	DO YOU LIKE SCHOOL? 1. Like it a little 2. Like it a lot 3. Don't like it 4. It is a necessity	sm

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content
1	31	(15)	DO YOU THINK YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR TEACHER IS GOOD? sm 1. Less than other pupils 2. Like other pupils 3. Better than other pupils
		(16)	HERE ARE A NUMBER OF SCHOOL SUBJECTS: YOU MIGHT LIKE SOME, DON'T MIND SOME AND DISLIKE OTHERS. TICK WHAT SUITS YOU MOST FOR EACH SUBJECT

			Like 1	Don't Mind 2	Dislike 3	sm
1	32		Religion			
1	33		Arabic language			
1	34		English language			
1	35		Mathematics			
1	36		Sciences			
1	37		Social Sciences			
1	38		Home Economics			
1	39		Physical Education			
1	40		Arts			

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content
1	41	(17)	WHICH SCHOOL SUBJECT DO YOU LIKE MOST OF ALL? (Choose one) sm 1. Religion 2. Arabic language 3. English language 4. Mathematics 5. Sciences 6. Social Sciences 7. Home Economics

(Continued)

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content	
(continued..)			8. Physical Education 9. Arts	
		(18)	WHICH OF THESE MAGAZINES DO YOU USUALLY READ?	mm
1	42		Hawa	
1	43		Al-Hilal	
1	44		Al-Araby	
1	45		Al-Mowrd	

APPENDIX I

FINAL CARD LAYOUT AND CODE CONTENT

Questionnaire: THE TELEVISION   Code: 904
(2 cards)

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content
3	1-3		CODE
4	4-7		STUDENT NO.
2	8-9		SCHOOL NO.
2	10-11		CLASS NO.
1	12		CARD SEQUENCE NO.
1	13	(1)	DO YOU WATCH TV MORE THAN ONCE A WEEK? 1. Yes 2. No (If NO, please put your hand up to talk to teacher)
1	14	(2)	DO YOU HAVE A TV SET AT HOME? 1. Yes 2. No
1	15	(3)	IF YOU HAVE A TV SET, SINCE WHEN DID YOU HAVE IT? 1. More than 5 years ago 2. Five years ago 3. Four years ago 4. Three years ago 5. Two years ago 6. One year ago 7. Less than one year ago
		(4)	IF YOU HAVE A TV SET, WHICH CHANNELS CAN YOU GET ON YOUR SET?

(continued)

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content
1	16		Bahrain
1	17		Saudi Arabia
1	18		Aramco
1	19		Kuwait
1	20		Qatar
1	21		Abu Dhabi
1	22		Dubai
1	23		Oman
1	24	(5)	THE PROGRAMMES OF WHICH CHANNEL DO YOU LIKE MOST? sm 1. Bahrain 2. Saudi Arabia 3. Aramco 4. Kuwait 5. Qatar 6. Abu Dhabi 7. Dubai 8. Oman IF YOU HAVE A TV AT HOME, MOVE TO QUESTION NO. 10 AND ANSWER THE REST FROM THERE.
	25	(6)	For those who do not have a tv at home:- IN WHOSE HOME DO YOU USUALLY WATCH TV? sm 1. Neighbours' home 2. Relatives' home 3. Friends' home 4. All, sometime

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content	
	26	7.a	DO YOU THINK YOUR PARENTS ARE PLANNING TO GET A TV SET? 1. Yes 2. No	
	27	7.b	IF YES, WHEN DO YOU THINK THEY ARE PLANNING TO GET THE SET? 1. I don't know 2. Within the next two months 3. Before the summer holidays 4. Next year	sm
	28	(8)	IF YOU WANT TO WATCH A PROGRAMME ON TV CAN YOU USUALLY GO TO YOUR FRIENDS' HOME TO WATCH? 1. I usually can 2. I usually cannot 3. Sometimes I can, sometimes I cannot	sm
	29	9.a	IF YOU GO TO YOUR FRIEND'S HOME TO WATCH TV, DO YOUR PARENTS ASK YOU TO RETURN AT A SPECIFIC TIME OR NOT? 1. Can stay as long as I like 2. Have to go back on specific time	
		9.b	IF YOU HAVE TO RETURN AT A SPECIFIC TIME, WHEN IS THAT USUALLY?	
2	30-31	9.c	I usually return around:	

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content			
			It is now asked of those who have and do not have t.v. to answer all the questions.			
1	32	(10)	WHILE WATCHING T.V. SOME PEOPLE DO OTHER JOBS AT THE SAME TIME. WHAT DO YOU USUALLY DO WHILE WATCHING T.V.? sm 1. Just watch 2. Do my housework 3. Read 4. Sew or knit 5. Talk 6. Play 7. Do housework 8. Do other things			
1	33	(11)	DO YOU SOMETIMES WATCH CHILDRENS PROGRAMMES sm 1. Yes 2. No IF YOUR ANSWER IS NO MOVE TO QUESTION NO. 15			
			Now a few questions about Childrens' Programmes			
		(12)	HOW OFTEN DO YOU WATCH CHILDRENS' PROGRAMMES?	always	sometimes	never
7	34		Saturday	1	2	3
	35		Sunday	1	2	3
	36		Monday	1	2	3
	37		Tuesday	1	2	3
	38		Wednesday	1	2	3

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content
	39 40		always sometimes never Thursday 1 2 3 Friday 1 2 3
1	41	(13)	WHEN YOU WATCH THE CHILDRENS' PROGRAMMES, DO YOU WATCH ALL OF THEM OR PART OF THEM? sm 1. Usually watch all 2. Usually watch part
2	42-43	(14)	WHICH CHILDRENS' PROGRAMME DO YOU LIKE sm MOST? (choose one). 1. Cartoons 2. Childrens' Paradise 3. Mother Anissa 4. Our Children 5. Muppett Show 6. Western films 7. Documentaries
1	44	(15)	DO YOU SOMETIMES WATCH THE EVENING PROGRAMMES, i.e. AFTER SEVEN P.M.? sm 1. Yes 2. No IF YOUR ANSWER IS NO, TURN TO QUESTION NO. 19

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content
			Now a few questions about the evening programmes.
		(16)	HOW OFTEN DO YOU WATCH THE EVENING PROGRAMMES, i.e. AFTER SEVEN P.M.?

				always	sometimes	never
7	45		Saturday	1	2	3
	46		Sunday	1	2	3
	47		Monday	1	2	3
	48		Tuesday	1	2	3
	49		Wednesday	1	2	3
	50		Thursday	1	2	3
	51		Friday	1	2	3

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content
		(17)	TILL WHAT TIME IN THE EVENINGS DO YOU STAY WATCHING T.V.?
			<u>Saturdays to Wednesdays</u>:
2	52-53		I watch till.....hrs in the evening
			<u>Thursdays</u>:
2	54-55		I watch till.....hrs in the evening
			<u>Fridays</u>:
2	56-57		I watch till......hrs in the evening
		(18)	WHICH THREE EVENING T.V. PROGRAMMES DO YOU LIKE MOST?
14	58		Arabic serial (daily)
	59		News in English
	60		Western serials
	61		News in Arabic
	62		Documentaries
	63		Arabic films
	64		Western films
	65		Indian films

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content
	66		Gulf Musicals
	67		Western Musicals
	68		Family World
	69		Local programmes
			The following questions are for all t.v. programmes.
CARD 904 NO. 2			
1	13	19a	DO YOU USUALLY KNOW WHAT IS ON THE TELE-VISION BEFORE PUTTING IT ON? 1. Yes 2. No
5	14 15 16 17 18	19b	IF YES, HOW DID YOU KNOW? From tomorrow's programmes From today's programmes From the newspaper From the family From friends
1	19	(20)	IF YOU HAVE A T.V. SET AT HOME, IS IT LEFT ON MOST OF THE TIME OR IS IT SWITCHED ON FOR SPECIFIC PROGRAMMES ONLY? 1. Left on most of the time 2. Switched on for specific programmes
1	20	(21)	WHILE YOU ARE WATCHING, IF A PROGRAMME COMES ON WHICH YOU DO NOT LIKE, WHAT DO YOU USUALLY DO? 1. I go on watching 2. I stop watching 3. I stop watching and do something else

	No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content	
	1	21	(22)	WHAT DO YOU DO TO THE T.V. SET? 1. Keep it on 2. It is switched off 3. Change to another channel 4. Lower volume only	sm
	5	22 23 24 25 26	(23)	WITH WHOM DO YOU USUALLY WATCH T.V.? Alone With my friends With brothers and sisters With relatives With my parents	mm
	1	27	(24)	WHEN DO YOU MOST OFTEN WATCH BAHRAIN TELEVISION? 1. Around six in the evening 2. Around seven in the evening 3. Around eight in the evening 4. Between eight & nine in the evening 5. Between nine and ten in the evening 6. After ten in the evening	sm
	2	28-29	(25)	WHICH PROGRAMME DO YOU DO YOUR BEST NOT TO MISS? 1. Daily Arabic serial 2. News in English 3. Western serials 4. News in Arabic 5. Documentaries 6. Arabic films 7. Western films 8. Indian films	sm

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content	
			9. Gulf musicals 10. Western Musicals 11. Family World 12. Local programmes in general	
1	30	(26)	CAN YOU USUALLY WATCH WHATEVER YOU LIKE ON T.V., OR DO THOSE SITTING WITH YOU HAVE TO ACCEPT FIRST? 1. I can watch what I like 2. Those watching have to accept first 3. We usually like the same programmes	sm
1	31	(27)	WHO IN THE FAMILY USUALLY DECIDES WHAT CAN BE WATCHED ON TV AND WHAT SHOULD NOT? 1. My father 2. My mother 3. One of my brothers 4. One of my sisters 5. A relative 6. No-one.	sm
		(28)	WHAT TYPES OF PROGRAMMES DO YOU LIKE TO WATCH ON TV? Here are a number of types of programmes, tick the answer that you feel suits you most for each type.	

	Like	Don't Mind	Don't Like
	1	2	3
32 Cowboys (Westerns)	1	2	3
33 Adventure	1	2	3
34 Detectives	1	2	3
35 Space & spacemen	1	2	3
36 School Life	1	2	3

No. of Cols	Col. No.	Ques No.	Question and Code Content			
				Like	Don't Mind	Don't Like
	37		Drama	1	2	3
	38		Comedy	1	2	3
	39		Tragedy	1	2	3
	40		Religious plays	1	2	3
	41		Historical plays	1	2	3
	42		War plays	1	2	3
	43		Of great people	1	2	3
	44		Home Life & Society Problems	1	2	3
	45		Bedouin plays	1	2	3
	46		Travel	1	2	3
	47		Science & Inventions	1	2	3
	48		Aeroplanes & Flying	1	2	3
	49		Sea & Ships	1	2	3
	50		Painting & Sculpture	1	2	3
	51		Home Economics & Cooking	1	2	3
	52		Dancing	1	2	3
	53		Wild animals	1	2	3
	54		Domestic animals	1	2	3
	55		People from other countries	1	2	3
	56		Agriculture & Village Life plays	1	2	3
	57		Of great books	1	2	3
	58		Children & Child Care	1	2	3
	59		Health, medicine & Health Science	1	2	3
	60		News & World Events	1	2	3
	61		Politics	1	2	3
	62		Competitions & Quizzes	1	2	3
	63		Musicals as a whole	1	2	3
	64		Gulf musicals	1	2	3
	65		Arabic musicals	1	2	3
	66		Western musicals	1	2	3

APPENDIX J

FINAL CARD LAYOUT AND CODE CONTENT

Questionnaire: DO YOU KNOW?   Code: 905

Remarks	No. of cols	Col. No.	Quest No.	Question and Code Content	
	3	1-3		CODE	
	4	4-7		STUDENT NO.	
	2	8-9		SCHOOL NO.	
Instructions and examples are presented first.	2	10-11		CLASS NO.	
			(1)	WHAT CERTIFICATE IS REQUIRED FOR EACH OF THOSE JOBS?	
				1. Secondary Intermediate	sm
				2. Secondary	
				3. Teacher's Training College	
				4. Gulf Technical College	
				5. Don't know	
		12		Teacher Gr. 4 1-5	
		13		Practical Nurse 1-5	
		14		Air Hostess 1-5	
		15		General Nurse 1-5	
		16		Secretary 1-5	
		17		Teacher Gr. 5 1-5	
			(2)	AFTER GETTING THE REQUIRED CERTIFICATE, HOW MANY YEARS OF TRAINING ARE REQUIRED FOR EACH OF THOSE JOBS?	sm
				1. One year	
				2. Two years	
				3. Three years	
				4. Three months	
				5. Don't know	

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
		18		Practical nurse 1-5	
		19		Air Hostess 1-5	
		20		General nurse 1-5	
		21		Secretary 1 5	
		22		Teacher Gr.5 1-5	
			(3)	HOW MANY HOURS OF WORK ARE REQUIRED FOR EACH OF THOSE JOBS?	
				1. 36 hours per week	sm
				2. 31 hours per week	
				3. 64 hours per week	
				4. Don't know	
		23		Teacher 1-4	
		24		Nurse 1-4	
		25		Air Hostess 1-4	
		26		Secretary 1-4	
			(4)	HOW LONG IS THE VACATION PERIOD GIVEN FOR EACH OF THOSE JOBS?	
				1. 21 days	sm
				2. One month	
				3. Three months	
				4. Don't know	
		27		Teacher 1-4	
		28		Nurse 1-4	
		29		Air Hostess 1-4	
		30		Secretary 1-4	
			(5)	WHAT IS THE LOCATION OF EACH OF THOSE INSTITUTIONS?	
				1. Manama	sm
				2. Muharraq	
				3. Issa Town	
				4. Rifa'a	
				5. Don't know	

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
		31		Gulf Technical College 1-5	
		32		Teachers' Training College 1-5	
		33		College of Health Sciences 1-5	
		34		Gulf Air Training Centre 1-5	
			(6)	WHAT STIPEND IS GIVEN IN THE FIRST YEAR OF TRAINING TO EACH OF THOSE JOBS?	
				1. 50 Dinars per month	sm
				2. 65 Dinars per month	
				3. 98 Dinars per month	
				4. I don't know	
		35		Practical Nurse 1-4	
		36		Air Hostess 1-4	
		37		General Nurse 1-4	
			(7)	WHAT TRANSPORT FACILITIES ARE PROVIDED FOR EACH OF THOSE JOBS?	
				1. Facilities for those living more than one mile from home	sm
				2. Facilities for all. Bus stops at specific areas	
				3. Company provides transport	
				4. No facilities available	
				5. Don't know	
		38		Teacher 1-5	
		39		Nurse 1-5	
		40		Air Hostess 1-5	
		41		Secretary 1-5	
			(8)	WHAT SALARY IS GIVEN AFTER COMPLETION OF TRAINING TO EACH OF THOSE JOBS?	

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
				1. 84 Dinars per month	sm
				2. 95 Dinars per month	
				3. 99 Dinars per month	
				4. 115 Dinars per month	
				5. 119 Dinars per month	
				6. Don't know.	
		42		Teacher Gr. 4 1-6	
		43		Practical Nurse 1-6	
		44		Air Hostess 1-6	
		45		General Nurse 1-6	
		46		Secretary Gr. 5 1-6	
		47		Teacher Gr. 5 1-6	

APPENDIX K

FINAL CARD LAYOUT AND CARD CONTENT

Questionnaire: WHAT DO YOU THINK?   Code: 906

Remarks	No. of Cols	Col No.	Quest No.	Question & Code Content
	3	1-3		CODE
	4	4-7		STUDENT NO.
	2	8-9		SCHOOL NO.
	2	10-11		CLASS NO.
Instructions and example presented first.				
			(1)	TEACHER'S JOB:
				1. True
				2. Don't know
				3. Not True
		12	1.	Requires good academic quali-fications
		13	2.	Involves difficult training
		14	3.	It is not socially prestigious
		15	4.	Rumoured to be only a stepstone to marriage
		16	5.	Provides opportunites for socializing
		17	6.	Requires a nice personality
		18	7.	Provides good opportunities for career mobility
		19	8.	Rumoured that choosers not dedicated
		20	9.	Helps achieve independence
		21	10.	It is a secure & sheltered job.

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content
			(2)	NURSE'S JOB: 1. True 2. Don't Know 3. Not True
		22	1.	Requires good academic qualifications
		23	2.	Involves difficult training
		24	3.	It is not socially prestigious
		25	4.	Rumoured to be only a stepstone to marriage
		26	5.	Provides opportunites for socializing
		27	6.	Requires a nice personality
		28	7.	Provides good opportunities for career mobility
		29	8.	Rumoured that choosers are not dedicated
		30	9.	Helps achieve independence
		31	10.	It is a secure & sheltered job
			(3)	AIR HOSTESS' JOB 1. True 2. Don't know 3. Not True
		32	1.	Requires good academic qualifications
		33	2.	Involves difficult training
		34	3.	It is not socially prestigious
		35	4.	Rumoured to be only a stepstone to marriage
		36	5.	Provides opportunites for socializing
		37	6.	Requires a nice personality

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content
		38	7.	Provides good opportunities for career mobility
		39	8.	Rumoured that choosers are not dedicated
		40	9.	Helps achieve independence
		41	10.	It is a secure and sheltered job
			(4)	SECRETARY'S JOB: 1. True 2. Don't Know 3. Not True
		42	1.	Requires good academic qualifications
		43	2.	Involves difficult training
		44	3.	It is not socially prestigious
		45	4.	Rumoured to be only a stepstone to marriage
		46	5.	Provides opportunities for socializing
		47	6.	Requires a nice personality
		48	7.	Provides good opportunities for career mobility
		49	8.	Rumoured that choosers are not dedicated
		50	9.	Helps achieve independence
		51	10.	It is a secure and sheltered job
			(5)	RANK THOSE JOBS FROM THE MOST IMPORTANT IN STATUS IN OUR SOCIETY TO THE LEAST: 1. Waitress 2. Doctor 3. Teacher 4. Cook 5. Lawyer

(Cont..)

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
				6. Nurse	
				7. Secretary	
				8. Air Hostess	
		52		1st in Importance	1-8
		53		2nd "	1-8
		54		3rd "	1-8
		55		4th "	1-8
		56		5th "	1-8
		57		6th "	1-8
		58		7th "	1-8
		59		8th "	1-8

APPENDIX L

FINAL CARD LAYOUT AND CARD CONTENT

Questionnaire: WHAT IS YOUR ATTITUDE? (1)   Code: 907

Remarks	No of Cols	Col No.	Quest No.	Question and Code Content
	3	1-3		CODE
	4	4-7		STUDENT NO.
	2	8-9		SCHOOL NO.
	2	10-11		CLASS NO.
Instructions and example presented first			(1)	TEACHER'S JOB
				1. Strongly Agree
				2. Agree
				3. Uncertain
				4. Disagree
				5. Strongly Disagree
		12	1	This is the ideal job for life
		13	2	Like the discipline in this job
		14	3	Dislike heavy responsibility involved
		15	4	Dislike having to carry orders
		16	5	Like the uniform
		17	6	Choose when found no other job
		18	7	Like the fact that no decision-making is involved
		19	8	Dislike certain aspects
		20	9	Like opportunity presented to socialize
		21	10	Dislike irregular working hours
		22	11	The advantages are several
		23	12	It is a routine & boring job
		24	13	Opportunities for career mobility are several
		25	14	There are better jobs

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content
			(2)	NURSE'S JOB:
				1. Strongly Agree
				2. Agree
				3. Uncertain
				4. Disagree
				5. Strongly Disagree
		26	1	This is the ideal job for life
		27	2	Like the discipline in this job
		28	3	Dislike heavy responsibility involved
		29	4	Dislike having to carry orders
		30	5	Like the uniform
		31	6	Choose when found no other job
		32	7	Like the fact that no decision-making is involved
		33	8	Dislike certain aspects
		34	9	Like opportunity presented to socialize
		35	10	Dislike irregular working hours
		36	11	The advantages are several
		37	12	It is a routine and boring job
		38	13	Opportunities for career mobility are several
		39	14	There are better jobs.

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content
			(3)	AIR HOSTESS' JOB
				1. Strongly Agree
				2. Agree
				3. Uncertain
				4. Disagree
				5. Strongly Disagree
		40	1	This is the ideal job for life
		41	2	Like the discipline in this job
		42	3	Dislike heavy responsibility involved
		43	4	Dislike having to carry orders
		44	5	Like the uniform
		45	6	Choose when found no other job
		46	7	Like the fact that no decision-making is involved
		47	8	Dislike certain aspects
		48	9	Like opportunity presented to socialize
		49	10	Dislike irregular working hours
		50	11	The advantages are several
		51	12	It is a routine and boring job
		52	13	Opportunities for career mobility are several
		53	14	There are better jobs.

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content
			(4)	SECRETARY'S JOB:
				1. Strongly Agree
				2. Agree
				3. Uncertain
				4. Disagree
				5. Strongly Disagree
		54	1	This is the ideal job for life
		55	2	Like the discipline in this job
		56	3	Dislike heavy responsibility involved
		57	4	Dislike having to carry orders
		58	5	Like the uniform
		59	6	Choose when found no other job
		60	7	Like the fact that no decision-making is involved
		61	8	Dislike certain aspects
		62	9	Like opportunity presented to socialize
		63	10	Dislike irregular working hours
		64	11	The advantages are several
		65	12	It is a routine and boring job
		66	13	Opportunities for career mobility are several
		67	14	There are better jobs.

APPENDIX M

FINAL CARD LAYOUT AND CARD CONTENT

Questionnaire: WHAT IS YOUR ATTITUDE? (2)   Code: 908

Remarks	No. of Cols	Col No.	Quest No.	Question and Code Content
	3	1-3		CODE
	4	4-7		STUDENT NO.
	2	8-9		SCHOOL NO.
	2	10-11		CLASS NO.
				1. Strongly Agree
				2. Agree
				3. Uncertain
				4. Disagree
				5. Strongly Disagree
		12	(1)	Housework is womens' real work
		13	(2)	Women should have freedom of choice
		14	(3)	Womens' Role is to marry and have children
		15	(4)	If a woman is working, the husband should share housework
		16	(5)	Womens' place is in the home
		17	(6)	Further education is beneficial to women
		18	(7)	If husband is well off, women should not work
		19	(8)	Women are capable of housework and work
		20	(9)	Women are less intelligent than men
		21	(10)	Marriage should not be approached for shelter and security only
		22	(11)	Women should be taught only what is useful to the home

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content
		23	(12)	Women should use talent outside home
		24	(13)	When a girl gets married, she should leave work
		25	(14)	Women should become economically independent
		26	(15)	Women should choose only secure and sheltered jobs
		27	(16)	Girls should get married only after graduating from school.

APPENDIX N

FINAL CARD LAYOUT AND CARD CONTENT

Questionnaire: WHAT BOTHERS YOU?   Code: 909

Remarks	No. of Col	Col No.	Quest No.	Question and Code content
	3	1-3		CODE
	4	4-7		STUDENT NO.
	2	8-9		SCHOOL NO.
	2	10-11		CLASS NO.
				1. Bothers me a lot
				2. Bothers me a little
				3. Does not bother me at all
		12	(1)	Working with a dentist
		13	(2)	Work at school unsatisfactory
		14	(3)	Illnesses
		15	(4)	Start something and not finish it
		16	(5)	Marriage
		17	(6)	The sight of blood
		18	(7)	Exams
		19	(8)	School uniforms
		20	(9)	Get scolded by teacher
		21	(10)	Thoughts of death
		22	(11)	Studies
		23	(12)	Strict discipline
		24	(13)	Going to work
		25	(14)	Obeying orders
		26	(15)	Leaving school
		27	(16)	Smell of antiseptic and disinfectants

APPENDIX N

FINAL CARD LAYOUT AND CARD CONTENT

Questionnaire: WHAT BOTHERS YOU?   Code: 909

Remarks	No. of Col	Col No.	Quest No.	Question and Code content
	3	1-3		CODE
	4	4-7		STUDENT NO.
	2	8-9		SCHOOL NO.
	2	10-11		CLASS NO.
				1. Bothers me a lot
				2. Bothers me a little
				3. Does not bother me at all
		12	(1)	Working with a dentist
		13	(2)	Work at school unsatisfactory
		14	(3)	Illnesses
		15	(4)	Start something and not finish it
		16	(5)	Marriage
		17	(6)	The sight of blood
		18	(7)	Exams
		19	(8)	School uniforms
		20	(9)	Get scolded by teacher
		21	(10)	Thoughts of death
		22	(11)	Studies
		23	(12)	Strict discipline
		24	(13)	Going to work
		25	(14)	Obeying orders
		26	(15)	Leaving school
		27	(16)	Smell of antiseptic and disinfectants

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
		28	(17)	Lack of self confidence	
		29	(18)	Taking decisions	
		30	(19)	Darkness	
		31	(20)	Working with people	
		32	(21)	Insects	
		33	(22)	Working with a doctor	
		34	(23)	Inability to concentrate	
		35	(24)	Contact with infectious diseases	
		36	(25)	Called to the headmisstress's office	
		37	(26)	Sound of someone in pain	
		38	(27)	Staying alone at night	
		39	(28)	Thunder and lightning	
		40	(29)	Hospital atmosphere	
		41	(30)	Starting work	
		42	(31)	Administering injections	
		43	(32)	Nightmares	
		44	(33)	Ambulance siren	
		45	(34)	Being unpractical	
		46	(35)	Going to school	
		47	(36)	Seeing victims of an accident	
		48	(37)	Strong winds.	

APPENDIX P
FINAL CARD LAYOUT AND CODE CONTENT

Questionnaire: YOUR OPINIONS FOR THE LAST TIME   Code: 901

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
	3	1-3		Code	
	4	4-7		Student No.	
	2	8-9		School No.	
	2	10-11		Class No.	
	1	14	(1)	THERE ARE DIVERSE EVENTS, NEWS AND TOPICS THAT WE WATCH, LISTEN TO OR READ ABOUT IN THE MASS MEDIA. WHICH MEDIUM DO YOU THINK YOU TRUST MOST? 1. T.V. 2. Radio 3. Newspapers 4. Magazines 5. Books 6. None 7. Don't know	sm
	2	15-16	(2)	NOW THAT THIS SCHOOL YEAR IS DRAWING TO AN END, IF YOU ARE PLANNING TO WORK, WHAT WORK DO YOU HAVE IN MIND? 1. Not planning to work 2. Teacher 3. Dressmaker 4. Secretary 5. Nurse 6. Accountant	sm

(Cont.)

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
				7. Doctor 8. Air Hostess 9. Employee at Company 10. Self-employed(private business) 11. Lawyer 12. Journalist 13. Broadcaster 14. Traffic Warden 15. Engineer 16. Policewoman 17. Civil Servant 18. Don't know	
	1	17	(3)	WHAT QUALIFIES A PERSON TO DO AN IMPORTANT JOB? 1. Known family 2. Religion and tradition 3. Popularity 4. Work and experience	sm
	1	18	(4)	WHAT IS THE MOST IMPORTANT ELEMENT FOR OUR NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT? 1. Citizen's hard loyal work 2. Government planning 3. God's help 4. Good luck	sm
	1	19	(5)	SOME PEOPLE ARGUE THAT IT IS IMPORTANT THESE DAYS FOR A HUSBAND AND WIFE TO PLAN THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN THEY WANT (cont.)	

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
				SO AS TO DIRECT MORE ATTENTION TO THE ONES THEY HAVE. OTHERS ARGUE THAT IT IS WRONG TO PLAN THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN BORN. WHAT IS YOUR POSITION ON FAMILY PLANNING? 1. Agree with family planning 2. Disagree with family planning	sm
	1	20	(6)	IF YOU MEET SOMEONE FROM ANOTHER COUNTRY AND CULTURE, DO YOU THINK YOU CAN UNDER-STAND AND TOLERATE THEIR WAY OF THINKING AND HABITS? 1. Yes 2. No	sm
	1	21	(7)	WHAT TYPE OF NEWS DO YOU ENJOY MOST? 1. World news 2. Local news 3. Fashion news 4. News of celebrations and festivities Do you know...	sm
			(8)	WHAT CERTIFICATE IS REQUIRED FOR EACH OF THOSE JOBS? 1. Second Intermediate 2. Secondary	sm

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
				3. Teacher's Training College	
				4. Gulf Technical College	
				5. Don't know	
	1	22		Practical Nurse 1 - 5	
	1	23		Teacher Gr. 5 1 - 5	
	1	24		General Nurse 1 - 5	
			(9)	HOW MANY HOURS OF WORK ARE REQUIRED FOR EACH OF THOSE JOBS?	
				1. 36 hours per week	sm
				2. 31 hours per week	
				3. 64 hours per week	
				4. Don't know	
	1	25		Teacher 1 - 4	
	1	26		Nurse 1 - 4	
			(10)	AFTER GETTING THE REQUIRED CERTIFICATE, HOW MANY YEARS OF TRAINING ARE REQUIRED FOR EACH OF THOSE JOBS?	
				1. One year	sm
				2. Two years	
				3. Three years	
				4. Four years	
				5. Don't know	
	1	27		Practical nurse 1 - 5	
	1	28		Teacher Gr. 5 1 - 5	
	1	29		General nurse 1 - 5	

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
			(11)	HOW LONG IS THE VACATION PERIOD GIVEN FOR EACH OF THOSE JOBS? 1. 21 days 2. One month 3. Three months 4. Don't know	sm
	1	30		Teacher 1 - 4	
	1	31		Nurse 1 - 4	
			(12)	WHAT STIPEND IS GIVEN IN THE FIRST YEAR OF TRAINING TO EACH OF THOSE JOBS? 1. 50 Dinars per month 2. 65 Dinars per month 3. 98 Dinars per month 4. Don't know	sm
	1	32		Practical nurse	
	1	33		Teacher	
	1	34		General Nurse	
			(13)	WHAT TRANSPORT FACILITIES ARE PROVIDED FOR EACH OF THOSE JOBS? 1. Facilities for those living more than one mile from home 2. Facilities for all. Bus stops at specific areas. 3. Company provides transport 4. No facilities available 5. Don't know	sm

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
	1	35		Teacher 1 - 5	
	1	36		Nurse 1 - 5	
				WHAT IS YOUR ATTITUDE?	
			(14)	Nurses Job: 1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Uncertain 4. Disagree 5. Strongly Disagree	sm
	1	37	1	This is the ideal job for life	
	1	38	2	Like the discipline in this job	
	1	39	3	Dislike the heavy responsibility involved.	
	1	40	4	Dislike having to carry out orders	
	1	41	5	Like the uniform	
	1	42	6	Choose when found no other job	
	1	43	7	Like the fact that no decision-making is involved	
	1	44	8	Dislike certain aspects	
	1	45	9	Dislike the irregular working hours	
	1	46	10	The advantages are several	
	1	47	11	It is a routine and boring job	
	1	48	12	There are better jobs	
			(15)	Teachers Job: 1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Uncertain 4. Disagree 5. Strongly Disagree	sm

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content
	1	49	1	This is the ideal job for life
	1	50	2	Like the discipline in this job
	1	51	3	Dislike the heavy responsibility involved
	1	52	4	Dislike having to carry out orders
	1	53	5	Like the uniform
	1	54	6	Choose when found no other job
	1	55	7	Like the fact that no decision-making is involved
	1	56	8	Dislike certain aspects
	1	57	9	Dislike the irregular working hours
	1	58	10	The advantages are several
	1	59	11	It is a routine and boring job
	1	60	12	There are better jobs
			(16)	WHAT DO YOU THINK? Nurses Job: 1. True 2. Not True 3. Don't know
	1	61	1	Does it require a good academic qualification?
	1	62	2	Does it involved difficult training?
	1	63	3	Is it socially prestigious?
	1	64	4	Is it true, as rumoured, that it is used only as a stepstone to marriage?
	1	65	5	Does it provide opportunities for socializing?
	1	66	6	Does it require a nice personality?

sm

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
	1	67	7	Does it provide good opportunities for career mobility?	
	1	68	8	Is it true, as rumoured, that choosers are not dedicated?	
	1	69	9	Does it help achieve independence?	
	1	70	10	Is it a secure and sheltered job?	
			(17)	Teacher's Job: 1. True 2. Don't know 3. Not True	sm
	1	71	1	Does it require a good academic qualification?	
	1	72	2	Does it involved difficult training?	
	1	73	3	Is it socially prestigious?	
	1	74	4	Is it true, as rumoured, that it is used only as a stepstone to marriage?	
	1	75	5	Does it provide opportunities for socializing?	
	1	76	6	Does it require a nice personality?	
	1	77	7	Does it provide good opportunities for career mobility?	
	1	78	8	Is it true, as rumoured, that choosers are not dedicated?	
	1	79	9	Does it help achieve independence?	
	1	80	10	Is it a secure and sheltered job?	
	1	12	(18)	HAVE YOU SEEN ANY OF THE PROGRAMME SERIES "THE MERCIFUL HEARTS"? 1. Yes 2. No	

Remarks	No. of cols	col no.	Ques no.	Question & Code Content	
	1	13	(19)	IF YES, HOW MANY OF THE PRO-GRAMMES HAVE YOU SEEN? 1. None of the programmes 2. One programme 3. Two programmes 4. Three programmes	

APPENDIX Q

BAHRAIN

Basic Information

Area	265 Square Miles
Population	341,000 (estimate)
Bahrainis	Approximately ¾ of the total population
Economically Active Population	60,301 (1971 census)
Bahrainis	37,950 (1971 census)
Religion	Islam
Official Language	Arabic (English widely spoken)
Capital	Manama
Government	Sovereign Independent Arab State ruled by H.H. Sheikh Issa Bin Sulman Alkhalifa.

SUMMARY:

Bahrain became an independent state in August, 1971. This
date officially marked the end of the special political and
military ties with the British Government under which
Britain was responsible for the island's defence and
foreign affairs.

As an Independent Arab State, Bahrain became a member of the
United Nations and the Arab League.

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. . . . . . وفقنـا اللـه جميعـا لما فيه الخـير والسـداد . . . .

المقدمه فى الحلقات السابقه :-

لـــو قـــدمـــت كـــل مـــا أملـــك . . . .

. . . .

١   (٧) · واللواتي كـن في بعثـة منـذ مـدة قريبـة عن تجربتهـن بـبـلد الحـياة على · ·
ايرلنـــدا ·٠٠٠

س : بالاضافة الى الدراسـة التـى تلقـتنهـا في الكليـة في ايرلنـدا ، هل كـان
عنـدكن نشـاطـات اخـرى ؟

شا   ١-النشاطـات رياضيـة ·
ب ٢-الرحـلات في ايرلنـدا ·

س: هـل كانـت هناك محاضـرات ضمـن برامجكن/بالاضافـة الـى تخصصكم
فـى التمريـض ؟

س : مـاذا عـن السكـن ، هـل كـان مريحـا/وماهـى التسهـيلات الـتى
كانـت موجـودة فيـه ؟

س : هـل حصلتـن على فُرصـة زرتـن فيهـا اوروبـا ؟

ـــ الخاتمـــة :ـــ
=========

اذا فمهنـة التمريـض ليسـت فقـط مهنـة انسانيـه/وانمـا تتـاز
بتثقيـف الطالبـات تثقيفـاً جيـداً/وتهـيئ فُرصـاً للتعـرف على البـلاد
الا خـرى مـن خـلال البعثـات ٠٠٠
مشاهـدين الكـرام ٠٠ أودّ أن اشكـر الزميـلات على اشتراكهـن في هذه
النـدوه/ونرجـو أن نكـون قـد أوضحنـا لكـم بعـض التساؤلا ت عـن مهنة التمريـض/

س : هـــل لحمـل المســـؤوليـــة الكبيـــرة خلال هـــذه المهنة عبـُّ ثقيـــل ؟

س : هـــل تجـــدن أنفسكن مـــراراً فى حاجـــة الى اتخـــاذ قـــرارات شخصية أم/فى اغلـــب الا وقـــات المقـــررارات موضوعـــة وماعليكن الا التنفيـــذ ؟

س : هـــل/مهنـة المرضة جلها روتينيـة أم تواجهـــلو حالات جديدة وغريبة دائمـــا ؟

س : ماهـــى حســـنات هـــذه المهنـة ؟

* البستقبـل وفـخرص التقـدم بما حيسة ضرورية فى اختصاص ...

س : ما هـــو مستقبـل المرضـــة فى الفـرع العلمى /والذى تلتحـق به حاملـة الشهـــادة الاعداديـة ؟
س : ماهـــى مجالات التخصص للمرضـــة الفـرع العلمـى ؟

س : ماهـــى مجالات التقـــدم للمرضـــة الفـرع العـام /والذى تلتحـق به حاملـة الشهـــادة التوجيـهية ؟

س : ماهـــى مجالات التخصـــص فى مهنـة التريــض ؟

* اذا اثبتت الطالبة فى التريـض العام كمـــاءة جيـــدة يمكن ان ترسل فى بعث الـــى الخـــارج للتخصص والتمرين ...... نـــود ان تسميعوا من الزملاء جميعا

٨١ - مهنة التمريض الاجتماعية جزء مهم من حماية الإنسان السلمية . .
نكيف هي هذه الحال في مهنة التمريض ؟؟ .

س : هـل تتيح هـذه المهنة الوقـت الكافي لزيارة الصديقات ومارسة
الهوايات والراحة ؟

س : يقـال أنه من واجـب المرضة أن تتحلـى بشخصيه جذابه وأنـا
هـو رأيـك ؟؟

س : هـل ساعدتك مهنة التمريض على الاعتمـاد على النفـس اجتماعيـاً
وماديـاً ؟

س : هـل تعتبرين مهنة التمريض مهنة مضمونة وفيها الاستقرار ؟

س: يقـال أن مهنة التمريض لا تلقـى نظـرة أستحقاق في مجتمعنا
فهـل هـذا صحيح ؟وماهـو السبـب في رأيـك ؟

س : " الزواج " قـد تواجهه كل مرضه فهـل تجدين أن مهنة التمريض
تكـون عائقـاً عن الجمـع بيـن البيـت والعمـل ؟

× : لكـل مهنة ميزاتها الخاصة نفسها وحسناتها وسلبيات

س : هـل يضايقـك ضـرورة المحافظة على النظـام واتباعيتها ضمـن

س : ماهـي الشـهادة المطلوبـة للتمريض العلمي ؟

طانوية

س : ماهـي الشهادة المطلوبه للتمريض العام ؟

ثانوية

س : هـل هنـاك مسـتوى معيـن متـوقع لهـذه الشـهادة ؟ وأي شهـادة
الـمدارس الثانوية ؟

ثانوية

س : كـم عـدد سـنوات الدراسـة والتمرين المطلوبه للتمريض العلمي ؟

ثانوية

و التمرين

س : كـم عـدد سـنوات الـدراسـة والتدريب المطلوبة للتمريض العـام ؟

ثلاث مرة

س : عندما تتخـرج الطالبه من المدرسـة تلجـأ الى العمـل حالاً لأنها قد تكون
فى حاجـة مادبـة . x . كيـف يسـاعدها دخولها الى مدرسة التمريض فى هذه
الناحيـة ؟

٤)

س : طبعـا كنـا نواجـه مشـاكل المواصلات فماهـى التسـهيلات المتوفـرة
للطالبـة فى مدرسـة التمريـض حاليـا ؟

س: عندما يفكـر الإنسـان بعمل المرضـه / تتهيئ له أعمـل متواصـل x .
ماهـى مـدة الإجازة السـنوية المخصصة للمرضة ؟

س ٠ قـد يتـردد البعـض بالالتحـاق بمهنـة معينـة بسـبب عـدد سـاعات
العمـل / ماهـو الوضـع بالنسـبة للتمريض ؟

إلى الخارج/للإلتحاق بالجامعات والكليات/للتخصص والتمريس

وقد تتساءل الكثيرات ما هي متطلبات هذه المهنة ومميزاتها.

منها ستحاول في هذه الندوة سنحاول التطرق إلى أغلبية الأسئلة التي قد تتساءل عنها أية طالبة ب/. . وقبل البدء سنقوم بالتعريف بهم . . المجموعة التي معنا هنا/وهن من وفد المرضات اللواتي قد عدن إلى البحرين منذ مدة قصيرة بعد بعثة دراسية في ايرلندا في كلية الجراحة/والتي همي أشهر وأفضل كلية في ايرلند الجراحة والتمريس ب/. . ولقد إستغرقت الدورة كاملة سنة كاملة للتمريس في مجالات . . . مختلفة في مجالات التمريس . . .

الوفد كان مكونا من إثنى عشرة ممرضة /أما اللواتي حضرن من بين هذا الوفد للإشتراك معنا في هذه الندوة فهم :-

الأخت إبتسام الشيخ . . . . والأخت طاهرة جابري
والأخت شيخة يوسف . . . . والأخت مريم حسين

ونأمل في هذه الندوة أن نقدم صورة أوضح عن مهنة التمريس ب/

سـ دور الحوار حـول :

١ـ معلومات عن مهنة التمريس
٢ـ التمريس من الناحية الاجتماعية
٣ـ مميزات مهنة التمريس
٤ـ مستقبل المرضة

ونلاحظ أن للتمريس فرعين/فرع للتمريس العام/آخر للتمريس العملي

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وطموح الى المهن ذات الشهرة والبريـق والبريـق .... طموح يحـق لـه كـل
تشجيـع ومـدح وثنـاء .... ولكـن ، هـل لكـل عمـل فى هـذا المجتمـع
شهـرة وبريـق ؟ اليـس لكـل مهنـة فى مجتمعنـا أهميتهـا ومكانتهـا
ولـولا اختـلاف الآراء والميـول لتـوقف سـير المجتمـع ......

لـذا فنحـن هنـا نسـلط الاضـواء على وظيفـة مهنيـة ... تضفـى علـى
حيـاة الانسـان معنـى .... وقيمـه ... وعمقـا لأن يعمـل ليس لنفسـه
فقـط ولكـن للكثيرين الـذيـن هـم بحاجـة اليـه ..... ماأسـعد الانسان الذى
يطـوى صفحـة يـوم من العمـل وقـد أرجـع فيـه الابتسامات والسـعادة
الـى وجـوه حزينـه أعجزهـا الألـم وأضناهـا المـرض .. ماأسـعد الانسان
الـذى يشـعر براحـة النفـس والضميـر فى الحيـاة ويلـقـى الأجـر والثواب فى
الآخـرة ....

وقـد قال اللّه سبحانه وتعالى فى كتابه الكريـم +
٣ ان الـذيـن آمنـوا وعملـوا الصالحات وانا لا نضيـع أجـر من احسن عمـلا

ليسـت مهنـة التمريـض مهنـة انسانية فحسب ولكنهـا مهنـة تهيئ فرصـا
عـديـدة من الناحيـة الثقافيـة فى كليـة العلوم الصحيـة حيـث تتلقـى الطالبـة
فيهـا العلـوم الطبيعية .. والصحيـة .. والبشـرية ... واللـغة الانجليزيـة
كمـا وتهيئ مهنـة التمريـض للطالبـة جـوا دراسيـا واجتماعيـا فى الكليـة ..
وبمـا انهـا وظيفـة مهنيـة فـان من يختارهـا يضمـن وجـود مهنـة لـه
مـدى الحيـاة .. وان العمـل جـادود ووب فى هـذه الكليـة بالـذات لجعـل
شهـادات التخـرج منهـا معتـرف بهـا فى الكليـات او الجامعات الاخـرى
ومن الأمـور التـى تتمـاز بهـا مهنـة التمريـض هى ارسـال بعثـات من المتفوقـا

وطمــوح الى المهــن ذات الشـــهرة والبريـــق .... طمــوح يحــق له كـــل

تشـــجيع ومــدح وثنـــاء .... ولكــن ، هــل لكــل عمــل فى هـــذا المجتمع

شـــهرة وبريـــق ؟ البـــس لكـــل مهنـــة فى مجتمعنـــا أهميتهـــا ومكانتهـــا

ولــولا اختــــلاف الآراء والميـــول لتــــوقف ســـير المجتمع ......

لـــذا فنحـــن هنـــا نســـلط الأضــواء على وظيفــة مهنيـــة .. تضفى علــى

حيـــاة الانســان معنـــى .... وقيمـــة ... وعمقـــا لأن يعمــل ليس لنفســـه

نقـــط ولكــن للكثيـرين الـــذيئ هـــم بحاجـــة اليـــه ...... ما أســـعد الانسان الذى

يطـــوى صفحـــة يـــوم من العمـــل وقد أرجـــع نهيـــه الابتســـامات والسعـــادة

الـــى وجـــوه حزينـــة أعجزهـــا الألـــم وأضناهـــا المـــرض .. ما اسعـــد الانسان

الـــذى يشـــعر براحـــة النفــس والضميـــر فى الحيـــاة وليكـــى الأجـــر والثواب فى

الآخـــرة ....

وقـــد قال الله سبحانه وتعالى فى كتابه الكريـــم +

" إن الذيـن آمنـــوا وعملـــوا الصالحـــات إنا لا نضيـــع أجـــر من احسن عمـــلا "

ليست مهنـــة التمريـــض مهنـــة إنسانية فحسب / ولكنهـــا مهنـــة تهيئ فرصـــا

عـــديدة من الناحيـــة الثقافيـــة فى "كليـــة العلوم الصحيـــة" حيــث تتلقى الطالبـــة

فيهــا العلـــوم الطبيعيـــة ... والصحيـــة ... والبشريـــة ... واللغـــة الانجليزيـــة

كمـــا وتهيئ مهنـــة التمريـــض للطالبـــة جــــوًّا دراسيًّا وإجتماعيًّا فى الكليـــة ..

وبمـــا أنهـــا وظيفـــة مهنيـــة / فان من يختارهـــا يضمـــن وجـــود مهنـــة لـــه

مـــدى الحيـــاة ... وإن العمـــل جــادون وب فى هـــذه الكليـــة بالـــذات لجعـــل

شهـــادات التخـــرج منهـــا معتـــرف بهـــا فى الكليـــات أو الجامعات الاخـــرى

ومن الأمـــور التـــى تتمـــاز بهـــا مهنـــة التمريـــض هى إرســال بعثـــات من المتفوقـــات

القلوب الرحيمة (الحلقة الثالثة)

اعـداد : هالة العمران

حضـرات المشـاهدين الكـرام . . . . . .

مسـاء الخيـر . . وأهـلاً وسـهلاً بكـم فى حلقتنـا الثالثة والأخيـرة

من برنامــج القلـوب الرحيمــة . . . . . .

لقـد كانـت الغايــة الأسـاسية من الحلقتين السـابقتين من هـذا البرنامج

الأولـى بعنـوان (الحـادث) والثانيـة بعنـوان (ماهو الـذى يحدث عندنا)

هـى إظهـار الجانب الانسانى والثقافى للمهنة الـتى تُعـبّـد من أنبـل المهَـن

فى حياتنا الحاضـره . . مهنـة التمريض/مهنة الإنسـانة التى تَجـدُ نفسَـها

تَعمَـل الخيـر من أجـل الخيـر . . لا فـرق عنـدهـا بيـن إنسـان وإنسان

الكـل والأجمـع لديها إخـوة فى الإنسانية .

العمـل الإنسـانى كان مـحـور القلـوب الرحيمـه . . برنامج موجـه إلى شاباتنا

وطالباتنا وأهالينـا/للتعـريف إلى هـذه المهنة الضـرورية والأسـاسية والتى لا

يمكـن الإسـتغناء عنهـا/لأنهـا تتعلـق بأهـم وأغلـى شـىء عنـد أى إنسـان

إنسـان/الا وهـى صحتـه . . .

فالصحـة تاج فـوق رؤوس الأصحـاء لا يراهـا إلا المرضـى

(٣)

لقطه فى	وفوق كل هذا وجدت هذه الكليه أحسن وأعز الصديقات وكلهن فى
نزهة الراحة	مثل سنى وأشتركت معهن فى كل الميول والآراء •
لقطه	وتابعت ما تعلمته بالقراءه والتحصيل من كتب الكليه ٠٠٠ ففى المكتبة
فى المكتبه	كنت أشعر بسعاده فائقة وأنا أنمى أفكارى بالمعرفه •
	ومـــا أعظــم طريـــق المعرفـــة •
لقطه فى	قال الله تعالى فى كتابه الكريـــــم:
المستشفى	" ان الذين آمنوا وعملوا الصالحات انا لا نضيع أجر من أحسن عملا " •

ولم تتحمل والدتي قوة الصدمه ٠٠٠ فانهارت صحتها وأصابها نزيف

شديد وتذكرت كلمات الطبيب وأردت أن أسرع بها الى المستشفى ولكــن

دون جدوى ٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠ فلقد كانت خائفة أن يلم بها ما ألم

بوالدى ، وبعد طول الرجاء وبالاقناع أخذنا والدتى الى المستشفــى

وفى هذه المره قبل أن يفوت الأوان وهناك تعرفت على العمل الانسانى

الذى يقوم به العاملون بالمستشفى ٠٠٠ وقررت بينى وبين نفســى أن

ألتحق بكلية العلوم الصحيه لأتعلم هناك وأكون على علم ومعرفه بكل مــا

يجرى لأهلى وأحب الناس الى والى كل من يعانى من آلام ٠٠٠٠٠٠

الدخول الى	وأذكر حينما قالت لى احدى صديقاتى " بدريه " ان عمل الممرضــة
مدرسة التمريض	عمل مضن ومتعب ، ولكنى أصريت على الدخول الى الكليه وفعلا قدمـــت
	أوراقى وشهادتى التوجيهيه الى مدرسة التمريض وعندما عرفت أننى قبلت ،
	هرعت الى البيت لأخبر أمى بذلك ولأجدها تقابلنى بابتسامه رضـــا
	وسعاده فبعد تجربتها مع الممرضات قدرت أهمية ونبل هذا العمـــل .
لقاءه المعلمة	وبدأت أتعلم ٠٠٠ وبدأت أعرف الكثير عن الأمراض وعلم الأحياء ،
تعلم	والعلوم البشريه ، والرموز ، والأسرار التى داخل جسـم الانســـان
فى الصف	
لقطه فى	كنت فى أول الأمر فى غاية الدهشه ما كنت أحصل عليه من علم فى
مختبر اللغه	هذه الكلية حيث لم تكن علومى تقتصر على العلوم الصحيه والأمراض فحسب
	بل واللغه الانجليزيه والفرصه للمتفوقات لاكمال تعاليمى فى الخارج كانت

ولم تتحمل والدتى قوة الصدمه ٠٠٠ فانهارت صحتها وأصابها نزيف

شديد وتذكرت كلمات الطبيب وأردت أن أسرع بها الى المستشفى ولكــن

دون جدوى ٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠ فلقد كانت خائفة أن يلم بها ما ألم

بوالدى ، وبعد طول الرجاء والاقناع أخذنا والدتى الى المستشفـــى

وفى هذه المره قبل أن يفوت الأوان وهناك تعرفت على العمل الانسانى

الذى يقوم به العاملون بالمستشفى ٠٠٠ وقررت بينى وبين نفســـى أن

ألتحق بكلية العلوم الصحيه لأتعلم هناك وأكون على علم ومعرفه بكل مــا

يجرى لأغلى وأحب الناس الى والى كل من يعانى من آلام ٠٠٠٠٠٠

الدخول الى   وأذكر حينما قالت لى احدى صديقاتى " بدريه " ان عمل المرضــة

مدرسة التمريض   عمل مضن ومتعب ، ولكننى أصررت على الدخول الى الكليه وفعلا قد بـــت

أوراقى وشهادتى التوجيهيه الى مدرسة التمريض وعندما عرفت أننى قبلت ،

عرعت الى البيت لأخبر أمى بذلك ولأجدها تقابلنى بابتسامه رضـــا

وسعاده فبعد تجربتها مع المرضات قدرت أهمية ونبل هذا العمـــل

لقاء المعلمة   وبدأت أتعلم ٠٠٠ وبدأت أعرف الكثير عن الأمراض وعلم الأحياء،

تعلم   والعلوم البشريه ، والرموز، والأسرار فى داخل جسم الانســـان

فى الصف

لقاء فى   كنت فى أول الأمر فى غاية الدهشه ما كنت أحصل عليه من علم فى

مختبر اللغه   هذه الكلية حيث لم تكن علومى تقتصر على العلوم الصحيه والأمراض فحسب

بل واللغه الانجليزيه والفرصه للمتفوقات لاكمال تعليمى فى الخـــارج كانت

القلوب الرحيمه .

(الحلقه الثانية)

المقدمه : لو قدمت كل ما أملك

لقلات في المستشفى

و

وجه المريض

حينما أخذ بي أبي الى المستشفى لم أتوقف لحظة عن البكاء ، بكاء امتزجت به الدموع والدهشة والتساؤلات وقد التفت من حولي زميلاتي في المدرسة يسألنني عن سبب بكائي ، لماذا تبكين؟ فقلت لهن : لقد أخذ بي أبي اليوم الى المستشفى وسألتني احداهن لماذا ؟ ماذا به؟ فقلت لا أعرف وكنت فعلا يومها لا أعرف ماذا جرى لهذا الرجل الذى كان يضرب به المثل في القوة والصحة ٠٠٠ هذا الرجل الذى كان يرفـــع أولاده الى السماء مداعبا وكأنهم ريشة بين أصابعه ٠٠٠ ماذا حــــدث؟

وبعد ها بيوم ٠٠٠ توفى والدى فأسرعت الى الطبيب أساله لمـــاذا لماذا مات أبى ؟؟ لماذا لم تنجح العملية؟؟ وقال الطبيب مواسيا آسف يا ابنتى فلقد أحضرتموه بعد أن فات الأوان وعدت الى البيت ونظرت الى وجوه امى واخوتى واخواتى ٠٠٠ وجوه انتابها الألم والحزن الشديــــد وبقيت أفكر وأتساءل ٠٠٠ هل يعرف أحد منهم لماذا مات والدى ؟؟ في الحقيقة اننا لم نعرف خطوره ما أصابه الا بعد أن فات الأوان —

درسى هذى الفترة وكنت اسأل روحى دائما . . . عسكو ثايدة تعليى
وينكسى وبماشى اذا كنت كأمرف أسعف طفل مشل أحسون !
درست الأيام وصرت برحبك السياره فى بالى وصورة الحسون دائما فى
نكرن . . . . وليست سدة طويبله اتسائل . . شسكو ثايدة تعليى وينكسى
وبماشى اذا كنت مالعرف أسعف طفل مشل أحسون ؟
وقررت أتترك شغلى فى البنك . . . وعزمت على ان أدخل مدرسة التمريض
حتى أقدر أقوم بعمل أحسن فيها النفسى البدم عسى أحس من جمبع
وطرح الأرقسام . . . عمل السان يحرر من قلتنسى الجميلة فى الحياة
ولسلتها . . . . وفعلا دخلت مدرسة التمريض مع ان أهلى واصدقائى
نهبونى ان المهنة صعبة . . . . وبلكسى كنت مصره مع ايمان صادق
ان هذا هو الشىء اللى كنت أبيه واللى بخلى لحياتى معنى . . . /
نهد ثلثة سنوات من التمريض فى مدرسة التمريض اللى هى ألحين كلية
العلوم الصحية . . . تخرجت مرضة لعدة مهام واختصرت قسم الأطفال
للتخصص . . حتى أكون قريبة من كل طفل بقاسى مانسماه أحسون
درست الأيام كنت اعبسن نهمسا ونسى اعمالسى شعور بالارتياح والثقة
منتخسره بالرد ا الا بيسى لأنه اجمل ردا لبسته بعزسى وحبى فى الحياة

وبكسب ما اندمجت في المشغل وشمعت امس تناد بنسى وتقول انها بتروح للسوق

عشى اشمترى شوية اغــراض وبالطبع ان انتبــه لا خوانى الصغار لمــن ترجـع ...

ولا بل مـرّة ما تناقشت معاهـا لأن مجالس انقدر امسوى مشغلى وأنتبـه لهم .....

ولكنـى كـت ظطائـــه . . .راحـت امس للسـوق ،وبـد أخوانـى اللعـب وطبـعـا

لعبتهـم المفظلـة . . . وارتفـع صراخهـم ولجيت نفسـك في جلقـه من حلقات المنـود

الحـر . . . .صـراخ وهواش، .وبـــشغل، . .ماقدرت اتحمـل جلت لهـم بظلعون بلعبون

بـرع . . . .وفى نفـس الوقـت اللى كـت اقـول لهـم بتنبهـون من السـيارات . .صاروا

بـرع بركشـون وبـسرخون ستانـسـين . . . .وهـدى البيـت وبـدیت أسـتغل اموس

من التأخيــر اللى تأخرته من الصـراخ . . . . .

ونجـأة سمعت صـوت ابريكـك سـياره كـون وبـد وتذكـرت أخوائى . . .حلقـى قلبى

وركضـت بـرع أشـوف شـنو صـار . . . .

وهنـاك شفـت أخـون وجهـه أصفـر واقـف بأشـر على السـياره اللى تجيج بـارها ازه

الناس . . . . . .وركهـت للزحمـة . . . .ود زبـت الناس وشـفت آخـوى الصغير طا بـت

بـدام السـياره والـد بسـيل منـه . . . . .وصرحـت وقلـت للناس مافى أحد بساعده

مافى أحد بساعفه ؟ شاشـون . . . .وبـدوا الناس بتفجـون وبصرخون ولكنى ماقدرتان . .

أسـنح او أنهـم شـئ . . . .وصرطلوقـت وكأنبا د هـر لمـن بـات سـياره الاسعاف اللى

شـالـت أخـوي، واختفسـت في الظلريـس . . .

وبـدون تفكيـر . . .شـفت روحنى أركـس ورى السـياره مثـل المجنونه . . .مادرى اشلون

شـيت لبـن وصلـت المـستشفى . . .وكانت هـدى أول مـرة أد خل ليهـا المستشفى . .

وهنـاك عرفـت الد نيـا على حقيقتهـا الآم . . . .وابتسامات . . .ووجـوه

وصـروا لأخـون الاسعافات اللازمـه . . . .وتـم اسـبوع كامـل كت كـل بـوم أروح أنده

الأسلوب الرحيمه (الحلمه .. وحسنى ؟

يكتبها ويخرجها فتحى السمح

لو قد ست كل ما املك جزءا لما حدست الرداء الا يبعض والبد من الحائتين

لما استلمت ان اوفيهما قد رهـا هى التى سـهرت الليالى بجوار فراشـى

تخلـف عنــى آلام الـــمرض والوحــد ة وتســـع عنـى اليأس ....

باطمئنـة فى نفسى شسماع الأ مــل بعد ان حطم المرض آمالى فى الحياة

وعلمتنـى ان الد نيمـا مازالـت بخيـر ،وان الانسـان مازال بتحلى بصفات

الرحمـة والوفــاء ....وفتحت عينى على عظمة العطاء فسا اعظم من

يعطـى ....ويعطى د ون ان ينتظر الجـــزاء

انا ناد يه ....تخرجت من الثانويه العامه قسم علمى وكان حظى زين لأنـى

حصلت شغل ممتار فى بنساك ،وكـان محاسبى وليـسد زيـن وكنت أحـب

شغلى لأن كنت ..د ائمـا متفدمـه مع زميلـه تى وزملائى حتى رئيسى اللىـر

شسجمنى وابد ،كان بينامـا احتـرام وتفاهـم .. ،وكانت حياتى عاد ه به ولكن

بنفـس الوقت كان عنـد ى شسعور بالرضـا، والسعاد ة فى ،لين جا، اليـوم

اللـى فيـر القد ر حياتى وظلنـى أنتهـى الى سطحية السـعاد ة اللى كست

أعيشـــها .

رجعــت هذاك اليـوم من الشـغل .. ،وكانت مشـغل بالى فستان حلـو

شـفته فى متجـر من متاجـر الازيـاء فى السـوق .

وحسـت بالرضـا، من نفسى لين تذكرت اللى فـى شنطتـى من حسابات

جبتهـما معاى حتـى أخلـص شـغل اغانى يساعد نى فلوسـه فى ان اشترى

الفستان الحلـو اللى أحلـم به ... ،وتخد يت بسحرمه ،وجعدت اشـتغل

عـــامود البطاقـة	أعارض كليا	لا أعارض	لست متأكد أو أوافق	أوافق	أوافق كليا	
(٢٢)						١١ ــ على المرأة أن تتعلم فقط ما هو مفيد لها فى ادارة البيت .
(٢٣)						١٢ ــ يجب على المرأة ألا تكتفى بتقديـــــــم مقدرتها، ومواهبها للبيت فقط ولكـــــن لمجتمعها أيضــــــــا .
(٢٤)						١٣ ــ عندما تتزوج الفتاة عليها أن تترك العمل وتركز اهتمامها لبيتها وأطفالهـــــــا
(٢٥)						١٤ ــ يجب على المرأة أن تعتمد على نفسها ماديا ولا تلقى على البرجوازية . . . . على زوجها أو والديها لاعالتها .
(٢٦)						١٥ ــ من الأفضل أن تحاول المرأة أن تختار عملا مضمونا ومستقرا .
(٢٧)						١٦ ــ على المرأة ألا تتزوج قبل الحصـــــــول على شهادة تساعدها على شـــــــق طريقهــــــــا فى الحياة .

عامود البطاقة	أعارض كليا	لا أوافق كليا	لست متأكدة	أوافق	أوافق كليا	ضع اشارة /، عند جواب واحد لكل عبارة
(١٢)						١ ــ على المرأة أن تهتم بواجباتها تجــاه البيت والأطفال بدلا من العمل فــى الخارج .
(١٣)						٢ ــ يجب ألا يحدد للمرأة اختيارها للعمل الذى تريده .
(١٤)						٣ ــ يجب أن يكون الهدف الوحيد للفتــاة هو الزواج وجلب الأطفال .
(١٥)						٤ ــ بسبب غلاء المعيشة يتحتم على المـرأة فى أيامنا هذه أن تعمل خارج البيت لذا يجب على الرجل أن يشاركها فــى أعمال المنزل والعناية بالأطفال .
١٦)						٥ ــ مع أن المرأة تشغل مراكز مهمة فى هذه الأيام ، فان مكانها الحقيقى هـــو البيــت .
(١٧)						٦ ــ التعليم العالى مفيد للمــرأة
(١٨)						٧ ــ يجب ألا يسمح للمرأة أن تعمل اذا كان زوجها قادرا على اعالتها ماديا
(١٩)						٨ ــ المرأة قادرة على أن توفق بين البيت والعمل .
(٢٠)						٩ ــ المرأة أقل ذكاء من الرجـــل بالفطــرة .

١٠ ــ المرأة ألا تأهل الى الزواج فقط

دليـــل البطاقـة

٩	ـ	٨
(٣ - ١)

رقم الاستمــــارة

(٤ - ٧)

رقم المدرسة

(٨ - ٩)

رقم الصــف

(١٠ - ١١)

ماهو رأيــك ؟ (٢)

البيانات التى تدون على هذه الاستمارة سرية ولن تستعمل
الا لأغراض البحـــــث .

للناس آراء مختلفة عن المرأة وأهدافها فى الحياة ومركزها فى المجتمع
هنا بعض الآراء والاعتقادات عن المرأة . اقرئى كل منها بانتباه ثم ضعــــى
اشارة ✓ تحت الرأى الذى يناسبك انت ، أى اذا كنت توافقين كليا ، أو توافقـــــين
أو لست متأكدة أو لا توافقين ،أو تعارضين كليا .

مثلا :

أعارض كليا	لا أوافق	لست متأكدة	أوافق	أوافق كليا
			✓	

يجب على المرأة أن تكون عطوفا

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البطاقة	تعارض كليا	أوافق	متأكدة	أوافق	كليا	مهنة مصنفة الطـــــــــــــيران ـ
(٤٠)						ـ هذه هى المهنة المثالية لمدى الحياة
(٤١)						ـ يعجبنى فى هذه المهنة ضرورة اتباع النظام الشديد ٠
(٤٢)						ـ قد أتراجع عن الالتحاق بهذه المهنة لأنها تتطلب حمل مسؤولية كبيرة ٠
(٤٣)						ـ يضايقنى فى هذه المهنة وجوب تنفيذ أوامر الرؤساء ٠
(٤٤)						ـ يعجبنى اللباس الرسمى المخصص لهذه المهنة ٠
(٤٥)						ـ الناس يلجأون الى هذه المهنة عند ما يعجزوا الحصول على مهنة أخـــرى ٠
(٤٦)						ـ من حسنات هذه المهنة عدم وجوب اتخاذ قرارات شخصية ٠
((٤٧)						ـ هناك بعض المتطلبات فى صميم هذه المهنة لا تعجبنى ٠
(٤٨)						ـ هذه المهنة تترك للشخص الذى يختارها الوقت الكافى للزيارات و ممارسة الهوايات ٠
(. ٤٩)						ـ لا أظن أننى سأحب هذه المهنة لأنها ستحتم الى المواظبة فى أوقات غير اعتيادية ٠
(٥٠)						ـ أن فوائد هذه المهنة كثيرة ٠
(٥١)						ـ هذه المهنة مملة و " روتينية "
(٥٢)						ـ فرص التقدم فى هذه المهنة عديدة
						ـ رغم اختيار هذه المهنة وهناك مهن

س٤ ـ ضعي اشارة / عند جواب
واحد لكل عبارة •

دليل البطاقة ـ

عامود البطاقة	أعارض كليا	لا أوافق	لست متأكدة	اوافق	أوافق كليا
٦	٥	٤	٣	٢	١

مهنة السكرتيرة :ـ

						هذه هي المهنة المثالية لمدى
(٥٤)						١ـ الحياة
(٥٥)						٢ـ يعجبني في هذه المهنة ضرورة اتباع النظام الشديد •
(٥٦)						٣ـ قد اتراجع عن الالتحاق بهذه المهنة لأنها تتطلب مني حمل مسئولية كبيرة •
(٥٧)						٤ـ يضايقني في هذه المهنة وجوب تنفيذ أوامر الروؤساء •
(٥٨)						٥ـ يعجبني اللباس الرسمي المخصص لهذه المهنة •
(٥٩)						٦ـ الناس يلجؤون الى هذه المهنة عندما يعجزوا عن الحصول على مهنة أخرى •
(٦٠)						٧ـ من حسنات هذه المهنة عدم وجوب اتخاذ قرارات شخصية •
(٦١)						٨ـ هناك بعض المتطلبات في صميم هذه المهنة التي لا تعجبني •
(٦٢)						٩ـ هذه المهنة تترك للشخص الذى اختارها الوقت الكافي للزيارات وممارسة الهوايات •
(٦٣)						١٠ـ لا أظن أنني سأحب هذه المهنة لأنها ستحتم علي المواظبة في أوقات غير اعتيادية •
(٦٤)						١١ـ ان فوائد هذه المهنة كثيرة •
(٦٥)						١٢ـ هذه المهنة مملة (روتينية) •
(٦٦)						١٣ـ فرص التقدم في هذه المهنة عديدة
(٦٧)						١٤ـ لم أختار هذه المهنة وهناك من هو أسهل وأنسب؟

دليل البطاقة

عامـود البطاقـة	إعارض كليـا	لا أوافق	لست متأكـدة	أوافق	أوافق كليا
	٥	٤	٣	٢	١

مر ٢ : ــ ضعى اشارة ✓ عند جواب واحد لكل عبـــارة

مهنة المرشحة : ــ

١ــ عند ودخى المهنة المثالية امدى الحيــــاة .

(٢٦)

٢ــ يعجبنى فى هذه المهنة ضرورة اتباع النظام الشديــــد .

(٢٧)

٣ــ قد اتراجع عن الالتحاق بهذه المهنة لأنها تتطلب حمل مسئولية كبيرة .

(٢٨)

٤ــ يضايقنى فى هذه المهنة وجـــوب تنفيذ أوامر الرؤســــاء .

(٢٩)

٥ــ يعجبنى الليباس الرسمى المخصص لهذه المهنــــة .

(٣٠)

٦ــ الناس يلجؤون الى هذه المهنة عندما يعجزوا عن الحصول على مهنة أخرى .

(٣١)

٧ــ من حسنات هذه المهنة عدم وجوب اتخاذ قرارات شخصيــــة .

(٣٢)

٨ــ مثلا بعض المتطلبات فى صيم هذه المهنة لا تعجبنى .

(٣٣)

٩ــ هذه المهنة تترك للشخص الذى يختارها الوقت الكافى للزيارات وممارسة الهوايـــات .

(٣٤)

١٠ــ لا أظن أننى سأحب هذه المهنة لأنها ستحتم على المواظبة فـى أوقات غير اعتياديــــة .

(٣٥)

١١ــ ان فوائد هذه المهنة كثيرة .

(٣٦)

١٢ــ فرص التقدم فى هذه المهنة عديدة

(٣٧)

١٣ــ هذه المهنة مملة و " روتينية " .

(٣٨)

عامـود البطاقة	اعايض كليا	لا أوافق كليا	لست متأكدة	أوافـق	أوافق كليـا	ضع الاشارة ✓ عند جواب واحد لكل عبارة
		٦				مهنـــة المعلمة : ــ
(١٢)						١ـ هذه هي المهنة المثالية لمدى الحياة
(١٣)						٢ـ يعجبنى فى هذه المهنة ضرورة اتبـاع النظام الشديـــد .
(١٤)						٣ـ قد اترامع عن الالتحاق بهذه المهنة لأنها تتطالب منى حمل، مسؤولية كبيرة
(١٥)						٤ـ يضايقنى فى هذه المهنة وجوب تنفيذ أوامـــر الرؤوساء .
(١٦)						٥ـ يعجبنى اللباس الرسمى المخصـــص لهذه المهنة .
(١٧)						٦ـ الناس يلجؤون الى هذه المهنة عندما يعجزوا عن الحصول على مهنة اخرى،
(١٨)						٧ـ من حسنات هذه المهنة عدم وجـــوب اتخاذ قرارات شخصيــة .
(١٩)						٨ـ هناك بعض المتطلبات فى صميم هذه المهنة التى لاتعجبنى .
(٢٠)						٩ـ هذه المهنة تترك للشخص الذى يختارها الوقت الكافى للزيارات، وممارسة الهوايات،
(٢١)						١٠ـ لا إظن أننى سأحب هذه المهنة لأنها ستحتم على المواظبة في أوقات غير اعتيادية .
(٢٢)						١١ـ ان نوائد هذه المهنة كثـــيرة
(٢٣)						١٢ـ هذه المهنة مملة وذ روتينية .
(٢٤)						١٣ـ فرص التقدم في هذه المهنة عديدة .
						١٤ـ أختلف عن هذه المهنة وهناك بعض

دليل البطاقة

٧	٠	٩

(٣ ـــ ٩)

رقم الاستمارة

(٤ ـــ ٧)

رقم المدرسة

(٨ ـــ ٩)

رقم الصف،)

(١٠ ـــ ١١)

هو رأيك ؟ (١)

البيانات التي تدون في هذه الاستمارة سرية ولن تستعمل الا لأغراض
البحث فقط .

الناس آراء مختلفة عن أشياء عديدة .

في هذه الاستمارة بعض الاعتقادات والآراء عن بعض المهن . لكل مهنة، نرجو منك، قراءة كل رأى بانتباه
ثم وضع اشارة تحت الرأى الذى يناسبك، أى اذا كنت توافقين كليا، أو توافقين، أو لست متأكدة،

ولا توافقين، أو تعارضين كليا .

نود منك وضع رأيك أنت الخاص،فلا يوجد رأى واحد صحيح لاى شيء، ولكن آراء مختلفة،لذا نرجو أن يكون هنا
هو المهم .

ضعي اشارة واحدة عند جواب واحد

أعارض كليا	لا أوافق	لست أوافق	اوافق	أوافق كليا

مهنة ضابطة المرور :ـ

ـ هذه المهنة تحتاج الى الصبر الطويل .

٨٨٨

س ٥ ٠ ـ

هناك مهن مختلفة فى مجمعنا ولكل مهنة مركزها ومكانتها. ٠ نود منك أن تلقى نظرة على هـذه ٠
المهن الثمان ثم تضعها بالتدريج من المهنة التى هى فى رأيك لها أهم مكان ومركز فى مجتمعنا الــى
المهنة التى فى رأيك لها أقل أهمية من ناحية المكانة والمركز ٠

مثلا ٠ ـ

اذا اكان فى رأيك أن مهنة المحاسبة هى أهم مهنة من ناحية المركز والمكانة ، أرجو أن تكتبيها الى
جانب العبارة الاولى فى أهميتها) ثم تنتقلى الى المهنة التى هى برأيك ثانى أهم من ناحيـة
المركز وتكتبيها الى جانب العبارة المخصصة لها وهكــذا ٠

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة	

المهن هى : ـ

	١	١ ــ موظفة من المدرسة الفندقية
	٢	٢ ــ دكتـــــــــــورة
	٣	٣ ــ معلـــــــــــة
	٤	٤ ــ طباخـــــــــة
	٥	٥ ــ محاســـــــبة
	٦	٦ ــ ممرضــــــــة
	٧	٧ ــ سكرتـــــــيرة
	٨	٨ ــ مضيفة طــــــيران

المهن وأهميتها من ناحية المركز ٠ ـ (اكتبى المهن بالتدريج هنا ـ)

الأهم

(٥٢)	الأولى فى الأهمية
(٥٣)	الثانية فى الأهمية
(٥٤)	الثالثة فى الأهمية
(٥٥)	الرابعة فى الأهمية
(٥٦)	الخامسة فى الأهمية
(٥٧)	السادسة فى الأهمية
(٥٨)	السابعة فى الأهمية
(٥٩)	الثامنة فى الأهمية

الاقل أهمية

ضعى اشارة ✓ عند جواب واحــــــد. لكل عبــــارة

دليل البطاقة ٢   ٣

عامود البطاقة	لا أعــرف	غير صحيح	صحيح	٤ ٠ ـ مهنة السكرتــــــــيرة ٠
(٤٢)				ـ تتطلب الحصول علــى نتيجة دراسية جيدة
(٤٣)				ـ تتطلب تدريبـــا صعبا وشاقــا ٠
(٤٤)				ـ لا تلقى نظرة استحسان فــى مجتمعنا ٠
(٤٥)				ـ فى رأى بعض الناس هى خطـــوة للزواج فقط٠
(٤٦)				ـ تهىُ فرص مختلفة للتعرف على الناس وتكوين صداقات جديـــــدة ٠
(٤٧)				ـ تتطلب شخصيـــــة جذابــــة ٠
(٤٨)				ـ تهىُ فرص اعد يـــدة للتقدم للشخص الـــــذى يختارهـــــا ٠
(٤٩)				ـ يقال أنها وسيلـــة للاختلاط بالناس وليس لهدف المهنه ذاتهـــا٠
(٥٠)				ـ تساعد علـــى الاعتماد علــى النفس ٠
(٥١)				١ ـ وظيفة مضمونـــة وفيهـــا استقـــرار

(٤)

ضعي اشارة/ عند جواب واحد لكل عبـــــارة .

عامود البطاقة	لا أعـرف ٣	غير صحيح ٢	صحيح ١	دليـــل البطاقـة = ١
				س٣٠ ـ مهنة مضيفـــة الطـــــيران .
(٣٢)				١ـ تتطلب الحصول علـى نتيجة دراسية جنية .
(٣٣)				٢ـ تتطلب تدريبـا صعبـا وشاقــــا .
(٣٤)				٣ـ لاتلقى نظرة استحسان فـــى مجتمعنـا .
(٣٥)				٤ـ فى رأى بعض الناس هى خطـوة للزواج فقط .
(٣٦)				٥ـ تهيئ فرص مختلفة للتعرف على الناس وتكوين صداقات جديــــــــدة .
(٣٧)				٦ـ تتطلب شخصية جذابـــــــــــة .
(٣٨)				٧ـ تهيئ فرص عديـدة للتقدم للشخص الــــذى يختارهــــــــا .
(٣٩)				٨ـ يقال أنهـا وسيلة للاختلاط بالناس وليس الهدف المهنة ذاتهـــــــا .
(٤٠)				٩ـ تساعد على الاعتماد علـــى النفس .
(٤١)				١٠ـ وظيفة مضمونة وفيها استقـــــــرار .

(٢)

ضعي انشارة ✓ عند جواب واحـــد لكـــل عبارة .

دليــــل
البطاقة ١

عامــود البطاقة	٣ لأعرف	٢ غير صحيح	١ صحيـــح	
				س ٢ : مهنة الممرضة :ـ
(٢٢)				١ ـ تتطلب الحصول على نتيجة دراسية جيرة
(٢٣)				٢ ـ تتطلب تدريبا صعبا وشاقـــــــــا .
(٢٤)				٣ ـ لاتلقى نظارة استحسان في مجتمعــــــنا
(٢٥)				٤ ـ في رأى بعض الناس هى خطوة للزواج فقط
(٢٦)				٥ ـ تهيئ فرص مختلفة للتعرف على الناس وتكوين صداقات جديــــــــدة .
(٢٧)				٦ ـ تتطلب شخصية جذابـــــــة
(٢٨)				٧ ـ تهيئ فرص عديدة للتقدم للشخص الذى يختـــــــــارها .
(٢٩)				٨ ـ يقال أنها وسيلة للاختلاط بالناس وليـــــس لهدف المهنة ذاتها .
(٣٠)				٩ ـ تساعد على الاعتماد على النفـــــــس .
(٣١)				١٠ ـ وظيفة مضمونة وفيها استقــــــرار

ابدئي الاجابة من هنــــــا .

ضعى اشارة / عند جواب واحد لكل عبارة .

دليــــل
البطاقة = ١

عامـــــود البطاقة	لا أعرف ٣	غير صحيح ٢	صحيـــح ١	
(١٢)				مهنة المعلمة : ـ تتطلب الحصول على نتيجة دراسية جيدة .
(١٣)				تتطلب تدريبا صعبا وشاقـــــــا .
(١٤)				لاتلقى نظرة استحســـــان فى مجتمعنا
(١٥)				فى رأى بعض الناس هى خطوة للزواج فقط
(١٦)				تهيئ فرص مختلفة للتعرف على الناس، وتكوين صداقات جديدة .
(١٧)				تتطلب شخصية جذابـــــــة
(١٨)				تهيئ فرص عديدة للتقدم للشخص الذى يختـــــارها .
(١٩)				يقال أنها وسيلة للاختلاط بالناس، وليس لهدف المهنة ذاتهـــــا .
(٢٠)				تساعد على الاعتماد على النفـــس .
(٢١)				وظيفة مضمونة وفيها استقــــرار

دلـــيـــل البطاقـــة

	٩		.		٦

(٣ ــ . ١)

رقــم الاستمــارة

(٧ ــ ٤)

رقـــم المدرســـة

(٩ ــ ٨)

البيانات التى تدون على هذه الاستمارة سرية

ولن تستعمل الا لأغراض البحـــث .

رقـــم الصـــف

(١١ ــ ١٠)

ماذا تظنـــين ؟

فى هذه الاستمارة عدد من العبارات وعدد من المهن نود أن نعلم منك ماذا تظنين هــــت
صحة كل عبارة بالنسبة الى المهنة المذكورة ، أى اذا كنت تظنين أن هذه العبارة صحيحة أو
غير صحيحة بالنسبة لتلك المهنة .

ليس هنا جواب صحيح أو غير صحيح كليا ، لأن كل الاجوبة تعتمد على نظرة الانسان
الشخصية تجاه المهنة ،لذا المهم هنا هو ماذا تظنـــين أنت .

ضعى اشارة ✓ عنـــد جواب واحد

لا أعـــرف	غير صحيح	صحيــــح

مثـــلا :

مهنة ضابطة المرور : ـــ

المعاش جيد بالنسبة لتدريب المطلوب

س ٨ ــ ما هو الراتب الذى يعطى بعد انهاء التدريب أو الدراسة لكل من هـذه‚
المهن ؟ ضعى اشارة/ الى جانب كل‚ مهنة تحت الجواب الذى، هو‚
برأيـك الاقرب للصحيح ٠

عامود البطاقة		لا اعرف	١١٩ دينارا فى الشهر	الراتــب فى الشـــهر			٨٤ دينارا فى الشهر	المهنـــة
				١١٥ دينارا فى الشهر	٩٩ دينارا فى الشهر	٩٥ دينارا فى الشهر		
(٤٢)								١) المعلمة (الدرجة الرابعة
(٤٣)								٢) الممرضة (الفرع العملى)
(٤٤)								٣) مضيفة الطيران
(٤٥)								٤) الممرضة (الفرع العام
(٤٦)								٥) السكرتيرة (الدرجة الخامسة خريجة كلية
(٤×١)								٦) المعلمة (الدرجة الخامسة خريجة معهد المعلمات

هل نسيت أن تكتبى رقم الاستمارة ؟

٦- ما هو الراتب الذى يعطى أثناء الفترة الأولى من التدريب لكل من هذه المهن ..
.... الى جانب كل مهنة تحت الجواب الذي هو برأيك الاقرب للصحيح .

	الراتب ٥٥ دينار في الشهر	٦٥ دينار في الشهر	٩٨ دينار في شهر ونصف	أبلغ	عامود البطاقة
المهنة					
المرضة (الفرع العملي)؟					(٣٥)
وظيفة الط......					(٣٦)
المرضة (الفرع العام)؟					(٣٧)

٧- ما هى تسهلات المواصلات لكل من هذه المهن ؟ ضعى اشارة ✓ الى جانب
مهنة تحت الجواب الذي هو برأيك الأقرب للصحيح .

	المواصلات متوفرة للذين يسكنون ابعد من ميل من منطقة العمل	المواصلات متوفرة للجميع (يقف الباص ويستقل .. مناطق معينة	المواصلات متوفرة من قبل الشركة	لا يوجد اى تسهيلات للمواصلات	لا اعرف	عامود البطاقة
المعلمة						(٣٨)
المرضة						(٣٩)
الممضية الطباخ ارى						(٤٠)
السكرتيرة						(٤١)

عامود البطاقة

س٤ : ــ ياهي مدّة العطل السنوية المعطاة لكل من هذه المهن ؟ ضعي اشارة ✓
عند الجواب الذي هو الرأيك الأقرب للصحيح .

| ٤ | ٣ | ٢ | ١ |

مدة العطالة السنوية

لا أعرف	ثلاثة شهور	شهرا واحدا	٢١ يوما	المهنة
(٢٧)					١ــ المعلمة
(٢٨)					٢ــ الممرضة
(٢٩)					٣ــ مضيفة الطيران
(٣٠)					٤ــ السكرتيرة

س٥ : أين توجد كل من هذه المؤسسات ؟ ضعي اشارة ✓ الى جانب كـــل
مهنة تحت الجواب الذي هو برأيك الاقرب للصحيـــح .

| ٥ | ٤ | ٣ | ٢ | ١ |

المنطقة

لا أعرف	الرفاع	مدينة عيسى	المحرق	المنامة	المؤسسة
(٣١)						كلية الخليج
(٣٢)						معهد المعلمات
(٣٣)						كلية العلوم الصحية (مدرسة التمريض)
(٣٤)						مركز تدريب ــ طيران الخليج

عامود البطاقة

(٢)

س ٢ : بعد الحصول على الشهادة المدرسية المطلوبة لكل من هذه المهن اذكرى
كم سنة من التدريب مطلوب لكل مهنة • ضعي اشارة (✓) الى جانب كل
مهنة تحت الجواب الذى تظنين أنه الاقرب للصحيح •

٥   ٤   ٣   ٢   ١

	لا أعرف	ثـلاث شهور	ثلاث سنوات	سنتين	سنة واحدة	المهنة
(١٨)						ـ الممرضة (الفرع العملـــــى)
(١٩)						ـ مضيفة الطايران
(٢٠)						ـ الممرضة (الفـــرع العـــام)
(٢١)						ـ السكرتيرة (الدرجة الخامسة (خريجة كلية الخليـــج)
(٢٢)						ـ المعلمة (الدرجة الخامسة (خريجة معهد المعلمات)

س ٣ :ب ـ ما هى ساعات العمل المطلوبة لكل مهنة مذكورة ؟ ضعى اشارة (✓) الى جانب
كل مهنة تحت الجواب الذى تظنين أنه هو الاقـــــرب للصحيح •

٤   ٣   ٢   ١

	لا أعرف	٦٤ ساعـــة فى الاسبوع	٣١ ساعـــة فى الاسبوع	٣٦ ساعـــة فى الاسبوع	المهنة
(٢٣)					١ـ المعلمة
(٢٤)					٢ـ الممرضة
(٢٥)					٣ـ مضيفة الطيران

ساعات العمل فى الاسبوع

<div dir="rtl">

دليل البطاقة

٥	٠	٩

(١ ــ ٣)

رقم الاستمارة

(٤ ــ ٧)

رقم المدرسة

(٨ ــ ٩)

رقم الملف

(١ ــ ١١)

هل تعرفيـــــن ؟

البيانات التي تدون على هذه الاستمارة سرية ولن تستعمل الا لأغراض البحث .

في هذه الاستمارة عدد من المهن وعدد من المتطلبات المهنية . نود منك أن تضعي الجواب الذي تظنين أنت أنه الجواب، الأقرب للصحيح .

هنا ليس امتحانا وليس هناك علامة للأجوبة الصحيحة أو الغير صحيحة . كل ما نود أن نعرف من كل فتاة نفسها (وليس من أجوبة الفتاة التي الى جانبها) ماذا تعرف هي عن هذه المهن ومتطلباتها . القصد من هذه الأسئلة معرفة معلومات البنات عن بعض المهن لأجل تزويدهن بالمعلومات اللازمة في المستقبل .

س١ - الى جانب كل مهنة مذكورة هنا ضعي اشارة ✓
تحت الشهادة التي تظنين أنها هي المطلوبة لهذه المهنة

ضعي اشارة عند شهادة واحدة لكل مهنة

عامود البطاقة		الشهادات					المهنة
	أخرى	لا أعرف	كلية الخليج	معهد المعلمات	الثاني التوجيهي	الاعدادي	
(١٢)							١ - الضابطة (الدرجة الرابعة)
(١٣)							٢ - الممرضة (الفرع العملي)
(١٤)							٣ - مضيفة الطيران
(١٥)							٤ - الممرضة (الفرع العام)
(١٦)							٥ - السكرتيرة (الدرجة الخامسة)
(١٧)							٦ - القابلة (الدرجة الخامسة)

</div>

عامود البطاقة	لا أحب أن أشاهدها	لا أمانع أن أشاهدها لم لا مشاهدتها	أحب أن أشاهدها	
(٥٥)	....	....	....	٢٤ الحيوانـــات الاليفـــة
(٥٦)	....	....	....	٢٥ أناس من بلدان أخـــرى
(٥٧)	....	....	....	٢٦ أناس من العصور القديمـة
(٥٨)	....	....	....	٢٧ الزراعة والمزارع وحياة الريف
(٥٩)	....	....	....	٢٨ الكتـــب العظيمـة
(٦٠)	....	....	....	٢٩ الاطفال والرعايـــة
(٦١)	....	....	....	٣٠ الصحة والطب والعلوم الصحية
(٦٢)	....	....	....	٣١ الاخبار والاحداث العالميـة
(٦٣)	....	....	....	٣٢ السياســـة
(٦٤)	....	....	....	٣٣ المسابقات والجوائــز
(٦٥)				البرامج الموسيقيـة الغنائيـة
(٦٦)				
(٦٧)	....	....	....	٣٤ الموسيقى الخليجيـة
(٦٨)	....	....	....	٣٥ ٠ العربيـة
	....	....	....	٣٦ ٠ الغربيـة

س٢٨ : ماهى أنواع البرامج التى تحبين أن تشاهديها على التليفزيون ؟
هذه قائمة لعدة أنواع من البرامج التليفزيونية • انظرى اليها
واختارى الجواب الذى تظنين انه المناسب لكل نوع من البرامج ••

دليل البطاقة رقم ١٠   ٢   ٣

ضعى اشارة (×) عند جواب واحد

عامود البطاقة	لا أحب مشاهدته	لا إمانع إن شاهدته أم لا	أحب أن أشاهده	
				مسرحيات أو قصص ومسلسلات عن :-
(٣٢)				١ • رعاة البقر
(٣٣)				٢ • المغامرات
(٣٤)				٣ • القصص البوليسية
(٣٥)				٤ • الفضاء ورواد الفضاء
(٣٦)				٥ • الحياة المدرسية
(٣٧)				٦ • الحياة العاطفية
(٣٨)				٧ • كوميديا للضحك
(٣٩)				٨ • مسرحيات محزنة
(٤٠)				٩ • مسرحيات دينية
(٤١)				١٠ " تاريخية
(٤٢)				١١ " عن الحرب
(٤٣)				١٢ عن اشخاص عظماء وشخصيات
(٤٤)				١٣ " عن العائلة والبيت ومشاكل المجتمع
(٤٥)				١٤ " عن الحياة البدوية
(٤٦)				١٥ السفر
(٤٧)				١٦ علوم واختراعيات
(٤٨)				١٧ الطيران والطيارات
(٤٩)				١٨ البحر والسفن
(٥٠)				١٩ هواياتك
(٥١)				٢٠ الرسم والنحت
(٥٢)				٢١ البيت والعمل المنزلي والطبخ
(٥٣)				٢٢ الرقص
(٥٤)				

(٨)

دليل البطاقة	عامود البطاقة

س ٢٥ : ما هو البرنامج الذى تحاولين جهدك الا يفوتك على التليفزيون

(٢٨ـ ٢٩)	٠١	المسلسل العربى اليومى _____ ___
	٠٢	الاخبار بالانجليزيـــــة _____
	٠٣	الحلقات الاجنبيــــة _____
	٠٤	الاخبار بالعــــربى _____
	٠٥	البرامج الثقافيــــة _____
	٠٦	الافلام الـعربيـــة _____
	٠٧	الافلام الاجنبيـــة _____
	٠٨	الافلام الهنديــــة _____
	٠٩	البرامج الموسيقيه الخليجية _____
	١٠	البرامج الموسيقة الاجنبية _____
	١١	عاليـــــم الاـــــــرة _____
	١٢	البرامج المحلية البحرينيــة _____
	١٣	_____
	١٤	_____

ضعى اشارة
عند جواب
واحد فقط

دليل البطاقة	عامود البطاقة	دليل	

س ٢٦ : هل تستطيعين عادة أن تشاهدى برنامجا تريدين رؤيتـــه
أم يجب أن يوافق جميع المشاهدين معك عليه اولا ؟

(٣٠)	١	عادة استطيع مشاهدة ما أريـد ما لبـ _____
	٢	كل المشاهدين يجب أن يوافقوا أولا ____
	٣	عادة كلنا نوافق على نفس الافلام ____

ضعى اشارة
عند جواب
واحد فقط

س ٢٧ : من يقرر فى العائلة أكثر الاوقات نوعية البرامج التى تشاهدينهـا
على التليفزيــــون ؟

(٣١)	١	والــدى _____
	٢	والدتـــى _____
	٣	أحد اخواتـى _____
	٤	أحد اخواتـى _____
	٥	أحد الاقــارب _____
	٦	لا أحـــد

ضعى اشارة
عند جواب
واحد فقط

٨٦٨

عامـــود البطاقة	دليـــل البطاقة	

ضع اشارة √ عند جواب واحد فقط

س ٢٢ : وماذا تفعلين بالتليفزيون ؟

(٢١)	١	يبقى مفتوحا
	٢	يخفف الصوت ويغلق
	٣	ننتقل الى قناة آخر
	٤	يخفف الصوت ولكن لايغلق

س ٢٣ : عندما تشاهدين التليفزيون مع من عادة تشاهدين ؟

ضع اشارة √

كل الاجوبة المناسبة

(٢٢)	وحدى
(٢٣)	مع صديقاتى
(٢٤)	مع اخواتى او اخوانى
(٢٥)	مع الاقارب
(٢٦)	مع والدى

س ٢٤ : متى تشاهدين التليفزيون البحرينى في أغلبية الاوقات؟

ضع اشارة √

جواب واحد

فقط

(٢٧)	١	حوالى الساعة السادسة مساء
	٢	— السابعة —
	٣	— الثامنة —
	٤	بين الثامنة والتاسعة —
	٥	بين التاسعة والعاشرة مساء
	٦	بعد العاشرة مساء

(٦)

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة	

الأسئلة التالية عن كل البرامج التلفزيونية

س١٩ ـ هل تعرفين عادة ماهى برامج التلفزيون قبل ان يفتح ؟

(أ)

نعـم ـــــــــ   (١٣)   ١

لا ـــــــــ   ٢

(ب) اذا كان جوابك نعم ، كيف عرفــت ؟

من استعراض برامج الغد ـــــــــ   (١٤)

من استعراض برامج اليوم ـــــــــ   (١٥)

من الجريـــــدة ـــــــــ   (١٦)

من احد افراد العائلـة ـــــــــ   (١٧)

من الصديـــــقات ـــــــــ   (١٨)

ضعى اشارة ✓
لكل الاجوبة
المناسبة

س٢٠ ـ اذا عندكم تليفزيون فى البيت ، هل ، يترك ، مفتوحا معظـم
الوقت ام هل يفتح لبعض البرامج ؟

يترك مفتوحا معظم الوقت ـــــــــ   (١٩)   ١

يفتح لبعض البرامج فقط ـــــــــ   ٢

ضعى اشــارة
جواب واحد فقط

س٢١ بينما تشــاهدين برامج التلفزيــون قد يأتى شى لايعجبك
ماذا تفعلـــين عـــادة ؟

ابقى اشاهد ـــــــــ   (٢٠)   ١

اتوقف عن المشاهدة ـــــــــ   ٢

اتوقف عن المشاهدة

واعمل شئ آخـــر ـــــــــ   ٣

ضعى اشــــارة
جواب واحد فقط

تابع/ ماقبله

دليل البطاقة ٢ ١ ٣

عامود البيانات	دليل البطاقة		دائما	احيانا	قليلا
(٤٥) (٤٦)					
(٤٧)					
(٤٨)					
(٤٩)					
(٥٠)					
(٥١)					

السبت ـ أشاهد البرامج المسائية مساء الأحد ـ
الاثنين ـ
الثلاثاء ـ
الأربعاء ـ
الخميس ـ
الجمعة ـ

١٧ـ الى متى تشاهدون التلفزيون في المساء؟
(الجواب مكتوب بالأرقام)

(٥٢ـ٥٣)	من يوم السبت الى الأربعاء ـ
	أشاهد عادة الى الساعة ـــــــــــ مساء
(٥٤ـ٥٥)	يوم الخميس ·
	أشاهد عادة الى الساعة ـــــ مساء
(٥٦ـ٥٧)	يوم الجمعة ـ
	أشاهد عادة الى الساعة ـــــــ مساء

١٨ـ ما هي البرامج ـ الثلاثة المسائية التي تعجبك أكثر شيء؟

(٥٨)	المسلسل العربي
(٥٩)	الأخبار بالانجليزي
(٦٠)	الحلقات الأجنبية
(٦١)	الأخبار بالعربي
(٦٢)	البرامج الثقافية
(٦٣)	الأفلام العربية
(٦٤)	الأفلام الأجنبية
(٦٥)	الأفلام الهندية
(٦٦)	البرامج الموسيقية الخليجية
(٦٧)	البرامج الموسيقية الأجنبية
(٦٨)	عالم الأسرة
(٦٩)	البرامج المحلية البحرينية
(٧٠)	
(٧١)	

دليل البطاقة	عامود البطاقة

السب _____
٦

اقوم باعمال منزلية _____
٧

اقوم باعمال اخرى _____
٨

١ ــ هل تشاهدين أحيانا برامج الاطفال؟

| | (٣٣) |
نعم _____
١

لا _____
٢

كان الجواب لا انتقلي الى السؤال رقم ٥١٥

الآن بعض الاسئلة عن برامج الاطفال

١ ــ في أي الايام تشاهدين برامج الاطفال؟
ضعي اشارة / عند جواب واحد لكل يوم .

دليل البطاقة = ١		
٣	٢	١
ابدا	احيانا	دائما

شاهد برامج الاطفال يوم السبت :

(٣٤)			» » » الاحد
(٣٥)			» » » الاثنين
(٣٦)			» » » الثلاثاء
(٣٧)			» » » الاربعاء
(٣٨)			» » » الخميس
(٣٩)			» » » الجمعة
(٤٠)			

٢ ــ عندما تشاهدين برامج الاطفال ، هل تشاهدينها كلها او بعضها؟

| (٤١) | ١ |
عادة اشاهدها كلها _____

| | ٢ |
عادة اشاهدها بعضها _____

٣ ــ ما هو برنامج الاطفال الذى يعجبك أكثر شيء؟

| (٤٢ــ٤٣) | ١٠ |
الصور المتحركة (افلام الكارتون) _____

| | ٢٠ |
جنة الاطفال _____

| | ٣٠ |
ماما انيسة والاطفال _____

| | ٤٠ |
اطفالنا _____

| | ٥٠ |
اربوز (مسلسل عربي للاطفال) _____

| | ٦٠ |
فلم اجنبي للاطفال _____

| | ٧٠ |
فلم ثقافي للاطفال _____

| | ٨٠ |
_____

| | ٩٠ |
_____

١ ــ هل تشاهدين أحيانا البرامج المسائية أى بعد الساعة السابعة؟

| (٤٤) | ١ |
نعم _____

| | ٢ |
لا _____

كان جوابك لا انتقلي الى السؤال رقم ١٩

الآن بعض الاسئلة عن البرامج المسائية

١ ــ في أي الايام تشاهدين البرامج المسائية (أي بعد الساعة السابعة مساءً) ؟
ضعي اشارة عند جواب واحد لكل يوم .

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة

	٦	السب ــــــــ ــــــــ
	٧	أقوم بأعمال منزلية ــــــــ
	٨	أقوم بأعمال أخرى ــــــــ

١ ــ هل تشاهدين أحيانا برامج الأطفال؟

| (٣٣) | ١ | نعم ــــــــ |
| | ٢ | لا ــــــــ |

كان الجواب لا انتقلي الى السؤال رقم ٥١٥

| الآن بعض الأسئلة عن برامج الأطفال |

٢ ــ في أي الأيام تشاهدين برامج الأطفال؟
ضعي اشارة √ عند جواب واحد لكل يوم .

دليل البطاقة = ١

	ابدا ٣	احيانا ٢	دائما ١	
(٣٤)			ــــــــ	برامج الأطفال يوم السبت :
(٣٥)			ــــــــ	الاحد
(٣٦)	ــ		ــــــــ	الاثنين
(٣٧)			ــــــــ	الثلاثاء
(٣٨)			ــــــــ	الاربعاء
(٣٩)			ــــــــ	الخميس
(٤٠)			ــــــــ	الجمعة

٣ ــ عندما تشاهدين برامج الأطفال ،هل تشاهدينها كلها أو بعضها؟

| (٤١) | ١ | عادة أشاهدها كلها ــــــــ |
| | ٢ | عادة أشاهدها بعضها ــــــــ |

٤ ــ ما هو برنامج الأطفال الذي يعجبك أكثر شيء؟

(٤٢ـ٤٣)	٠١	الصور المتحركة(أفلام الكارتون) ــــــــ
	٠٢	جنة الأطفال ــــــــ
	٠٣	ماما أنيسة والأطفال ــــــــ
	٠٤	أطفالنا ــــــــ
	٠٥	أربوز (مسلسل عربي للأطفال) ــــــــ
	٠٦	فلم أجنبي للأطفال ــــــــ
	٠٧	فلم ثقافي للأطفال ــــــــ
	٠٨	ــــــــ
	٠٩	ــــــــ

اشارة √ عند واحد فقط

٥ ــ هل تشاهدين أحيانا البرامج المسائية أى بعد الساعة السابعة؟

| (٤٤) | ١ | نعم ــــــــ |
| | ٢ | لا ــــــــ |

كان جوابك لا انتقلي الى السؤال رقم ١٩

| الآن بعض الأسئلة عن البرامج المسائية |

١ ــ في أي الأيام تشاهدين البرامج المسائية (أى بعد الساعة السابعة مساء) ؟
ضعي اشارة √ عند جواب واحد لكل يوم .

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة

المراتي ليس عندهن تلفزيون في البيت

س٦ـ في بيت من تشاهدين التلفزيون عادة ؟

عند الجيران _____ ۱

(۲٥)

سجي اشارة كعند عند أقارب _____ _____ ۲

جواب واحد نقط عند صديقاتي _____ _____ ۳

عند الجميع _____ _____ ٤

س۷ـ هل ينذر والديك في جلب تلفزيون الى البيت ؟

(أ) نعم _____ _____ ۱

(۲٦)

لا _____ _____ ۲

(ب) اذا كان جوابك نعم ـ متى تظنين انهم سيجلبان التلفزيون ؟

لا أعرف _____ ۱

(۲۷)

سجي اشارة كعند في الشهرين القادمين _____ ۲

جواب واحد نقط قبل عطلة الصيف _____ _____ ۳

السنة القادمة _____ _____ ٤

س۸ـ اذا أردت أن تشاهدي برنامجا على التلفزيون
هل تستطيعين أن تذهبي الى بيت صديقتك لرؤيته ؟

عادة استطيع _____ _____ ۱

(۲۸)

سجي اشارة كعند عادة لايسمح لي بالذهاب _____ ۲

جواب واحد فقط أحيانا يسمح لي وأحيانا لا _____ _____ ۳

س۹ـ اذا ذهبت الى بيت صديقتك لمشاهدة التلفزيون هل يطلب
منك والديك أن تعودي في وقت معين في المساء أم يسمحوا لك
أن تبقي قدر ما تريدين ؟

(أ) استطيع أن أبقى قدر ما أريد _____ _____ ۱

(۲٦)

علي أن أعود في وقت معين _____ _____ ۲

(ب) اذا كان عليك أن تعودي الى البيت في وقت معين في المساء
متى يكون ذلك ؟ (ساعات فقط) .

عادة علي أن أعود الساعة _____

(۳۰ـ۳۱)

المطلوب الآن من عنده تلفزيون ومن ليس عنده تلفزيون الرد على جميع
الاسئلة الباقية .

س١٠ـ عند مشاهدة التلفزيون هناك بعض الناس يقومن بأشغال أخرى في
نفس الوقت . ما نوع العمل الذي تقومين به في أغلب الأوقات وأنت تشاهدين
التلفزيون ؟

فقط أشاهد _____ _____ ۱

(۳۲)

أعمل واجباتي _____ _____ ۲

سجي اشارة كعند أقرأ _____ ۳

جواب واحد فقط _____ _____ ٤

دليل البطاقة	عامود البطاقة			ضعى اشارة✓ عند كل الأجوبة المناسبة
(١٨)				أرامكـــــو ....
(١٩)				الكويـــــت ....
(٢٠)				قطــــــر ....
(٢١)				أبو ظـــبى ....
(٢٢)				دبــــــى ....
(٢٣)				عــــان ....

س٥ ــ برامج أى قناة تعجبك أكثر شىء ؟

دليل البطاقة	عامود البطاقة			
(٢٤)	١	؛	ضعى اشارة✓ البحريـــن	
	٢	✓	المملكة العربية السـعودية	
	٣		عند جواب أرامكـــو	
	٤		واحد فقط الكويـــت	
	٥		قطـــــر	
	٦		أبو ظـــبى	
	٧		دبــــــى	
	٨		عــــان	

على اللواتى عندهن تلفزيون فى البيت أن ينتقلن الآن الى السؤال رقم ١٠ ويجاوبن على كل الاســئلـــــة الباقيــــة .

٩	٤

(١ ــ ٣)

رقم الاستمارة

(٤ ــ ٧)

رقم المدرسة

(٨ ــ ٩)

رقم الصف

(١٠ ــ ١١)

التلفــــزيون ١

البيانات التي تدون في هذه الاستمارة سرية ولن تستعمل الا لاغراض البحث

البطاقة رقم ١   العامود ١٢ ١ــ١

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة	
(١٣)	١ ٢	س ١ . هل تشاهدين التليفزيون أكثر من مرة في الاسبوع ؟ نعم ــــــ لا ــــــ اذا كان جوابك لا ، ارجو ان ترضى يدان لتسلمى السلمة بذلك .
(١٤)	١ ٢	س ٢ . هل عندكم تليفزيون في البيت ؟ نعم ــــــ لا ــــــ
(١٥)	١ ٢ ٣ ٤ ٥ ٦ ٧	س ٣ . اذا كان عندكم تليفزيون في البيت ، منذ متى عندكم التليفزيون ؟ منذ أكثر من خمس سنوات ــــــ منذ خمس سنوات ــــــ منذ أربع سنوات ــــــ منذ ثلاث سنوات ــــــ منذ سنتين ــــــ منذ سنة ــــــ منذ أقل من سنة ــــــ
(١٦)		س ٤ . اذا عندكم تلفزيون في البيت كم قناة تستطيعون أن تشاهدوا على تلفزيونكم ؟

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة
(٣٢)	
(٣٣)	
(٣٤)	
(٣٥)	
(٣٦)	
(٣٧)	
(٣٨)	
(٣٩)	
(٤٠)	

دليل البطاقة٣   دليل البطاقة٢   دليل البطاقة١

لا أحبها	لا أمانعها	أحبها	
			ديـــن
			لغة عربيـــة
			لغة انجليزية
			رياضيات
			علـــوم
			اجتماعيـات
			اقتصاد منزلى
			تربية رياضيـة
			تربية فنيــة

س١٧ : ما هى المادة المدرسية التى تحبينها أكـثر شىء؟

١		ديـــن
٢		لغة عربيـــة
٣		لغة انجليزية
٤		رياضيـات
٥		علـــوم
٦		اجتماعيــات
٧		اقتصاد منزلى
٨		تربية رياضيــة
٩		تربية فنيــة

ضعى اشارة ✓ عند
جزاب واحد فقــط

(٤١)

س١٨ : أى من هذه المجـلات تقرئين عـادة ؟

(٤٢)	حـــواء
(٤٣)	الهـلال
(٤٤)	العربى
(٤٥)	الموعـد

ضعى اشارة ✓ عند
كل الاجوبة المناسبة

المطلوب من الاسئلة التالية أن تختاري من بين الجوابين الجواب الواحد المناسب لك أكثر شيء

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة	
		س٩ : عندما تريدين أن تختاري عملاً ، أى من هذين العملين تفضلين ؟
(٢٥)	١	عمل تقضين به معظم الوقت في استعمال العقل والتفكير ——
	٢	عمل تقضين به معظم الوقت في الأعمال اليدوية ——
		س١٠ : وأى من هذين العملين تفضلين ؟
(٢٦)	١	عمل فيه مغامرة وربما مستقبل ولكن لا استقرار ——
	٢	عمل ليس فيه مغامرة ولكن استقرار ——
		س١١ : وأى من هذين العملين تفضلين ؟
(٢٧)	١	عمل لاتحتاجين فيه أن تهتمي بطريقة لبسك ——
	٢	عمل من الضروري فيه أن تكوني أنيقة باللبس ——
		س١٢ : وأى من هذين العملين تفضلين ؟
(٢٨)	١	عمل يحتم عليك دائما أن تقومي بكل التفكير له بنفسك ——
	٢	عمل عندما تتعلمينه ستعرفين كيف تقومين به دائما ——
		س١٣ : رأى من هذين تفضلين فعله بعد ترك المدرسة ؟
(٢٩)	١	الذهاب الى جامعة أوكلية ——
	٢	الحصول على عمل حالا ——
		س١٤ : هل تحبين المدرسة ؟
		ضعى اشارة ✓ عند
		جواب واحد فقط
(٣٠)	١	أحب المدرسة قليلا ——
	٢	أحب المدرسة كثيرا ——
	٣	لا أحب المدرسة ——
	٤	لا بد منها ——
		س١٥ : هل تشعرين أن علاقاتك جيدة مع معلماتك ؟
		ضعى اشارة ✓ عند
		جواب واحد فقط
(٣١)	١	أقل من بقية الطالبات ——
	٢	مثل بقية الطالبات ——
	٣	أفضل من بقية الطالبات ——

س١٦ : هذه قائمة بالمواد المدرسية ، قد تحبين بعضها وتكرهين البعض الآخر . ضعى اشارة ✓ عند الجواب الذى يناسبك لكل مادة .

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة

س ٦ ٠ ــ الانسان لايستطيع دائما أن يعمل
ما يتمنى أن يعمل ٠ ماهى المهنة التى
تتمنين أن تقومي بها ٠

(٢١ـ٢٢)	٠١	لاأتمنى شيئـــــا
	٠٢	مدرب
فى اشارة ✓	٠٣	خيـــاط
عند جواب	٠٤	سكـــرتيرة
واحد فقط	٠٥	ممرضـــة
	٠٦	محاسبــــة
	٠٧	دكتـــورة
	٠٨	مضيفة طـــيران
	٠٩	موظافة فى شركـــة
	١٠	العمل الحـــر
	١١	محاميـــة
	١٢	صحفيـــة
	١٣	مذيعة فى الراديو / التليفزيون
	١٤	مهندســـة
	١٥	ضابطة مـــرور
	١٦	فى الشرطـــة
	١٧	موظافة فى الحكومـــة
	١٨	لا أعـــرف

س ٧ ٠ ــ اذا تزوجت وأنت عاملة،هل تنوين
أن تعملى بعد الزواج ؟

فى اشارة ✓	١	أنــوى أن أعمـــل
عند جواب	٢	سأترك العمـــل
واحد فقط	٣	لا أعـــرف

س ٨ ٠ ــ اذا اكان لك الخيار وطلب منك أن
تتزوجين فى سن مبكرة ، هل تتركين
المدرسة أو تكملين دراستك؟
اذا طلب مني الزواج فى سن مبكرة ،

(٢٤)	١	أترك المدرسة بـــ بعد الابتدائيـــة
	٢	بعد الاعداديـــة
	٣	بعد التوجيهـــى
فى اشارة ✓	٤	بعد الجامعـــة
عند جواب واحد	٥	

س ٤٠ - تتمة:

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة	
	١٠	سأعمل مع عائلتي
	١١	سأتقدم للتدريب كمضيفة طيران
	١٢	سأنتظر الى أن أتزوج
	١٣	لا أعرف بعد

س ٥٠ -

اذا كنت تنوين العمل ، فما هو العمل الذي تنوين أنك ستقومين به؟

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة	
	٠١	لا أنوي العمل
(١٩-٢٠)	٠٢	مدرسة
	٠٣	خياطة
	٠٤	سكرتيرة
	٠٥	ممرضة
	٠٦	محاسبة
	٠٧	دكتورة
	٠٨	مضيفة طيران
	٠٩	موظفة في الشركة
	١٠	العمل الحر
	١١	محامية
	١٢	صحفية
	١٣	مذيعة في الراديو / التليفزيون
	١٤	ضابطة مرور

اشارة √ دكتورة
عند
جواب
واحد فقط

س ٦٠ :-

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة	
	١٥	تجارية
	١٦	في الشرطة
	١٧	موظفة في الحكومة
	١٨	لا أعرف

اذا كنت فى الصف التوجيهى انتقلى الى السؤال رقــــم ٤٠

س٣٠ ـ هل تنوين ترك المدرسة بعد الاعدادية ؟

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة
١٤	١
	٢
(١٥ ـ ١٦)	١٠
	٢٠
	٣٠
	٤٠
	٥٠
	٦٠
	٧٠
	٨٠
	٩٠
	١٠
	١١
(١٧ـ١٨)	١٠
	٢٠
	٣٠
	٤٠
	٥٠
	٦٠
	٧٠
	٨٠
	٩٠

(١)　　　　 نعـــم ــــــــــــــــــــــــــــ

　　　　　　　 لا ــــــــــــــــــــــــــــ

اذا اكان جوابك لا   فانتقلى الى السؤال رقـــم ٤٠

(ب) اذا اكان جوابك نحـــم ، لماذا تنوين ترك المدرسة
بعد الاعدادية ؟

ضعى اشارة✓　 لاننى لا أهوى الدراسة ــــــــــــــــــــــ

　　　　　 لست مسرورة فى المدرسة ــــــــــــــــــ

　　　　　 علىّ أن أساعد عائلتى ماديا ــــــــــــ

　　　　　 سوف أتــــزوج ــــــــــــــــــــــ

(ب) تتمة ٠٠

ضعى اشارة✓　 والدى، لايريد نى أن أدرس اكثر ـــــــــــــــ

عند جواب واحد　والدتى تريدنى أن أساعد هانى
　　　　　 البيت ــــــــــــــــــ

نشـــط٠　　 وجـــدت عمـــــلا ــــــــــــــــ

　　　　　 أريد أن أتدرب لأصبح ممرضة ـــــــــــــ

　　　　　 أريد أن أتدرب للمدرسة الفندقة ـــــــــــ

　　　　　 أريد أن أتدرب فى فن الخياطة ــــــــــــ
　　　　　 والتفصيل ٠

　　　　　 أريد أن أتدرب لعمـــل آخر ـــــــــــــ

من هنا الأسئلة لجميع البنات :ـ

س ٤٠ ـ بعد التخرج من التوجيهي ماذا تنوين أن تعملي؟

　　　　　 لاأعرف ان كنت سأصل للصف التوجيهي ـــــــــــ

　　　　　 سأنتظر لأرى ان كنت سأنجح أولا ــــــــــــ

　　　　　 اذا اكان مجموعي جيبا، سألتحق بالجامعة ـــــ

　　　　　 سأقدم لـــدار المعلمـــات ـــــــــــــ

ضعى　　　 سأقدم لكلية العلـــوم الصحيـــة ــــــــ

اشارة✓　 سأقدم لمدريب نـــوة للتعربـــيون ـــــــ

عند　　 سأقدم للتدريب نـــين نروكـــبة ـــــــــ

جواب　 سأقدم للتدريب كسكرتـــيرة ـــــــــــ

دليل البطاقة

٩	٠	٣

(٣ ــ ١)

رقم الاستمارة

(٧ ــ ٤)

رقم المدرسة

(٩ ــ ٨)

رقم الصف

(١١ ــ ١٠)

المدرسة والعمل

البيانات التي تدون في هذه الاستمارة سرية ولن
تستعمل الا لاغراض البحث .

س ١ ٠ ــ لوكان لك الخيار ، متى تتركين المدرسة ؟

دليل البطاقة	عامود البطاقة
١٢	١
	٢
	٣
	٤
	٥

بعد الشهادة الابتدائية ــــــــــــــــ

بعد الاعداديـــــــــة ــــــــــــــــــــ

بعد التوجيهـــــــــي ــــــــــــــــــــ

بعد الجامعـــــــــة ــــــــــــــــــــ

لا اعــــــرف ــــــــــــــــــــــــ

حسب اشارة ✓
عند جواب
واحد فقط

س ٢ ٠ ــ متى يودّ والديك أن تتركي المدرسة ؟

دليل البطاقة	عامود البطاقة
١٣	١
	٢
	٣
	٤
	٥

بعد الشهادة الابتدائية ــــــــــــــــ

بعد الاعداديـــــــــة ــــــــــــــــــــ

بعد التوجيهـــــــــي ــــــــــــــــــــ

بعد الجامعـــــــــة ــــــــــــــــــــ

لا أـ

حسب اشارة ✓
عند جواب واحد
فقط.

(٧)

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة

سئلة التالية تابعة للباحثة فقط.

ضعي اشارة ✓ عند رقم واحد

نقـــــــط

(٤٨)	١	١٨ :
	٢	
	٣	
	٤	
	٥	

(٤٩)	١	١٩ :
	٢	
	٣	

(٦)

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة
(٤٠)	١
	٢
(٤١)	١
	٢
(٤٢)	١
	٢
(٤٣ـ٤٤)	
(٤٥ـ٤٧)	

س ١٤ : هل عندك اصدقاء في مهنة الطب أو التمريض؟

نعم ــــــــــــــــــــــ

لا ــــــــــــــــــــــ

س ١٥ : هل عندك، أصدقاء في مهنة التعليم ؟

نعم ــــــــــــــــــــــ

لا ــــــــــــــــــــــ

س ١٦ : هل يعمل والدك، ؟

نعم ــــــــــــــــــــــ

لا ــــــــــــــــــــــ

اذا كان جوابك نعم ،فما هو العمل الذى يقوم به ؟

ــــــــــــــــــــــــــــ

ــــــــــــــــــــــــــــ

س ١٧ : في أى منطقة تسكين ؟

ــــــــــــــــــــــــــــ

ــــــــــــــــــــــــــــ

(٥)

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة	

١سؤ ١٠ : هل تشاهدين التليفزيون كثيرا ؟

(في بيتك، او في بيت شخص آخر)

في اشارة ✓

في جواب واحد

		كل يوم
(٣٠)	١	
	٢	مرتين في الاسبوع
	٣	مرة في الاسبوع
	٤	مرة كل اسبوعين
	٥	أقل من مرة كل اسبوعين
	٦	لا اشاهد التليفزيون ابدا

سؤ ١١ : اذا عندكم تليفزيون ، كم قناة تستطيعون أن
تشاهدوا على تليفزيونكم ؟

في اشارة ✓

كل الأجوبة

		البحرين
(٣١)		
(٣٢)		المملكة العربية السعودية
(٣٣)		أرامكو
(٣٤)		الكويت
(٣٥)		قطـــر
(٣٦)		أبوظبى
(٣٧)		دبـى

سؤ ١٢ : هل عندك أقارب في مهنة الطب أو التمريض؟

		نعم
(٣٨)	١	
	٢	لا

سؤ ١٣ : هل عندك، أقارب في مهنة التعليم ؟

		نعم
(٣٩)	١	

عامود البطاقـة	دليل البطاقة

١

س٨ : ما هي جنسيتــك؟

(٢٧)	١	في اشارة كا يحرينية
	٢	جواب جنسيات عربية اخرى
	٣	فقط جنسيات أخـــــرى

س٩) هل عندكم تليفزيون في البيت؟

| (٢٨) | ١ | (أ)   نعم |
| | ٢ | لا |

ب) اذا كان جوابه، نعم، منذ متى عندكم

تليفزيون في البيت؟

(٢٩)	١	منذ حوالي : أكثر من خمس سنوات
	٢	خمس ســنــوات
	٣	أربع سنوات
	٤	في اشارة كا ثلاث سنوات
	٥	جواب واحد سنتــــين
	٦	فقط سنة واحدة
	٧	أقل من سنة

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عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة	ضعي اشارة /x حملا
(٢٢)	١	ر،٧ : هل تذهب والدتاء الى العمل؟
	٢	(١) نعم
		لا
		اذا كانت والدتاء لاتذهب الى العمل، انتقلي الى السؤال
		رقم ٨)
(٢٣-٢٤)	١٠	(ب) اذا كانت والدتاء تذهب الى العمل ، فما هو
	٢٠	العمل الذى تقوم به ؟
	٣٠	التدريس،
	٤٠	الخياطة
	٥٠	السكرتارية
	٦٠	الهندسة
	٧٠	التمريض،
	٨٠	المحاسبة
	٩٠	الطب
	١٠	العمل في شركات او المصانع (عاملة)
		التمثيل الحر
		وظيفة حكومية أخرى
(٢٥-٢٦)		(ج) اذا كانت تقوم بوظيفة حكومية ، فما هى الدرجة ؟
		اكتبي الرقم عنها

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة	ضعي اشارة√ هنا
		٢ : هل الوالد موجود معكم في البيت؟
(١٤)	١	نعم ————————————
	٢	لا ————————————
		٣ : هل الوالدة موجودة معكم في البيت؟
(١٥)	١	نعم ————————————
	٢	لا ————————————
		٤ : كم أخ وأخت عندك؟
		اكتبي العدد هنا بالارقام
(١٦_١٧)		عندي ——————— اخوان
(١٨_١٩)		عندى ——————— أخوات
		٥ : هل عندك اخوان أكبر منك؟
(٢٠)	١	نعم ————————————
	٢	لا ————————————
		٦ : هل عندك أخوات أكبر منك؟
(٢١)	١	نعم ————————————
	٢	لا ————————————

دليل البطاقة

٢	٠	٩

(١ ـ ٣)

رقـــم الاستمارة

		!	!

(٤ ـ ٧)

رقـــم المدرسة

	!	

(٨ ـ ٩)

رقـــم الصنـــف

	!	

(١٠ ـ ١١)

معلـــومات عامـــة :

البيانات التى تدون فى هذة الاستمارة سرية ولن تستخدم الا لأغراض البحث .

عامود البطاقة	دليل البطاقة
(١٢ ـ ١٣)	١ .
	٢ .
	٣ .
	٤ .
	٥ .
	٦ .
	٧ .
	٨ .
	٩ .
	١٠

س ١ : كم عمرك ؟

عمرى حوالى : اقل من ١٣ سنة _____

١٣ سنــــة _____

١٤ سنــــة _____

١٥ سنــــة _____

١٦ سنــــة _____

١٧ سنــــة _____

١٨ سنــــة _____

١٩ سنــــة _____

٢٠ سنــــة _____

اكثر من ٢٠ سنة _____

ضع اشارة ✓

... بجواب واحد

فقط

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دليل البطاقة	عامود البطاقة		
(١٢)	١		س١٨ : هل شاهدت بعض حلقات برنامج التليفزيون « التلوث الرئيسة »
	٢		التي هي بعض قصص ممرضات بحرينيات ؟

نعم ———— ———— ضعى اشارة ✓ عند

لا ———— ———— جواب واحد فقط

دليل البطاقة	عامود البطاقة		
(١٣)	١		س١٩ : اذا كنت قد شاهدت بعض حلقات البرنامج ، فكم من هـــــــذه
			الحلقات شاهدت ؟

ولا حلقة ———— ————

حلقة واحدة ———— ————

حلقتين ———— ———— ضعى اشارة ✓ عند

ثلاث حلقات ———— ———— جواب واحد فقط

أربع حلقات (أي كلها) ———— ————

١	
٢	
٣	
٤	
٥	

— ٧ —

١٦: ماذا تتمنين الآن ؟

ضعي إشارة ٧ عند نعم أو لا أو لا أعرف لكل عبارة

مهنة الممرضة :ـ

١ـ هل تحتاج الى مؤهل دراسي جيد ؟

٢ـ هل تتطلب تدريبا صعبا وشاقسا ؟

٣ـ هل تلقى نظرة استحسان في مجتمعنا ؟

٤ـ هل هي خطوة للزواج فقط كما يقولون ؟

٥ـ هل يمكن تكوين صداقات خلال هذه المهنة ؟

٦ـ هل تحتاج الى شخصية جذابة ؟

٧ـ هل فرص التقدم فيها عديدة ؟

٨ـ هل يلتحق بهذه المهنة من أجل هدفها النبيل ؟

٩ـ هل تساعد على الاعتماد على النفس ؟

١٠ـ هل هي مهنة مضمونة وفيها استقرار ؟

١٧: مهنة المعلمة :ـ

١ـ هل تحتاج الى مؤهل دراسي جيد ؟

٢ـ هل تتطلب تدريبا صعبا وشاقسا ؟

٣ـ هل تلقى نظرة استحسان في مجتمعنا ؟

٤ـ هل هي خطوة للزواج فقط كما يقولون ؟

٥ـ هل يمكن تكوين صداقات خلال هذه المهنة ؟

٦ـ هل تحتاج الى شخصية جذابة ؟

٧ـ هل فرص التقدم فيها عديدة ؟

٨ـ هل يلتحق بهذه المهنة لأجل هدفها النبيل ؟

٩ـ هل تساعد على الاعتماد على النفس ؟

١٠ـ هل هي مهنة مضمونة وفيها استقرار ؟

عامود البطاقة	لا اعرف	لا	نعم
(٦١)			
(٦٢)			
(٦٣)			
(٦٤)			
(٦٥)			
(٦٦)			
(٦٧)			
(٦٨)			
(٦٩)			
(٧٠)			
(٧١)			
(٧٢)			
(٧٣)			
(٧٤)			
(٧٥)			
(٧٦)			
(٧٧)			
(٧٨)			
(٧٩)			
(٨٠)			

دليـل البطـاقة

عامود البطاقة	أعارض كليـا	لا أوافق	لست متأكدة	أوافق	أوافق كليـا	ضع إشارة √ عند جواب واحد لكل عبارة
						١٥ : مهنـة المعلمـة
(٤٩)						ـ هذه هى المهنة المثالية لمدى الحياة
(٥٠)						ـ يعجبنى فى هذه المهنة ضرورة اتســاع والمحافظة على النظـام
(٥١)						ـ قد اتراجع عن الالتحاق بهذه المهنة لأنها تتطلب عمل مسئولية كبيرة
(٥٢)						ـ من الاشياء التى تضايق فى هذه المهنـة وجوب تنفيذ أوامر الرؤساء
(٥٣)						ـ يعجبنى اللباس الرسمى المخصص لهذه المهنـة
(٥٤)						ـ الناس يلجئون الى هذه المهنة عندمـا يعجزون عن الحصول على مهنة أخرى
(٥٥)						ـ من حسنات هذه المهنة عدم وجوب اتخاذ قرارات شخصية
(٥٦)						ـ بعض متطلبات العمل فى هذه المهنة لا تعجبنى
(٥٧)						ـ لا أظن انى ساحب هذه المهنة لانهـا تتطلب العمل فى أوقات غير اعتيادية
(٥٨)						ـ ان فوائد هذه المهنة عديدة
(٥٩)						ـ هذه المهنة مملة " وروتينية "
(٦٠)						ـ لم اختار هذه المهنة وهناك مهن انسب وأسهل ؟

برأيك الآن؟

ضع إشارة × عند جواب واحد لكل عبارة

دليل البطاقة:

١٤ : مهنة الممرضة :—

عامود البطاقة	أعارض كليا ٥	لا أوافق ٤	لست متأكدة ٣	أوافق ٢	أوافق كليا ١	
(٣٧)						هذه هي المهنة المثالية لمدى الحياة
(٣٨)						يعجبني في هذه المهنة ضرورة اتباع والمحافظة على النظام
(٣٩)						قد أتراجع عن الالتحاق بهذه المهنة لأنها تتطلب حمل مسؤولية كبيرة
(٤٠)						من الأشياء التى تضايق فى هذه المهنة وجوب تنفيذ أوامر الرؤساء
(٤١)						يعجبني اللباس الرسمى المخصص لهذه المهنة
(٤٢)						الناس يلجئون الى هذه المهنة عندما يعجزون عن الحصول على مهنة
(٤٣)						من صفات هذه المهنة عدم وجوب اتخاذ قرارات شخصية
(٤٤)						متطلبات العمل فى هذه المهنة لاتعجبنى
(٤٥)						أشعر أنى ساحب هذه المهنة لأنها تتطلب العمل فى أوقات غير اعتيادية
(٤٦)						إن فوائد هذه المهنة عديدة
(٤٧)						هذه المهنة مملة و "روتينية"
(٤٨)						لماذا اختار هذه المهنة وهناك مهن أنسب وأسهل؟

١٠ : ما هى عدد سنوات التدريب المطلوبة لهذه المهن ؟ ضعى اشارة√ عند جواب واحد لكل مهنة .

المهنة	مـــدّة التدريـــب						١
	سنة واحدة	سنتان	ثلاث سنوات	ثلاثة شهور	لا أعرف		
مرضة (الفرع العملى)				-			(٢٧)
معلمة خريجة معهد المعلمات				-			(٢٨)
مرضة (الفرع العام)							(٢٩)

١١ : ما هى مدّة العطلة السنوية المعطاه لكل من هذه المهن ؟ ضعى اشارة√ عند جواب واحد لكل مهنة .

المهنة	مـــدّة العطــلة السنويـة			
	١٢ يوما	شهر واحد	ثلاثة شهور	لا أعرف
المعلمة					(٣٠)
المرضة					(٣١)

١٢ : ما هو الراتب الذى يعطى أثناء الفترة الاولى من التدريب لكل من هذه المهن ؟ ضعى اشارة√ عند جواب واحد لكل مهنة .

المهنة	الراتب أثناء الدراسة أو التدريب			
	٥٠ دينارا فى الشهر	٥٦ دينارا فى الشهر	لا شىء	لا أعرف
مرضة (الفرع العملى)					(٣٢)
المعلمة					(٣٣)
مرضة (الفرع العام)				-	(٣٤)

١٣ : ما هى تسهيلات المواصلات لكل من هذه المهن ؟ ضعى اشارة√ عند جواب واحد لكل مهنة .

المهنة	المواصــــلات		
	متوفرة لجميع الذين يسكنون أبعد من ميل من مكان العمل	متوفرة للجميع (يقف الباص فى مناطق معينة	لا أعرف
				(٣٥)
المعلمة				(٣٦)

دليل البطاقة	عامود البطاقة	

٥ : يقول بعض الناس أنه من المهم جدا في هذه الايام أن يحاول الــزوج والزوجة تحديد عدد أطفالهما ليتمكنا من توجيه اهتمام اكبر للأطفال المنجبين ....

أما البعض الآخر فيقول أنه من الخطأ تحديد عدد الأطفال .

مع أى من هذين الرأيين توافقين ؟

(١٩)	١	ضعى اشارة √ عند	أوافق مع تحديد النسل
	٢	جواب واحد فقط.	لا أوافق مع تحديد النسل

٦ : اذا قابلت اشخاصا في بلاد بعيدة ومجتمع مختلف ، فهل ممكن أن تتفهمى طريقة تفكيرهم ؟

(٢٠)	١		نعم
	٢		لا

٧ : أى من هذه الاخبار تحبين أكثر شئ ؟

(٢١)	١		الاخبار المالية
	٢		اخبار الدولة المحلية
	٣		اخبار الأزيـــــاء
	٤		اخبار الاحتفالات المحلية بالمناسبات والاعياد

هل تعرفين الآن

٨ : ما هى الشهادة المطلوبة لكل من هذه المهن؟ ضعى اشارة √ عند جواب واحد لكل مهنة

		الشــــهادة المطلوبة				
	لا اعرف	كلية الخليج	معهد المعلمات	التوجيهى	الثانى الاعدادى	المهنــــة
(٢٢)						ممرضة (الفرع العملى)
(٢٣)						معلمة (الدرجة الخامسة)
(٢٤)						ممرضة (الفرع العام)

٩ : ما هى ساعات العمل فى الاسبوع المطلوبة لكل مهنة ؟ ضعى اشارة √ عند جواب واحد لكل مهنة .

	لا اعرف	٦٤ ساعة فى الاسبوع	٣١ ساعة فى الاسبوع	٣٦ ساعة فى الاسبوع	المهنة
(٢٥)					معلمة
(٢٦)					

دليل البطاقة	عامود البطاقة		

س٢: الآن وقد اقترب موعد الامتحانات والتخرج ٠٠٠ ماهو العمل الذى
تنوين الالتحاق به ؟

(١٥ ــ ١٦)	١	ـــــــ	لأأنوى العمل
	٢	ـــــــ	مدرســـــة
	٣	ـــــــ	خياطـــة
	٤	ـــــــ	سكرتـــــيرة
	٥	ـــــــ	ممرضـــة
	٦	ـــــــ	محاسبــــة
	٧	ـــــــ	دكتـــــورة
	٨	ـــــــ	مضيفة طايران
	٩	ـــــــ	موظفة فى شركة
	١٠	ـــــــ	العمل الحـــر
	١١	ـــــــ	محامـيــــة
	١٢	ـــــــ	صحفيـــة
	١٣	ـــــــ	مذيعة فى الراديو / التليفزيون
	١٤	ـــــــ	ضابطة مـرور
	١٥	ـــــــ	مهندســـة
	١٦	ـــــــ	فى الشرطة / قوة الدفاع
	١٧	ـــــــ	موظفة فى الحكومة
	١٨	ـــــــ	لا أعـــرف

ضعى اشارة √ عند
جواب واحد فقط

س٣ : مالذى يؤهل الأنسان ليشغل مركزا مهما ؟

(١٧)	١	ـــــــ	كونه من عائلة معروفة
	٢	ـــــــ	كونه تقى ومحافظا على التقاليد
	٣	ـــــــ	كونه محبوب من الناس
	٤	ـــــــ	كفاءته العلمية وخبرته فى العمل

ضعى اشارة √ عند
بجواب واحد فقط

س٤ : ماهو أهم عامل لتقدم وطننا ؟

(١٨)	١	ـــــــ	العمل الجاد المخلص من قبل المواطن
	٢	ـــــــ	التخطيط السليم فى الدولة
	٣	ـــــــ	المعون الالهى
	٤	ـــــــ	الحظ الجيد

ضعى اشارة √ عند
جواب واحد فقط

٧٥٤

دليل البطاقة

١	٠	٩

رقم الاستمارة

رقم المدرسة

رقم الصف

البيانات التي تدون في هذه الاستمارة سرية
ولن تستعمل الا لأغراض البحث

آراؤك للمرة الأخيرة ....

دليل البطاقة	عامود البطاقة
١	
٢	
٣	
(١٤).	٤
٥	
٦	
٧	

س ١ : هناك مواضيع مختلفة وأخبار وأحداث نشاهدها ونستمع اليها
ونقرأها من خلال وسائل الاعلام ... أى من هذه الوسائل
الاعلامية تصدقين بصورة خاصة (أى أكثر شىء) ؟

ضعى اشارة √ عند
جواب واحد فقط

التليفزيون _____
الراديو _____
الجرائد _____
المجلات _____
الكتب _____
ولا واحدة _____
لا أعرف _____

— ٢ —

السؤالين الأخيرين هما تحت العبـــــــارة : —
الاسئلة التالية تابعـــة للباحثـــة فقــــط

س ١٨ : ما هو مستوى هـذه الطالبـة في الصف ؟

دليل البطاقة	ال عملي
(٤٨)	١
	٢
	٣
	٤
	٥

١ — ممتــــازة
ضعي اشارة ✓ ٢ — جيدة جدا
عند جواب ٣ — جيــــدة
واحد فقط ٤ — لابـــأس
٥ — ضعيفـــة

س ١٩ : ما هو مستوى هـذه الطالبـة الاقتصـادى ؟

(٤٩)	١
	٢
	٣

ضعي اشارة ✓ ١ — فوق المتوسـط
عند جواب ٢ — الوســــــط
واحد فقط ٣ — تحت الوسـط

(لا توجد هذه الاسـئلة على الاستمارة فقط الخطـوط ، أرجـو من المديـــــــرة
أن تضـــع الجــواب المناســـب لكـل طالبـــة)

غ . ع

بحث لجميع طالبات
الثاني الاعدادى والتوجيهي أدبي وعلمي

المقدمة :١ـ أرجو أن تقرأ هذه المقدمة على جميع الطالبات قبل البدء بإجابة الاستمارات لتعريف البحث والباحثة من المهم أن تقرأ المقدمة كما هي كي تتعرف كل الطالبات في كل المدارس على البحث في نفس الطريقة .

أنا طالبة بحرينية أحضر أطروحة الدكتوراه .. كما أنني نشأت في هذا المجتمع وواجهت الكثير مما تقبلته وما قد مرت منه ، فقد كانت أمنيتي منذ الصغر أن أجد فرصة أقوم بها ببحث كبير للاطلاع على آراء زميلاتي وأخواتي في مجتمعنا هذا . فبمساعدة هذه الآراء أستطيع أن أقدم بحثا كاملا يجيب على التساؤلات الكثيرة التي تخطر على بال كل واحدة منا فيساعدنا على وضع خطط مفيدة لمستقبلنا .

باختصار ،هذا البحث مكون من ثلاثة أقسام :ـ

١ ـ اجادة طرق ووسائل ليساعدة فتياتنا في المستقبل للتأهيل للمهن المختلفة المتوفرة في هذا المجتمع .

٢ ـ معرفة ذوق فتياتنا في اختيارهن للبرامج من وسائل الاعلام المتوفرة مثل التليفزيون .

٣ ـ معرفة آراء فتياتنا عن المرأة والمدرسة والعمل في هذا المجتمع .

لقد بذل جهد كثير في تحضير هذا البحث وبما أنه يتعلق بكل واحدة منا أرجو منكن أن تحاولن قدر المستطاع أن تبدين آراءكن الصريحة وتجيبن على الأسئلة باهتمام تام .

نتائج هذا البحث ستكون متوفرة لجميع الذين يطلبونها عندما تصبح جاهزة . إذا كان هناك أى طالبة تود معرفة النتائج فسيكون هذا متوفرا لها في أواخر هذه السنة ان شاء الله .
وشكرا على مساعدتكن .

٢ ـ بعد الانتهاء من قراءة المقدمة أرجو من المديرة أو المعلمة أن تكرر للطالبات أهمية الاجابة على كل الاسئلة باهتمام واتقان .

٣ ـ البطاقات التي ستوزع على الطالبات هي رقم الاستمارة الثماني لكل واحدة منهن أرجو من المديرة أن تجمع البطاقات بعد الانتهاء من البحث وتضع كل مجموعة صف على حدة وتبقى هذه البطاقات عندها الى أن تسترجمها الباحثة .

٤ ـ هناك (٨) استمارات وكل استمارة تستغرق حوالي ٣٠ دقيقة .

٥ ـ الاستمارة التي تسمى " المعلومات العامة " والتي هي آخر استمارة تقدم للطالبات ، أرجو من المديرة أن تحتفظ بالاستمارات لتجيب هي على المعلومات الأخيرين .

— ٤ —

٥ ـ الأستمارة السماء ـ ماذا تعرفين ؟ ـ هي عبارة عن معلومات عامة عن مهن مختلفة ٠ وقد تجد المعلمة أن الطالبات لا يعرفن الأجوبة الصحيحة ، فأرجو منها ـ أن تطلب منهن أن يحـزرن أو يخمن الجواب الذى هـو برأيهـن الاقـرب للصحيـح لأننا نريـد أن نعـرف قـدر المستطاع عن معلوماتهــن العامة عن المهـــن ٠

٦ ـ التعليمات واضحة وبسيطة على كل الأستمارات ٠ أرجو من المعلمة أن تنبه الطالبات أن يقرأنها بدقة واهتمام ٠

وشــكرا جــزيلا على مســاعدتكـــن «««   ٠

ف / أ

‫— ٣ —‬

‫طريقة شرح اجابة الأستمارات :—‬

‫١ — أرجو لفت انتباه الطالبات الى أنه هناك نوعين من الأسئلة •‬

‫أ — ضعى اشارة ✓ عند جواب واحد فقط‬
‫هذا يعنى أن هناك عدة أجوبة وعلى الطالبة أن تختار واحد فقط •‬

‫ب — ضعى اشارة ✓ عند كل الأجوبة المناسبة •‬
‫هذا يعنى أن هناك عدة أجوبة وقد يكون الجواب المناسب أكثر من واحد لهذا‬
‫فعليها أن تختار كل الأجوبة التى تناسبها •‬

‫٢ — هناك أسئلة تتطلب أن يوضع اشارة ✓ عند جواب واحد لكل يـوم •‬

أشاهده قليلا	أشاهده أحيانا	أشاهده كثيرا	مثلا :—
		✓	يوم السبت
	✓		يوم الأحد

‫٣ — هناك أسئلة من نفس النوع ولكن تتطلب أن يوضع اشارة ✓ عند جواب واحد‬
‫لكل نوع •‬

لا أحبها	لا مانع لدى	أحبها كثيرا	مثلا :
		✓	الأفلام العربية
✓			الموسيقى

‫٤ — هناك أسئلة عن الرأى : لقد وضع شرح عن كيفية الاجابة على كل استمارة‬
‫من هذا النوع • أرجو من المعلمة أن تذكر الطالبات اننا نريد (رأى واحد‬
‫فقط) لكل عبارة أو جملة •‬

١١ ـ أرجو أن تعطى المعلمة هذه اللائحة بالأسماء والأرقام الى المديرة أو تضعها فى محل لمين ثم تعطيها للمديرة لأنها مهمة جدا بالنسبة للبحث .

١٢ ـ أرجو من كل معلمة بعد ما تنتهى كل طالبة من استمارتها أن تتأكد من وجود رقم الأستمارة ورقم المدرسة ورقم الصف .

١٣ ـ ملحوظة :ـ قد تجد المعلمة أن بعض الطالبات أسرع من الأخريات فى الأجابة على الأستمارة . من المهم جدا أن تجيب كل طالبة على الأستمارة دون تأثير أو ازعاج من الأخريات . لذلك أرجو من المعلمة أن تشغل الطالبة التى أنتهت بعمل آخر مثل رأيها عن البحث أو أى شىء من هذا القبيــل .

١٤ ـ يجب أن تعمل كل طالبة وحدها ويجب أن يكون هناك هدوء بقدر المستطاع .

١٥ ـ أرجو من المعلمة ألا تشترك مع الطالبات فى الأجوبة لأننا نريد أن نعرف رأيهن الخاص .

١٦ ـ أرجو من المعلمة أن تجيب على كل أسئلة الطالبات لأن من المهم جدا جدا أن تجاوب الأسئلة بالطريقة الصحيحة . وأن تجيب الطالبات على الأسئلة كلها وألا تترك أى سؤال بدون اجابة . هذا مهم لنجاح البحث وليكون مفيــدا .

١٧ ـ بعد انتهاء الطالبات من الأجابة أرجو من المعلمة أن تذكر الطالبات عن أرقامهن ، ثم تجمع الاستمارات وتوزع الأستمارة الثانية وهكذا .

٨ . ـ ترتيب الأستمارات :ـ

١ ـ الأستمارة الأولى	:ـ ما هو رأيك ؟	(١)
٢ ـ الأستمارة الثانية	:ـ ماذا تظنين ؟	
٣ ـ الأستمارة الثالثة	:ـ ماذا يضايقك ؟	
٤ ـ الأستمارة الرابعة	:ـ التليفزيون ؟	
٥ ـ الأستمارة الخامسة	:ـ ما هو رأيك ؟	(٢)
٦ ـ الأستمارة السادسة	:ـ المدرسة والعمل ؟	
٧ ـ الأستمارة السابعة	:ـ ماذا تعرفين ؟	
٨ ـ الأستمارة الثامنة	:ـ معلومات عامة ؟	

التعليمات لمعلمة الصف

جمع البيانات بالطريقة ...

• ... تقدم الطالبة من فصل العمرة أو المعلمة .
• يكتب على اللوح ...

رقم الأستمارة

رقم المدرسة

رقم الصف

• ... عن أرقام المدرسة ورقم الصف على اللوح .
• ... ويقال لهن أن هذا هو ... الأمام على الطالبات ... يجب على كل استمارة فى المكان المخصص لـ ... رقم الأستمارة .
• ... أرقام ، ويجب أن يوضع كل رقم فى موضـ ... ورقم الأستمارة .

رقم الأستمارة

٠	٠	٢	١

• الأستمارة الأولـى .
• أولا وتقبل كل شئ أن يملأن فى الأمكنة ... الطالبات ... (الذى هو رقمهن الخاص) رقم المدرسة ... على اللوح .
• ... فى كل مجموعة من الأستمارات .
• الأستمارة كما هى محضرة مع هذه التعليمات .
• ... على الأستمارات ، أرجو من المعلمة أن تكون ... البنات وتضع رقم كل طالبة الى جانب ... الى جانب اسم الطالبة) .
• ... الأستمارة بحذر جدا فتنقل الأرقام كما هى الى جانب

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END