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Stress, coping & your TV-viewing habits explored:

A cross-cultural study about the

psychological motives for TV-viewing

related to stress, coping strategies & well-being

A

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by

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Dedication

A Minute:

They say it takes a minute to find a special person, an hour to appreciate them,

a day to love them, but then an entire life to forget them.

Take the time ... To live and love!

(Author unknown)

This doctoral dissertation is dedicated to:

My family, Pumpa and Osiris

My appreciation and thanks for their assistance, believe and great help goes to:

My best friend Anita Gombor as well as to all my other friends,

who supported as well as criticized me!

Both are important in life for growth and in order to achieve something!

Enjoy reading my Dissertation!

Abstract

Objective: The most popular form of leisure use in contemporary society is television viewing. This fact is supported by the steadily increasing amount of TV-viewing worldwide, despite the growing number of Internet users. The purpose of the present doctoral dissertation was to empirically test the associations between television viewing motivations and psychosocial factors such as life satisfaction, stress and coping strategies in five countries. The majority of people are watching TV on a daily basis and understanding the relationship between the TV-viewing motives and psychosocial factors is important. Previous research found mixed results on the relationship between TV-viewing and life satisfaction as well as stress. Therefore, it is worth investigating whether TV-viewing is increasing or decreasing our life satisfaction and stress levels. Another central hypothesis in this study was predicting a relationship between television viewing motives and coping strategies. Only a very limited number of studies have researched this association. This study hypothesized that the coping styles are reflected in the motives of students to watch TV. More specifically, ritualistic viewers are watching out of habit, entertainment and escape reasons and these viewers may engage in more avoidant coping styles, while instrumental viewers are watching out of information-seeking and social interaction purposes and this viewing style may be more linked to active coping preferences. With this, the present study extends prior research by examining the links between mass media uses and different indicators of psychosocial functioning while at the same time highlighting the similarities and differences between the countries involved.

Method: The questionnaire contained standardized and well-known scales to measure television viewing motives, life satisfaction, perceived stress levels and coping strategies. The participants were adult students, living in their home country, who responded to an online survey link that was administered by e-mail to selected Universities and students who were able to access the online questionnaire at www.surveymonkey.com for a time period of 6 weeks in the spring of 2007. The questionnaire was filled out by **656** Hungarians, **264** Israelis, **188** Norwegians, **270** Swiss and **54** Americans, so altogether **1432** University students. 78% of the sample was female. The participants ranged in age from 18 to 46 years and the mean age of all participants was 24.3 years (SD = 5.55).

Results: The Pearson and multiple regression analyses revealed statistically significant support for the proposed hypotheses. Positive associations were identified between the instrumental TV-viewing motive of information-seeking and the media involvement

variables of TV-affinity, parasocial interaction and post-viewing cognition. A significantly negative association was found between life satisfaction levels and the escape viewing motive (β = -0,227, p = 0.001), while a positive association was found between perceived stress levels and the escape viewing motive (β = 0,240, p = 0.001). Furthermore, positive associations were found between avoidant coping strategy of mental disengagement and the escape viewing motive (β = 0.161, p < 0.001) as well as between behavioral disengagement strategy and escape viewing motive (β = 0.119, p < 0.001). Moreover, the results indicated that there were nation-based differences in the associations between motives for television viewing and coping strategies, which included positive and negative associations for the American students, only positive relationships for the Hungarians, Israelis, and Norwegians, whereas the Swiss sample had only negative links.

Conclusions: The goal of this research paper was to expand the knowledge of the interrelationships between motives for television viewing, life satisfaction, perceived stress and coping strategies. The findings of this study suggest that television use is important in everyday life among adult students from different nations. Television consumption (use not content) can be related to lower life satisfaction levels and higher stress levels. These findings supported the two hypotheses that students with lower life satisfaction levels or higher stress levels are more likely to watch television for escape reasons. Moreover, the results confirmed that the escape viewing motive is associated with the avoidant coping strategies of mental and behavioral disengagement. This indicates that watching television for escape reasons may represent a form of coping. In addition, the current findings supported a nation-based difference in the relationship between TV-viewing motives and copings behavior. The students in America, Hungary, Israel, Norway, and Switzerland displayed different television viewing motives while at the same time these motives were related to coping strategies as the cross-cultural findings revealed. This is suggesting that coping strategies can be predictive of TV-viewing motives in different nations.

This study is therefore linking several concepts theoretically with each other and especially adding to the few available numbers of studies in television use and coping literature. Overall, the findings of the present study highlighted and supported the conceptual relationships between television viewing motives, life satisfaction, stress levels and coping strategies. Though some questions remain open and for this reason, further research is necessary to examine these links completely.

Keywords: coping strategies • life satisfaction • motives for TV-viewing • stress • America • Hungary • Israel • Norway • Switzerland

Table of Contents

I.   CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

II.   CHAPTER 2 – TELEVISION USE RELATED TO PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS

CHAPTER 3 - METHOD

IV.   CHAPTER 4 - RESULTS

V.   CHAPTER 5 - DISCUSSION

VI.   LIST OF REFERENCES

VII.   APPENDICES

List of Tables and Figures

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The longest journey begins with a single step.
- Chinese philosopher Lao-Tzu (604 B.C. – 531 B.C.)

Let's begin this journey with a little scenario at first. Imagine! You are sitting in your car at night and it is pretty dark outside while you are driving home through your neighborhood. The street lightings and headlights of your car are shining in the darkness, but there is also something else that you notice. There is a familiar blue glow shining through the windows of houses and you can imagine the scene inside. One person, a couple, or an entire family, are sitting around the centerpiece of the room, the television, which has captured the full attention of those gathered before it. All eyes are staring at this contemporary invention with its never-ending streams of images. Welcome to the reality in which millions of people all around the world are fascinated by the biff-bang-boom and much more that is shown on the glimmering screen. The majority of people in contemporary society are watching television day in and day out in order to find relaxation, entertainment or escape from the hardship of everyday life. There are just about as many reasons for watching television as there are channels and shows, while individuals who do not watch TV belong to the minority. Individuals differ in how, when and why they are applying television viewing in order to fill the gaps of everyday life in either a complementary or compensatory way. Television viewing is today, more than ever, one of the most important feature in modern life and it captivates a big slice of our leisure time (Greenwood, 2008; Weimann, Brosius & Wober, 1992). Television research has become a popular target medium in academics and commercial life (Barwise & Ehrenberg, 1988). The numbers of hours spent in front of the telly continues to creep upward by a few minutes each year in all developed countries (Mediametrie, 2007), and people throughout the rest of the world seem every bit as attracted to the telly. It is predicted that the average adult will spend 1,669 hours with watching television (Turck, 2004), which is the same as 70 days within a year. Rutgers Professor Robert Kubey, a leading media scholar, did a similar calculation in which he counted that if a person is getting 75 years old and sleeping approximately 8 hours a night then this

person is going to be awake for 50 years. Further, if this person is watching the telly for 4 to 5 hours a day, then this individual will spent over 13 years of his or her life in front of the television (Kubey, 2003). No wonder that television is frequently called the plug-in-drug (Turck, 2004). Does this sound familiar to the reader? Before moving on, let me ask the reader directly: "How many hours are you watching TV and do you even have a favorite TV show?" In case you are viewing TV on a regular basis then you may recognize or even identify with some viewing habits described in this research paper. On the other hand, if you are not a regular TV-viewer nor do you have a favorite show then I still hope that you will find this journey interesting because the amount of TV-viewing differs greatly from individual to society and the reasons for such differences remain unsolved (Henning & Vorderer, 2001).

Connecting television viewing with psychosocial factors is ***my research interest*** because I have to admit that I like watching TV and I truly believe that it is a *useful* medium. The reason why this study came into being is simple and personal. I consider myself a somewhat emotional person when it comes to movies. Many television programs and movies have touched me. Not only in terms of sometimes crying about a movie, but also because some programs filled me with happiness and interest to find out more about that movie or people behind or within it. I often wondered why I was so prone to such strong responses and what exactly it was that struck a chord with me. As Jib Fowles (1992: p.26) wrote: "very few escaped the pull of the medium" and being hooked on television as are so many of my fellow human beings, too is making it more interesting and genuinely joyful to read and write about a research topic in which I have an long-lasting interest. I was surprised to find out how *limited* the research is in the field of television viewing motives and psychosocial factors such as for instance coping strategies within the German- and English-speaking domain. So I thought it is time to change this and my dissertation aims to address this gap in an empirical setting by investigating how particular TV-viewing motives are related to life satisfaction, stress and specific coping strategies.

Uncovering links between media gratification and forms of social and psychological compensation has been a recurring topic of study during the last decade (Chen & Kennedy, 2005; Finn & Gorr, 1988; Greenwood, 2008; Katz & Foulkes, 1962; Moskalenko & Heine, 2003; Pearlin, 1959; Nabi, Finnerty, Domschke & Hull, 2006).

The ***uses and gratifications*** (U & G) approach offers theoretical support in understanding the media and audience relationship within a wider social context (Conway & Rubin, 1991; Rosengren & Windahl, 1978) because it emphasizes that individuals are aware of their biological, psychological, and social needs (Nabi et al., 2006). The U & G theory has three objectives: first, to explain how individuals satisfy their needs by using the media. Second, to understand viewing motives for media use, and third, to identify the consequences that follow from motives and media use (Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch, 1974; Rubin, Perse & Barbato, 1988). This framework explains the audience selection and interpretation of a media message by attaching it to satisfaction (Blumler & Katz, 1974; McQuail, Blumler & Brown, 1972) and ***motivation***, which has a strong impact on selection, interpretation and the uses of media to gratify needs or motives (Haridakis & Rubin, 2003). Differences in motivations are reflected in ***ritualized and instrumental*** television viewing orientation (Kim & Rubin, 1997). Rubin (1984) described ritualized TV use as a more *important* viewing experience, while instrumental television use is a more *involving* viewing experience. People are using the media to their benefit (Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch, 1974) and audience members are now viewed as active and rational consumers who choose what and how to use specific media content with the goal to achieve different gratifications of needs (Greenberg, 1974; Palmgreen, Wenner & Rosengren, 1985 in Rosengren, Wenner & Palmgreen, 1985; Rubin, 1979, 1981, 2002). Such needs can include those related to *entertainment* and *escape* (Rubin, 2002), and these are of particular interest to this investigation. These needs are associated with ***emotional release***, which have been identified early on as a ***primary function*** of media consumption (Herzog, 1944; Solomon, 2001). Please note that when referring to media consumption in general then television use is meant rather than television content because the latter is another piece of cake and it is not a focus of this research paper. Katz and Foulkes (1962) posited that television viewing provides an escape from everyday life. In this sense, TV-viewing is frequently referred to as a ***coping function*** from everyday tension and frustration (Katz & Foulkes, 1962; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990a; Pearlin, 1959). Television viewing serves as an escape (Katz & Gurevitch, 1976; Singer, 1980; Tannenbaum, 1980) from monotonous life and work without making the return to work too unbearable. As indicated by prior empirical work, television viewing is a dominant and a very popular leisure activity in modern societies (Bruni & Stanca, 2006; Kubey &

Csikszentmihalyi, 2002; Rubin & Rubin, 1982b) absorbing roughly *40% of all leisure time* (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). Hence, nobody can escape the boob tube, especially, if the person doesn't want to flee from it at all!

The focus on psychological elements of media use was fostered by the concept of an active audience and subsequent research has found that psychological measures are related to exposure and response to media messages (Conway & Rubin, 1991). Revealed preferences imply that for many young people and adults, TV consumption is an important source for **well-being** (Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006), which is another focus of this paper. Studies on well-being are very prominent in present psychology research (Keyes, Ryff & Shmotkin, 2002). This reflects to some extent the growing understanding that positive and negative affect are not opposites (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1999), and well-being is not the absence of mental illness (Ryff, 1989). The psychological and physical fascination of TV-viewing is without precedent (Charlton & O'Bey, 1997). Research dealing with television consumption and **life satisfaction**, which is a global measure of subjective well-being (Diener, 1984), is very up-to-date (Bruni & Stanca, 2006; Frey, Benesch & Stutzer, 2005). However, findings about the relationship between TV-viewing and life satisfaction are inconclusive. Empirical data for this is provided by the first wave of the *European Social Survey* (ESS), which is a survey carried out in 22 European countries in the year 2002 – 2003. In each country, about 1'200 to 3'000 people were interviewed resulting in a sample of 42'021 observations about reported television viewing and life satisfaction. This is an exceptionally rich data supporting the hypothesis that on average, heavy TV viewers report lower levels of life satisfaction (Benesch, Frey & Stutzer, 2006; Espe & Seiwert, 1987). In contrast, other studies have found that ritualistic TV-viewing motivations such as habit, pass time, escape and companionship serves the purpose of diversion because it imposes a certain time structure, thus preventing negative affect to occur, and as a result of this, people report higher levels of subjective well-being (Finn & Gorr, 1988; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b; Rubin, 2002; Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). The studies of television viewing and life satisfaction mentioned above reveal that the findings are inconclusive and more research is needed in this field. The present paper aims to address this gap.

4

Life in Western societies is fast-pacing and new technologies pop up almost everyday. Modern technologies such as Laptops, mobile phones, and wide-screen television sets can make our lives easier and so much more interesting by filling our everyday life with lots of information and entertainment. If something happens on the other side of the world, be that a positive or negative event, then people using any kind of modern technologies, are among the first ones to hear these *breaking news*. In case that people want to see *live* pictures about such events, then all they have to do is to switch on their television set. The role of television in communicating world events is very integral (Giles, 2003), and people often seem to forget that TV is not God given, but made by man. Life is often perceived as **stressful** in this hectic world and it seems, as there are constantly a million things that have to be done. This fact is confirmed by the increasing numbers of people with stress-related mental disorders (Lopez & Murray, 1998; Robinson & Godbey, 1999). The topic of stress among University students has been the subject of much research for many years and researchers has found that high levels of stress in students can lead to severe health problems (Misra, McKean, West & Russo, 2000; Hudd, Dumlao, Erdman-Sager, Murray, Phan, Soukas & Yokozuka, 2000). Therefore, the study of this phenomenon and how television viewing may add or decrease the student's ability to deal with stress can have important implications in the academic field. People are working hard to make their living and pursuing other leisure activities than TV-viewing, are inhibited by costs, time and effort (Bruni & Stanca, 2006). Nowadays, doing any leisure activity means to watch TV (Greenwood, 2008) and let's be honest, it is very comfortable to come home and to sit down in front of the tube in order to relax and to enjoy our spare free time. Therefore, many young and older adults, who are stressed, seek ways to resolve their tensions with the simplest means of watching television (Anderson, Collins, Smith & Jacobvitz, 1996; Greenwood, 2008; Pearlin, 1959). The distress symptoms caused by everyday hassles can be alleviated by social support and different coping styles, which may constitute social as well as psychological needs. Leonard I. Pearlin (1959), a public health sociologist, was the first to propose that *television is used by viewers to relieve personal stress*. Zillmann (1988) as well as Zillmann & Bryant (1985) provided theoretical justification for this with their **mood management theory**. When people think about stressful life events, they may experience negative affect as a direct consequence of those thoughts, and television viewing can temporarily improve this negative affect by displacing and substituting

negative thoughts and affect with positive ones (Anderson, Collins, Schmitt & Jacobvitz, 1996; Schallow & McIlwraith, 1986; Tannenbaum, 1980). The uses and gratifications theory argues for many years now that people turn regularly to television viewing and its media content in order to *escape the stress encountered in daily lives* (Abelman, 1987; Conway & Rubin, 1991; Herzog, 1944; Henning & Vorderer, 2001; Katz & Foulkes, 1962; Kim & Rubin, 1997; Kippax & Murray, 1980; Levy, 1978; Lichtenstein & Rosenfeld, 1984; McQuail, Blumler & Brown, 1972 in McQuail, 1972; Rubin & Perse 1987a; Ruggiero, 2000; Vincent & Basil, 1997; Knobloch-Westerwick, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Both *stress* and *television viewing* are *omnipresent* in our lives (Folkman, 2001; Moskalenko & Heine, 2003) and people often turn to media in times of stress (Greenwood, 2008; Pearlin, 1959). It is no overstatement to say that stress is a common feature of modern social life (Almeida, Wethington & Kessler, 2002). This research paper will also address the relationship between television viewing and stress because prior studies found opposing results on whether television viewing is increasing or decreasing stress levels. This is the second gap that I encountered when making in-depth literature research and this dissertation aims to address this issue as well.

There is no society without stress and there is no culture that has not "accepted practices, which can function as coping mechanisms for stress (Pearlin, 1959: p.255). Chen and Kennedy (2005) argue that stressed children often use TV-viewing as a **coping strategy**. This research perspective tends to emphasize the role of mass media as a remedy for psychological functioning (Rosengren & Windahl, 1978). "**TV-viewing may serve as a potential resource for coping**" (Nabi et al., 2006: p.689). This may be extremely useful in victims of trauma, who use television viewing to recover from traumatic and painful events. Empirical verification for this was provided by Jürgen Minnebo (2004, 2006) from Belgium. His findings showed that crime victims develop motives for viewing television that are similar to the way in which they cope with their victimization. Minnebo's results (op.cit.) showed a link between *escape viewing motive* and *avoidant coping strategy*. According to Minnebo (2006), television viewing patterns may themselves influence and moderate the recovery process. So by applying coping strategies, which are potential responses to effectively deal with stress, then these coping strategies "appear to be an essential life survival technique for people in contemporary society" (Iwasaki, 2001: p.163). However, previous

research as only hinted at the possible relationship between television use and coping strategies (Dahlquist, Söderberg & Norberg, 2008, Greenwood, 2008; Minnebo, 2004, 2006). So there is a possible link between coping strategies and television use that has not yet been fully explored. What we know about this line of research is that coping styles are changeable, so are the viewing motivations interchangeable, depending on whether the event is perceived as harmful, threatening, or challenging (McCrae, 1984). The frequently used Coping Orientation for Problem Experiences (COPE) questionnaire developed by Carver, Scheier & Weintraub (1989) and revised by Carver (1997) distinguishes such coping strategies into **active coping strategies**, which are either behavioral (*problem-focused coping*) or psychological (*emotion-focused coping*) responses intended to modify the stressor itself or how a person thinks about it, whereas **avoidant coping strategies** include activities such as for example drinking alcohol and withdrawing from the surrounding by heavy TV viewing that keep people from directly dealing with the stressor. As Conway and Rubin (1991: p.443) noted "understanding the role of psychological variables in media use should allow explanation and prediction of viewing motivation". Television viewing is an easy, cheap and effortless activity (Kubey, 1996 in MacBeth, 1996) for many people worldwide, regardless of age, culture or gender (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b). So why is this little TV set or sometimes pretty big set, if we think about these wide, high-tech flat screens, captivating so many individuals around the globe? The answer remains a mystery so far.

Recent studies reveal that *watching TV to cope with stress* was in the *top five* most frequent used coping strategies for healthy white American and Taiwanese children (Chen & Kennedy, 2005). Children described TV-viewing as a successful way in dealing with being upset and helping them to feel better (Kennedy, Strzempko, Danford & Kools, 2002). If this is true for children then what about the adult population? As a doctoral student, I faced the task of finding an intellectual niche in the field of psychology and media studies, and this research paper addresses such a link. There is a very *limited* amount of comparable studies (e.g. Schmitz, Alsdorf, Sang & Tasche, 1993) when it comes to *healthy* individuals and the relationship between their viewing motivations and coping strategies. As mentioned before, television is frequently described to offer an escape from everyday life (e.g. Katz & Foulkes, 1962) and it can serve as a coping mechanism (e.g. Nabi et al., 2006). But

research that would link these two constructs is virtually non-existing. Very limited existing empirical studies so far have used specific questionnaires to connect specific TV-viewing motivations of healthy individuals to specific coping strategies. Therefore, this doctoral paper seeks to expand past research in an empirical setting by investigating the associations between specific viewing motivations and particular coping strategies. Thus, I may contribute with my dissertation to this scientific and theoretical gap because "literature offers very little insight into how viewers may use TV to cope with stress and emotional turmoil" (Nabi et al., 2006: p.689). The most recent research endeavors have established the need to explore the relationship between viewing motivations and coping strategies because "various forms of coping have different psychological motivations and serve different functions for viewers" (Hoffner, 1995: p.343).

This study is guided by **several research questions** such as:

➢ How does the use of TV-viewing affect a person's life satisfaction and stress levels?

➢ How are television viewing motives related to coping strategies? What are the principle associations between these two concepts? For instance what is the relationship between ritualistic or instrumental TV-viewing motives (such as entertainment, escape, or information-seeking) and active or passive real-life coping strategies?

➢ Is there a cultural or nation-based difference that helps to explain the link between ritualized or instrumental television motives and coping preferences?

These research questions will be explored in the present paper, which is an empirical investigation into the relatively unexplored waters of television viewing motives and coping behavior. The **purpose** of this current study is to gain an understanding of how University students are using the vast resources of television viewing in respect to their coping styles. Television viewing is frequently used as a coping strategy by children and adults (Chen & Kennedy, 2005; Kennedy, Strzempko, Danford & Kools, 2002; Ryan, 1989; Ryan-Wenger & Copeland, 1994; Sharrer & Ryan-Wenger, 1995). As Henning and Vorderer (2001: p.100) have confirmed "the concept of escapism is useful in explaining TV use when it takes over a psychological and sociological perspective". In particular, heavy viewers, who feel worse during unstructured time and alienated from the self make more use of watching TV in order to deal with or to escape from

these feelings (Kubey, 1986). These findings were stimulating for this research project and that's when my doctoral dissertation started to evolve in my mind. Mass communication researchers have recently begun to consider coping style to help explain the processes that underlie the responses of adults to media messages (Gordon, Juang & Syed, 2007; Hoffner, 1997; Sparks, Pellechia & Irvin, 1999). As Dara Greenwood (2008) noted there is more work required to explore the connections between media uses and psychological functioning. Therefore, this study is relevant because TV-viewing motives "may be generally understood to be indicative of coping strategies (Kubey, 1986: p.110). Indeed, the role of television as a coping function has often been matched with the uses of drugs and alcohol (Katz & Foulkes, 1962; Pearlin, 1959; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990a). A study of viewers' motivations and coping preferences may provide a missing link when looking for causal relations between programs and behavior. It may reveal what viewers find important, helpful, and meaningful. Thus, the seeking of associations between viewing motives and coping styles constitutes a secondary stage of research into program interpretation. As people continue to pick the media to satisfy their specific needs so is detailed research in this area crucial for media planners, as they should be monitoring the position and direction of the audiences (Severin & Tankard, 2001). Understanding how and what happens when television is consumed rather than researching how much television is consumed may be important to psychological functioning, and this research paper may contribute to this theoretical gap by providing an important link between various concepts of participant's psychosocial factors with the reasons for viewing television.

The present survey is a ***cross-cultural research*** that explores many roles of television viewing habits in relation to coping strategies, and it fills a gap in media research, especially that in Hungary, because no similar analysis has been conducted before. The research setting includes University students living in five different countries such as in America, Hungary, Israel, Norway and Switzerland. By exploring the role of TV as a *therapist* it may help viewers to understand how they cope with personal problems while current media theory that has yet to fully benefit from the insights available from the research on specific motivational and emotional experiences. Since very little attention has been paid so far to the aspect of how television viewing motivations may be related to real-life coping strategies by communication researchers and others in related academic disciplines, it would appear that much

could be gained by investigating the interplay between traditional TV uses and the coping styles that people exhibit in daily encounters with the surrounding. Visualizing, sitting on the porch and starring at the tube for hours is for some people a daily routine, while for others it is an unbelievable waste of time. Let me ask the reader another question and whether *you* could live without watching television? The answer for the majority of people and me would be to say clearly: "no"! The challenge is taken up in the current study to investigate how life satisfaction, stress and coping strategies may be affecting our existing patterns of television viewing motives. In doing this research, I hope to contribute to existing literature in media, emotions and health behaviors. Television is beyond compare a window to the world introducing us to faraway landscapes and new ideas. It is a very influential device in education and if properly used it can teach everyone valuable lessons about science, history, human interactions and current events (Osborn, 2002). Television can provide people with information on how to act (Zillmann, 1988). However, a great deal of what we learn depends on us and that's the major challenge in realizing the ***potential of television*** (Osborn, 2002). Further reasons why a study such as this one is important are first, it provides an opportunity to carry out a preliminary exploration of common TV-viewing behaviors in the age of Internet television. Data for this project were collected through the Internet, which is the newest trend in sampling methodology because it is cheap, fast and reliable (Dillman, Tortora & Bowker, 1999; Medin, Roy & Ann, 1999; Reips, 2002). Second, it involves an integrative research design to study communication activity across five different countries at the same time. And third, it has the potential to initiate a new theoretical framework for the study of mass media and psychosocial functioning. These are all reasons provided as the primary rationale for the current study and they are further elaborated in the following chapters.

TELEVISION USE RELATED TO PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS

Television is an invention that permits you to be entertained in your living room by people you wouldn't invite in your home.

- Sir David Frost (1971)

The following chapter will examine television viewing motivations from different theoretical angles. Starting from the motives for television viewing it will continue with the history of the uses and gratifications (U & G) approach with its underlying theoretical assumptions that have guided its application within the field of communication research. Further, the relationships between television viewing motives and subjective well-being, stress and coping strategies will be discussed. The last section will conclude by suggesting several hypotheses that guided this empirical investigation. But before, let's take a closer look at the relationship between society and television uses and what people do with the media (Katz & Foulkes, 1962).

2.1 Television as a socializing agent

The first question that comes into mind is what is socialization? A possible definition for this question was given by DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach (1989: p.209) who stated that socialization is "a complex, long-term, and multidimensional set of communicative exchanges between individuals and various agents of society that result in the individual's preparation for life in a socio-cultural environment". This preparation for the social life of a person starts when the individual is in its infancy (Chandler, 1995; Kósa, 2001-2002). However, there are different views as Buckingham (1993: p.14) noted and socialization in his view is "a functional approach that regards children as passive recipients of external social forces rather than active participants in the construction of their own social lives and identities". The first approach to socialization refers to *enculturation* in which a person internalizes "all aspects of their culture" (DeFleur & Ball-Rokeach 1989: p.209). The media in this context is able to teach the child about

the natural world and social structures (Chandler, 1995; Kósa, 2001-2002). The media is having an effect on the child's future development because "socialization prepares individuals for participation in group life" (DeFleur & Ball-Rokeach 1989: p.210). So television is taking the function as a socializing agent. The cultivation hypothesis (Gerbner & Signorielli, 1982) is analyzing the impact of television on viewers' social attitudes. This theory assumes that television is a socializing agent. Let's consider an extreme experiment in which a person is totally isolated from his or her surrounding and the only company is a television set. How will this person respond when returning to the social reality? Cultivation researchers note that heavy TV consumption "leads to the adoption of beliefs about the nature of the social world, which conform to the stereotyped, distorted and very selective view of reality as portrayed in a systematic way in television fiction and news" (McQuail 2000: p.465). Cultivation theorists further state that TV-viewing has slow and indirect long-term effects but they are significant (Gerbner & Signorielli, 1982). Missing from this approach is the understanding of how people interpret TV programs and what meaning it entails (Livingstone, 1998). Other criticism of cultivation analysis include that is not taking genre and media content into account as well as its assumption that viewers pay full attention to what they are watching, which is not necessary the case (Gauntlett, 1995; Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Television provides people with the content that can be discussed in different situations and this is a strong tie that holds viewers together (Kósa, 2001-2002). In this sense, TV offers a kind of *common cultural identity*, which is shared by many people around the globe (Ling & Thrane, 2002). In general, culture is defined as a highly complex and constantly changing system of meaning that is learned, shared and modified from generation to generation (Triandis, 1995). So culture is a way of life (Tomaselli, 2003) including knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, customs and any other habits obtained by people who are members of a society. Culture is a medium of verbal and nonverbal communication as well as the reality of life within which people live and die. Thus, cultural similarity may create a sense of belongingness and in turn, culture is characterized by behavior and attitudes, which are determined by upbringing. Media and especially TV-viewing serves various functions within a culture and society (Perse & Courtright, 1993). Nowadays, media in everyday life is becoming more and more important and it can be considered as one of the main agents of socialization (Johnsson-Smaragdi, Haenens, Krotz, & Hasebrink, 1998, Rosengren, 1994; Vajda & Kósa, 2005). The theory of entertainment-seeking experience ventures

that it provides a socialization function (Zillmann, Weaver, Mundorf & Aust, 1986). For instance, watching a horror film in the company of a member of the opposite sex is enjoyed more when the companion acted in a stereotypical and gender appropriate way, meaning women should indicate distress and men should indicate mastery (Kósa & Vajda, 1998; Zillmann et al., 1986). Therefore, this view maintains that dramatic experiences may provide us with an opportunity to socialize by expressing appropriate emotions. The ***domestication*** of television (Silverstone, 1994, 1999) refers to the process in which a man-made object is morally and physically integrated within the family and the home environment. Thus, television can function "both as an object and as a medium" (Silverstone, 1994: p.83). How many different meanings television can have is best described in McLuhan's (1964) dictum citing that **the medium is the message**, meaning that different media requires different forms and levels of interaction from the viewers. In other words, television is the mass medium, which is able to exert influence on attitudes, trend styles, life stories and a whole society. It spreads without much effort, as it is the case with reading. A person who is reading something has to work and to unscramble symbols, while TV is based on optical- and acoustic awareness and has an ***immediate effect***. Even an illiterate can understand the magnificent audiovisual stories broadcasted on TV. McLuhan (op.cit.) stretched his concept to cover all technologies including clothing, housing, money, clocks, transportation, and weapons. All technologies are media devices because they are connecting us with the environment. The power of McLuhan's dictum is instantly recognizable even today (Cameron, 1996).

The second theory that is linked to the socialization process is the **social cognitive theory** (Bandura, 1999), which originates from the observation of human behavior. It explains human behavior as a dynamic interaction between the person and the environment. Bandura (1986, 2002) argues that people learn from observing role models in day-to-day life or on television. People "are more likely to adopt modeled behavior, if it results in outcomes they value than if it has unrewarding or punishing effects" (Bandura, 1977: p.28). The reward or punishment of a particular behavior as observed in a soap opera is important in focusing the viewer's attention to the behavior. It is the outcome of the behavior that will enhance the observational learning experience (Bandura, 1999). The criticism of Bandura's theory includes that the social cognitive theory is preoccupied with the individual, while decision-making is intrinsically

related to the family or community affiliation in many cultures. Therefore, family relations and other environmental factors may shape behavioral changes (Montgomery, 1999). The social cognitive theory is also greatly used in health promotion campaigns in order to understand the impact on possible self-perceptions of the viewers (Mastro & Stern 2003).

On the other hand, television can also be used as a ***de-socializing agent***. A very interesting study was carried out by David Boyns and Desiree Stephenson (2003), who examined television viewing without television. Put in other words, people had to watch TV without switching on the set for about 30 minutes. People reported following experiences when sitting in front of a blank screen. People felt foolish and bored a kind of suspense of time, they felt the great urge to switch on the tube, started to imagine watching TV, and loneliness. As it turns out, starring at the telly without switching it on is not as easy as one would expect (Boyns & Stephenson, 2003). Yet, in situations of disengagement, TV-viewing has proved to exert a ***parachute effect*** in that it focuses the attention of individuals and thus prevents loss of involvement and motivation to act (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b). Television is regarded to reflect the world and to show the viewers how the society works. These representations elicit different reactions from person to person and are measurable in the study of viewing patterns of people (Chandler, 1994). Although the de-socializing viewpoint is fascinating, my research project is dealing more with the uses of and the engagement with television.

2.2 Motives for television viewing

The greatest thing you'll ever learn in life is to love and be loved in return.
- Toulouse-Lautrec in Moulin Rouge (2001)

Motivation is a comprehensive concept for various processes and effects in psychology. Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) discovered 98 separate definitions of motivation, embracing diverse phenomena and theoretical orientations. The theory of motivation is fundamental to the uses and gratifications approach, which explains why people use certain mass media (Ruggiero, 2000). Motivation can be categorized as cognitive or affective and active or passive as well as internal or external modes (Giles, 2003). For instance, if a person is watching TV for the reason that nothing else can be done then the internal motivation would be boredom, whereas an external motivation could be the lack of company. Motivation refers to people's latent motives, which are activated by situational factors. Human action is directed by motives, which are states that individuals aim to realize (Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004). A person's social and psychological situation directs his or her needs that are manifested in *motives*, which reflects different reasons that individuals have for selecting, interpreting and using media (Haridakis & Rubin, 2003; Perse, 1990b; Rubin, 2002). The definition of a motive according to McClelland (1985: p.183) is that it is "a recurrent concern about a goal state that drives, orients, and selects behavior". Atkinson (1957) defined a motive as a disposition to find satisfaction. The concrete goals of activities to reach satisfaction are countless and different in various cultures, individuals and periods of history. An individual's basic needs, social background and situation are influencing what people want from media and which media is the best to meet these needs (McQuail, Blumler & Brown, 1972 in McQuail, 1972). This means that viewers are aware of their motives and gratifications for using different media. The key assumption is that individuals literally take advantage of the media by predetermining what is going to be absorbed to meet their needs (Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch, 1974). According to Rosengren (1974) certain basic human *needs* relate to personality and social environment comprising different motives for gratifying behavior that is based on media use. Katz, Blumler and Gurevitch (1973) related needs to social roles and psychological dispositions that strengthen or weaken

the relationship with the self, family or the society. Motivation can be further on explained as giving "impetus to action" (Deci & Ryan, 1985: p.3). This doctoral dissertation examines how various motives for television use may gratify certain needs such as for example coping with stress because using television for coping with stress may have different outcomes then using television for relaxation purposes. The motivational perspective, which relies on approach and avoidance system, gives an explanation for why people have strong preferences for watching entertainment (Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004). People watch TV shows that are expected to fulfill their needs (i.e. to be entertained) and which are highly valued (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Afterwards, people evaluate how well those needs have been gratified with the intention of making a decision to repeat this behavior in the future (Babrow & Swanson, 1988). If people's expectancies are met all the time then they establish patterns of habitual media use (Giles, 2003). Expectations and evaluations about TV are important antecedents of gratifying motives to seek (Palmgreen, Wenner & Rayburn, 1980) and Maslow's need theory (1970) is best-known to be a classification of motives.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs

The humanistic theory of motivation is very well-known in which people have inner drives to accomplish their maximum until encountering an obstacle such as hunger, thirst, or financial and safety issues (Huitt, 2004). The best-known theorist is Abraham Maslow (1970) and his famous pyramid, the so-called hierarchy of human needs. People have specific needs that have to be satisfied in a bottom-up approach. This means that if a lower level need has not been met then a person cannot strive for a need on a higher level (op.cit.). The uses and gratifications researchers have often used Maslow's hierarchy of human needs to theorize the motivational significance of psychological and social characteristics (Rubin & R. Rubin, 1985). The media typologies were often similar to Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Rosengren, 1974). Maslow (1970) proposed different needs and people strive to satisfy their needs in the following order of importance (see Figure 1):

(1) Physiological needs: homeostasis of food, water, sex, warmth, sleep
(2) Safety need: security, safety, shelter
(3) Belongingness need: intimacy, friendships, and social relationships

(4) Esteem needs: prestige, feelings of accomplishment, and social acceptance

(5) Self-actualization need: this is a growth needs in which a person tries to achieve his/her maximum potential

Individuals have limited terminal needs including urges such as hunger, but unlimited instrumental needs, which refer to the satisfaction of terminal needs such as the kind of food and the way of eating. Higher level needs are the less urgent to satisfy and less important for a person's survival. The satisfaction of higher needs depend on personal success and the self-actualization need was approached by studying successful and well-adjusted people such as Mahatma Gandhi and Eleanor Roosevelt (Maslow, 1970).

Figure 1: Maslow's hierarchy of needs
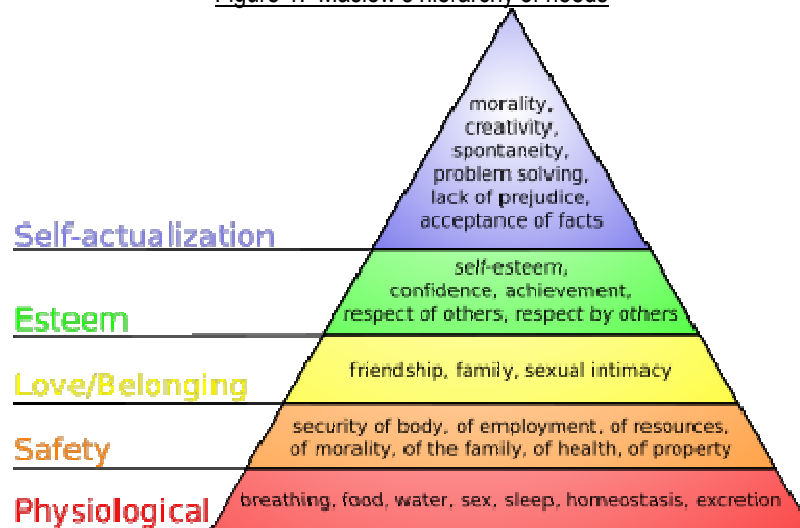
Source: Wikipedia (2006)

In general, people are motivated by affection, belongingness and love (Finn & Gorr, 1988) and particularly the belongingness need can be linked to TV-viewing because viewing gives people a sense of being in touch with somebody (Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). However, the major criticism of the hierarchy model is that human needs cannot be put into a hierarchy (Green, 2000). When taking a look at television viewing motives then people are using the media for different reasons (Rubin, 1994) and we have to understand the needs and motives of viewers for using the mass media because the comprehension of consumption patterns of viewers will increase the knowledge of media effects (Rubin, 1986). Any difference in needs and motivations are reflected in ritualized and instrumental television use (Kim & Rubin, 1997).

Ritualistic and instrumental viewing motives

Ritualized and instrumental viewing motives are explaining the amount and type of media use as well as a person's attitudes and expectations (Bryant & Zillmann, 2002). Greenberg (1974) was one of the first scholars to develop a TV-viewing motivation test but Alan Rubin (1984) is credited with the coining of instrumental and ritualistic media use. A **<u>ritualistic</u>** viewer is a *habitual* viewer (Rubin, 1984) and as such repeatedly referred to as a *couch potato* (Becker, 1995). Ritualized viewers watch TV frequently and use TV as a diversion. The ritualistic viewer watches TV for many different reasons (Perse, 1990a) such as for ***habit, passing time, companionship, relaxation, arousal,*** and ***escape***. The ritualistic viewer is characterized as **nonselective** and a less active TV user (Rubin, 1984). In addition, ritualistic viewing focuses more on using TV as a medium and less on the specific program content (Rubin 1983, 1984; Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982a). Habitual viewing entails a greater affinity with the medium (Rubin, 1979; 2002) and it leads to more pre-exposure activities to select favorite TV shows (Levy, 1978; Lin, 1993).

An **<u>instrumental</u>** viewer is *selective* and *purposive* in watching TV *content*. Viewers are inclined for ***goal-directed*** gratifications such as ***information-seeking*** (Rubin, 1984; Auter, Arafa & Al-Jaber, 2005). All goal-directed behavior can be interpreted as maximizing pleasure (Gross & Thomson, 2007 in Gross, 2007). The uses and gratifications studies support the idea that instrumental TV use is a more active and involving viewing experience (Perse, 1998; Rubin, 1984; Rubin & Perse, 1987a). Instrumental TV use is linked to more intentional planning to watch specific programs, with greater attention to program content and greater use of program guides, less channel changing, more cognitive and affective involvement with programs, more positive emotional responses to programs (Perse, 1990a, 1998; Perse & Ferguson, 2003) and increased post-exposure activity (Perse, 1990a, 1990b, 1998; Rubin, 1984; Rubin & Perse, 1987a). Purposeful viewing motives tend to be associated with developmental factors (Chandler, 1995). Watching TV for instrumental purposes includes learning about the world and managing mood (Rubin, 1984). It is also related to watching news, talk shows and documentaries (Perse, 1990a; Rubin, 1984). In addition, viewing for entertainment and relaxation can also been coupled with instrumental orientation for television. So let's take a closer look at Rubin's (1984) nine television-viewing motives, which are listed and briefly defined below.

1) Habit motive

The Greek philosopher Aristotle (384 - 322 B.C.) wrote that habit can ease many of the discomforts of life and it is a quality that is difficult to change (Ackrill, 2001). Aristotle noted that hard study and intense effort are painful because they involve constraint, but the pain melts away into pleasantness when these burdens become habitual (Garver, 1995). As Aristotle (in Ackrill, 2001: p.217) quoted: "We are what we repeatedly do. Excellence then, is not an act, but a habit". The psychologist William James wrote an entire book called *Principles of Psychology* on habit. He said that habit reduces many actions into automatic responses that require no intellectual energy (Green, 2000). Lull (1980) and Selberg (1993) have suggested that watching TV is a form of modern ritual. Adams (2000) studied various backgrounds and demographics of viewers and found that about 80% of the viewers stated that TV-viewing was habitual. However, it turned out that the majority of habitual viewers meant that they already knew the schedule and what programs were on TV at particular times and due to this the viewers tended to tune in with a particular program in mind (Adams, 2000). Habitual consumption is dispositional (Rosengren, 1994) and it relates to deeper psychological structures, which are influenced by social features such as media structures, social position as age or gender and the basic value orientation of the individual. Already children report that ritualized daily routines are associated with TV-viewing (Kennedy et al., 2002). This finding is important in the early establishment of health behaviors and research on habits has shown that changing negative habits, especially those experienced as pleasurable and rewarding, is much more difficult than establishing positive habits (Maddux & DuCharme, 1997 in Gochman, 1997). The number of reasons for watching TV differs according to the time, program, with whom the viewer is watching the program, and what other options are available, which implies a habitual or ritualistic purpose (Chandler, 1994). Habit or ritual can be a driving force in routine, day-to-day activities (Beatty & Kahle, 1988).

2) Pass time motive

Numerous studies confirm that people often turn to TV in order to pass time and to fill unstructured time (Abelman, Atkin & Rand, 1997; Compesi, 1980; Conway & Rubin, 1991; Downs & Javidi, 1990; Kim & Rubin, 1997; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi,

1990a; Lee & Browne, 1981; Lichtenstein & Rosenfeld, 1984; Lin, 1993; Payne, Severn, & Dozier, 1988; Perse & Rubin, 1988; Rubin, 1979, 1981, 1983, 1984; Rubin & Perse, 1987a; Stanford, 1984; Towers, 1985, 1986; Vincent & Basil, 1997). Shows provide an opportunity for the viewer to satisfy their needs for social reasons and to kill-time (Garrett, 2006). As Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi (2002, p.50) noted "television is the world's most popular pastime. On average, individuals in the industrialized world devote three hours a day to the pursuit—half their leisure time and more than any single activity except for work and sleep". Changing channels increases the pastime gratifications of TV-viewing (Perse & Ferguson, 1993, 2003). Users of traditional entertainment products usually seek an enjoyable experience without aspiring too much or investing too much of their energy and ambition (Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004). People have an increasingly intolerance for unstructured time (Kubey, 1996 in MacBeth, 1996). Leisure time can be problematic as Sándor Ferenczi (1950) observed and concluded in the form of what he called *Sunday neurosis*, which he characterized as an increase in physical symptoms and anxiety in psychiatric patients on their day off. That's when people turn to television. Boyns & Stephenson (2003) have affirmed that people are often not aware of how time passes away while watching TV. Yet, what we consider to be a good leisure is dependent on our culture and the society we are living in (Zillmann & Bryant, 1986). Every human being favors some leisure activity and for some it may be to engage in sports or reading. Nowadays for the majority of people, leisure means to watch TV. Whether this is positive or negative in the long run for the individual and the society has yet to be determined. Let's just say that our society has a strong tendency to become a sitting one and people prefer to pass their time by watching TV (Kubey & Csikszentmihaly, 1990b).

3) Relaxation motive

Research indicates that watching television is perceived as relaxing (Becker, 1995; Compesi, 1980; Lee & Browne, 1981; Lichtenstein & Rosenfeld, 1984; Kubey, 1986; Rubin, 1979, 1981, 1983, 1984; Zillmann, 1991 in Bryant & Zillmann, 1991). People like to relax in front of the telly (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999) and "TV-viewing is experienced as the most relaxing of all activities" (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b: p.81). Research indicates that TV-viewing is used primarily for relaxation and entertainment followed by passing time and obtaining information (Conway & Rubin, 1991; Ferguson &

Perse, 2000; Angelman, 2000). Studies confirm that the initial benefit from television is to experience relaxation (Kubey, 1986, 1996; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990a; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). Thus, TV-viewing induces relaxation. People often relax in front of the TV after a hard day at work and they also prefer to relax in front of the telly at mealtimes and late evenings (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). British adults aged 25-44 years were more likely to use TV for relaxation on a regular basis and out of their 35 hours of free time, they spent an average of 23 hours per week watching TV. Due to this, people value television as an opportunity to relax (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999) and the hallmark of TV-viewing is relaxation without involvement or effort (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b). There is consensus regarding the relaxation effect of television viewing among TV-advocates and TV-opponents (Fowles, 1992).

4) Companionship motive

Some people who spend much time alone turn to the telly almost as if it is a *friend*, and these people rely on the companionship that television provides (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). TV takes a certain role in our life and we will associate feelings and memories with it, just as if we would consider it as a friend. Especially elderly, isolated and unemployed people use the media as a *substitute* for real life friends (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999; Gunter & Svennevig; 1987; McQuail, 2000). They may even interact with their favorite soap characters by talking to the telly and some viewers go even so far as to send sorry wreaths to the TV station when a favorite soap opera figure has died. Kubey's (1986) confirmed that television is able to provide a quantum of solace for people in a bad patch. Hardly anybody notices the gradual shift when TV crosses the line from being a companion to intruder (Osborn, 2002). Gabriel Salomon (1984) stated that TV is an integral part of our culture and especially children have to be taught how to use it properly. People talk about TV figures as if we knew them, and TV programs reflect our lives and our problems so that TV is indeed a member of the family. It keeps us company when we are alone, it entertains us when we have nothing to do, and it helps us to relax after a hard day's work. People use the flickering screen very frequently as a secondary activity when they are talking, smoking, doing chores, reading, cleaning and during mealtime (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b). Mainly singles reported to watch TV in lieu of company when dining. Many studies have

linked TV-viewing to loneliness (Rubin, Perse & Powell, 1985; Perse & Rubin, 1990). TV-viewing not only makes people feel less lonely but also "that they are in good company" (Boyns & Stephenson, 2003: p.24). Thus, people value television as a form of companionship (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999).

5) Arousal motive

Watching television can be thrilling and exciting (Rubin, 1983). Achieving heightened mental activity could have a variety of potential implications, for instance it may be associated to effect attention growth to media content and learning from programs. Arousal, which is linked to images (especially large images on new high-tech screens), may lead to greater emotional responses to programs, so that sporting events may become more exciting and tear-jerkers may become more heart-wrenching (Perse, 1990, 1998; Perse & Ferguson, 2003). The arousal motive for viewing includes elements of drama in the TV, excitement or suspense (Mead, 2003) although arousal by TV itself is not required in order to have an influence on people's behavior. Increased arousal levels are often related to watching violent program as measured by galvanic skin response and heart rate (Zillmann, 1996 in Vorderer, Wulff & Friedrichsen, 1996). Especially larger TV screens may elicit the orienting response and stimulate more arousal (Perse & Ferguson, 2003). The arousal motive is often combined with the entertainment motive in the literature.

6) Entertainment motive

Television is nowadays the major source of entertainment (Turck, 2004). Lichtenstein and Rosenfeld's (1984) study of college students revealed that the gratification to be entertained ranked number one in importance for choosing what to view. Being entertained is very frequently the only reason to turn on the set and viewers find the experience of being entertained *rewarding* (Klimmt, Hartmann & Schramm, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). According to Zillmann & Bryant (1986) gratification, or entertainment experiences, are effects! A person is seeking or maybe even chasing entertainment as a primary effect and also for its entailing benefits (op.cit.). Existing research has shown that entertainment is the main factor for watching TV (Abelman, 1987; Abelman, Atkin, & Rand, 1997; Babrow & Swanson, 1988; Bantz, 1982;

Compesi, 1980; Conway & Rubin, 1991; Johnston, 1995; Kim & Rubin, 1997; Kippax & Murray, 1980; Lee & Browne, 1981; Lin, 1993; Perse, 1990a; Perse & Rubin, 1988; Rubin, 1979, 1981, 1983, 1984; Rubin & Perse, 1987a; Vincent & Basil, 1997; Wenner, 1982). Entertainment is often used to imply *enjoyment* (Bosshart & Macconi, 1998), attraction (Cantor, 1998; Krcmar & Greene, 1999; Sparks & Sparks, 2000), and preference (Tamborini & Stiff, 1987; Weaver, 1991). Media enjoyment has been studied across many genres including sports (Bryant, Comisky, & Zillmann, 1981; Gantz & Wenner, 1995), children's programs (Valkenburg, Cantor & Peeters, 2000), violent entertainment (Krcmar & Greene, 1999; Krcmar & Kean, 2004; Slater, 2003), horror movies (Johnston, 1995) and tear-jerkers (Oliver, 1993; Oliver, Weaver & Sargent, 2000). Media enjoyment as a dependent variable is determined by stable personality traits (Babocsay; 2002; Conway & Rubin, 1991; Kósa & Vajda, 1998; Krcmar & Greene, 1999; Slater, 2003), transient moods (Knobloch & Zillmann, 2002; Zillmann, 1988), and program characteristics (Vorderer & Knobloch, 2000; Wakshlag, Reitz & Zillmann, 1982). Both positive and negative emotions are contributing to enjoyment (Oliver, 1993; Nabi & Krcmar, 2004). However, little is known about what it actually means to enjoy media programs (Zillmann, 2003 in Bryant, Roskos-Ewoldsen & Cantor, 2003; Bosshart & Macconi, 1998, Raney, 2003; Vorderer, 2000). According to Vorderer (2001) entertainment is a form of *play* because it shares the most important characteristics with play. It is intrinsically motivated and highly attractive, it implies a change in perceived reality, and it is frequently repeated (Oerter, 1999; Rubin, Fein & Vandenberg, 1983; Vorderer, 2001; Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004; Miron, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). This gives a possible answer to the question why viewers are willing to spend so much time with the telly (Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004). People get a great deal of pleasure from TV (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999) and people who are intrinsically motivated are acting for the satisfaction inherent in the behavior (Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Viewers who are seeking entertainment are usually doing this for its own sake (Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004) and most human beings prefer to choose an activity that brings first of all satisfaction. Watching TV is rewarding because entertainment fulfills the three fundamental needs of *competence, autonomy* and *relatedness* (Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). The feeling of competence when viewing is guaranteed without much effort. Autonomy is achieved because others do not force the viewing activity, while relatedness is attained because

viewing gives us a sense of being in touch with somebody (Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). As Jonathan Cohen (2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006: p.183) of Haifa University noted "it is not the mere exposure to media entertainment that we enjoy, but the ability of entertainment content to distract us from ourselves and to reveal to us novel and exciting experiences of others. By allowing us to share in the lives of others, entertainment can excite and educate us...in ways we may not otherwise have a chance to experience". So, enjoying TV-viewing reflects a multi-faceted experience. A missing point between entertainment and uses and gratifications approach is that entertainment is treated as an indirect outcome (Nabi & Krcmar, 2004). Nevertheless people can learn more about the world from TV than from school and if there was no more TV then some people would miss it dreadfully (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999).

7) Escape motive

TV-viewing has often been identified as a resource of escape (Abelman, 1987; Abelman, Atkin, & Rand, 1997; Canary & Spitzberg, 1993; Compesi, 1980; Conway & Rubin, 1991; Finn & Gorr, 1988; Kim & Rubin, 1997; Kippax & Murray, 1980; Lee & Browne, 1981; Levy, 1978; Lichtenstein & Rosenfeld, 1984; Lull, 1980; Pearlin, 1959; Rubin & Perse, 1987a; Vincent & Basil, 1997). The perception of TV viewers is that television is the best to meet their need for escape (Rubin, 1984). One possible motive for seeking entertaining programs may be that the viewers have a momentary interest to escape from the social world in which they actually live (Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004). TV-viewing is frequently described as an escape from reality and at the same time as a connection to alternative realities (Cohen, 2005). The U & G literature supports the idea that TV-viewing serves the purpose of escape or distraction (Rubin, 1984; Perse & Rubin, 1988; Klimmt, Hartmann & Schramm, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Heavy viewers rely more on TV-viewing to forget unpleasant thoughts and to fill time (McIlwraith, 1998). TV is an easy access medium (Salomon, 1984), which has made a huge impact on our home life over the past 50 years. It is a real attraction because it has the power to enhance life or detract from it (Gibson, 2007). If we want to detract from life then TV-viewing can serve the important role of escaping from the self (Baumeister, 1991). Personality variables such as life satisfaction and stress are predictors of escapist TV use (Henning & Vorderer, 2001).

8) Information-seeking motive

Viewers are strongly motivated to seek information from TV (Perse & Ferguson, 2003). TV is a good source for information about daily life (Perse & Courtright, 1993). Zillmann (2000 in Roloff, 2000) suggested that informational sources may be sought to help coping with emotional states. Indeed, this position is supported by studies demonstrating that TV news are sought to gain information during and after national crises for instance like the space shuttle disaster (Kubey & Peluso, 1990) and September 11 (Nabi et al., 2006). This is also valid for surpassing daily obstacles as a recent study (Gibson, 2007) has shown in which people in our mobile society turn to TV shows for information on what constitutes for example a good marriage as projected in the living room screen. Prior research has shown that the information-seeking motive is driving viewers to watch TV (Abelman, Atkin & Rand, 1997; Babrow & Swanson, 1988; Bantz, 1982; Canary & Spitzberg, 1993; Conway & Rubin, 1991; Gantz, 1978; Kippax & Murray, 1980; Lee & Browne, 1981; Levy, 1978; Lichtenstein & Rosenfeld, 1984; Lin, 1993; Payne, Severn & Dozier, 1988; Perse & Rubin, 1988; Rubin, 1979, 1981, 1983, 1984; Rubin & Perse, 1987b; Stanford, 1984; Towers, 1985, 1986; Vincent & Basil, 1997; Walker & Bellamy, 1991; Wenner, 1982). Especially cable TV is satisfying the information-seeking need because general and specialized information are better available (Perse & Courtright, 1993). Rubin (1983, 1984) showed that age and instrumental TV use are positively correlated. Rubin and Perse (1987b) found that the information-seeking motive was positively associated with cognitive involvement that dealt with thinking about and discussing news. Useful information is provided for instance by watching a social drama as ER (Emergency Room), which depicts stories similar to real-life and the program is therefore emotionally engaging (Shah, 1998). The viewer gets the opportunity to observe media figures interacting socially (Perse & R. Rubin, 1989) and can compare his or her ability and behavior with that of the media figures (Perse, 1986). Thus, watching a favorite show or soap opera is linked to more instrumental or goal-directed involvement (Rubin & Perse, 1987a).

9) Social interaction motive

Viewers appear to look at television to find social utility (Babrow, 1989; Bantz, 1982; Compesi, 1980; Kim & Rubin, 1997; Levy, 1978; Lichtenstein & Rosenfeld, 1984;

Lin, 1993; Payne, Severn & Dozier, 1988; Perse, 1990a; Perse & Rubin, 1988; Rubin, 1981, 1983; Towers, 1985, 1986; Wenner, 1982). TV-viewing can be a disruptive factor and source of friction (Ling & Thrane, 2002) but most of the time it is a social activity (Boyns & Stephenson, 2003) in which media messages often provide common ground for interacting and talking with others (Chandler, 1994). Television enables people to socialize and it gives opportunities for talking by providing an easy topic of conversation (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). For instance at a party, TV may be used to entertain the guests and it can be the initiator for nice chit-chat. Thus, everybody is able to talk about TV programs and some talk more about programs than others. As reported by Ellen Seiter and colleagues "most viewers report that they have made it a habit to rely on other people in order to compensate for gaps in their comprehension" (Seiter, Borchers, Kreutzner & Warth 1989: p.233). Social interaction is frequent during TV-viewing (Schmitt, Woolf & Anderson, 2003). Ann Gray (1992) found that the pleasure of TV serials stems from the possibility to *gossip* about it on the following day. In fact, TV characters have replaced neighbours as topics of gossip (Fowles, 1992). Making connections with people and talking about TV belongs to our social life. This kind of talking in return helps to create a stronger bond with television itself and by this again TV creates a ***shared cultural reference point*** (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Ordinary conversation is a primary mechanism of routine reality maintenance. People keep their subjective universe in recognizable shape by constantly talking about it. When we exchange knowledge about TV shows, it is *valuable* because it helps to connect and to integrate us with our fellow human beings because what is familiar is *predictable* (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b). Even psychotherapists can use TV shows as a convenient entry point for troubled patients. Some patients are highly resistant in discussing their private lives but can begin psychotherapy by referring to TV figures. The therapist can work from the program back to the individual's problems. This approach works on one-on-one basis as well as in group sessions, where all patients can watch the same episode and then use it for discussing their own feelings and behavior (Fowles, 1992). Herbert Bausinger (1984) declared the objective of media use is its function of close interpersonal interaction. TV is an important and beautiful object (Silverstone, 1994) and it can be a social device because chairs and sofas are usually positioned around it (Ling & Thrane, 2002) so that the position of the telly is relevant (Lindloff, Shatzer & Wilkinson, 1988; Morley, 1992).

2.3 Uses and gratifications model

There are many models in mass communication theory, but I would like to explore in depth the uses and gratifications approach because it fits best to my research. Why does it match? The uses and gratifications (U & G) model is a "psychological communication perspective" (Rubin, 2002 in Bryant & Zillmann, 2002: p.526), which intends to clarify the purpose of media use for people and the society. It has always been a cutting-edge model for why people use the mass media such as radio, newspaper, TV and nowadays the Internet (Ruggiero, 2000). The U & G approach answers questions about motives for TV-viewing and explains how motives for viewing are influenced by psychological and socio-cultural factors (Severin & Tankard, 1997). This approach is proposing for many years now that people repeatedly turn to mass media and especially television for escape and entertainment while the U & G model is still asking the same questions (Ruggiero, 2000) like why are people using the media and what are they gaining from it (McQuail, 2001). The uses and gratifications approach is helpful as an exploratory paradigm for media knowledge in this doctoral dissertation, particularly in the field where little empirical data exists about how television use and coping mechanisms are interrelated.

The U & G model, also referred to as needs and gratifications approach, began in the 1940's and underwent a revival in the 1970's and 1980's. Herta Herzog (1944) became interested in the reasons for listening to radio soap operas and found that women gratify three uses such as getting advice, expressing emotions and wishful thinking. People are usually active in choosing diverse media to satisfy their needs (Infante, Rancer & Womack, 1997; Lowery & De Fleur, 1995). The main research goals during the 1970's was to identify the motives for viewing and to explain how media use is gratifying social and psychological needs by developing media typologies (Katz et al., 1973). These typologies are still used to explain media consumption (Rubin, 2002). McQuail, Blumler and Brown (1972 in McQuail, 1972) created a **typology of media-person interactions** of four gratifications obtained from viewing media content, which are:

(1) **Diversion** – emotional release and escape from routines or problems

(2) **Personal Relationships** – media serves with information and companionship

(3) **Personal Identity –** value reinforcement, self-understanding and exploring reality

(4) **Surveillance** – acquiring information and news

The typologies or motives for television viewing refer to the connection between goals and outcomes and the complexities of media uses and effects (Rubin, 2002). A practical advantage of typology theory is that it helps to relate new variables to certain television uses (Weimann, Brosius & Wober, 1992). A study about Israeli TV viewers made by Katz, Gurevitch and Haas (1973) suggested that mass media could be seen as a way in which people connect or disconnect with others. The authors (op.cit) developed 35 needs taken from studies on social and psychological purposes of the mass media and placed them into five categories:

(1) **Cognitive needs** - acquiring information, knowledge and understanding

(2) **Affective needs** - emotion, pleasure, feelings

(3) **Personal integrative needs** - credibility, stability, status

(4) **Social integrative needs** - family and friends

(5) **Tension release needs** - escape and diversion

Viewers have social and psychological needs, which produce expectations about the mass media, which in turn will result in different viewing patterns as well as in the gratification of these needs (Blumler & Katz, 1974). The author affirmed Media use can gratify social or psychological needs of people and the same media content may gratify different needs for different individuals (Blumler & Katz, 1974). An even more elaborate model of human psychological motives is provided by McGuire (1974 in Blumler & Katz, 1974: p.171) who noted that "there seems to be virtually innumerable ways of slicing up conceptually the reality space of human motives". His research suggests a 16 cell motivational matrix based on four psychological dimensions with bipolar opposites including *initiation* (active vs. passive); *orientation* (internal vs. external); *mode* (cognitive vs. affective); and *stability* (preservation vs. growth). The motives are grouped according to cognitive and affective motives and according to McGuire (1974 in Blumler & Katz, 1974: p.173) "the cognitive motives stress the person's information processing and attainment of ideational states, while the affective motives stress the person's feelings and attainment of certain emotional states". McGuire (op.cit.) offered several suggestions for using the motivational matrix within the U & G approach. However, there is only a limited amount of empirical studies that matches these

motives with actual media gratifications (Conway & Rubin, 1991 Lin, 1996).

Previous empirical investigations within the U & G model have typically involved participants to complete a questionnaire about why they are watching a TV program. This data collection procedure has not changed much and Denis McQuail (2000) offered the following **typology** of common **reasons for media use**:

➢ **Information** – to find advice on practical matters about daily life and problems

➢ **Personal identity** – to gain self-insight, to find role models and identify with values

➢ **Integration and social interaction** – to find social interaction and belongingness, to identify with media figures and having substitute companions, to connect with society

➢ **Entertainment** – to escape and divert from problems, to pastime, to find relaxation, emotional release and sexual arousal

This U & G model assumes active and reflective viewers who are making motivated choices (McQuail, 2000) in which psychological and social needs are satisfied by the choice of the individual for genre preference and different uses of media types. "People have reasons for using technologies and media. They have needs and they derive satisfaction from fulfilling them as best they can" (Svennevig, 2000: p.657). McQuail's typology helped to organize the motives for media use and addressed the social implications of media use such as using the media as a source of content for interpersonal communication with others (McQuail, 2000). The uses and gratifications approach still focuses on different individual and social aspects for the public media use (Svennevig, 2000). Other methods used in the U & G approach include an ethnographic research by James Lull (1980, 1990), who was one of the first American sociologists to apply observations of routine behaviors to family viewing practices. Lull (1990) concluded that there are two primary types of <u>**social uses of television**</u>. First, the *structural uses* of TV can act as an *environmental* source or background noise (e.g. for companionship), and it can also act as a *regulative* source of time and activity. Second, the *relational uses* of TV are far more complex. This means that TV can act as a *facilitator of communication* and it can also act as an *affiliation or avoidance*, meaning that it can bring the family together or can create conflict (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). The relational uses also contain the *social learning* in which problems are solved by enhancing decision-making processes by modeling behavior and transmitting values. Finally, TV can act as *competence* and *dominance* factor by enacting and reinforcing roles and facilitating arguments. Lull's (1990) research may

be seen as a micro-sociological modification to the sharp focus in uses and gratifications on a person's individual needs since Lull places the family directly at the centre. In other words, wide ranges of human social-psychological needs are gratified by the social and situational use of the media, since the media is used as communicative resource for the family. Lull's typology theory regarding the structural and relational TV uses is comparable to McQuail's (2000) integration and social interaction in which television is a kind of companion. "It is a companion for accomplishing household chores and routines and used for background noise as an environmental resource" (Lull 1990: p.35). People, who live alone or feel lonely, may find that by watching TV they don't feel so lonely anymore. This again is similar to McQuail's (op.cit) idea that TV is a good variable to create interaction and entertainment.

An additional interesting typology taking a person's viewing habits and interests into account was researched in a groundbreaking work of the marketing experts Ronald Frank and Marshall Greenberg (1980), who followed a different perspective in the U & G research by relating media use to different lifestyles. Their work focused not on demographic variables but rather on how TV-viewing is fitting into the leisure time of people while also considering other free time activity choices such as going to movies and sport events or reading magazines and newspapers. Frank & Greenberg (1980) established an association between viewing habits and other leisure interests. To put it another way as later postulated by Spier (2003) *people are what they watch and people watch what they are*. The study of Frank & Greenberg (1980) identified several reasons of people for using TV and explains how watching TV helps to fulfill unmet needs. The authors (op.cit) showed that people use many media to gratify their needs for entertainment and information. The authors (op.cit.) introduced a psychological profile of viewers, including 14 media types or viewer groups. It would take too much space to describe all 14 media types, so it may be suffice to state that such a typology exists and that the uses and gratifications model can be extended far beyond demographical variables. These are the different kinds of typologies and methods applied in the U & G approach. The most common used methods are the self-report motive scales (Rubin, 2002) followed by experimental research (Bryant & Zillmann, 1984) and ethnographic methods (Lull, 1980).

U & G model assumptions

The U & G model had first three assumptions (Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch, 1974; Rosengren, 1974) but it has been revised since then (e.g. Palmgreen 1984 in Bostrom, 1984; Rubin, 1994) and the main five objectives of the U & G approach are: first, TV viewers *actively seek out media to gratify individual needs* (Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch, 1974; Pingree, Hawkins, Johnsson-Smaragdi, Rosengren & Reynolds, 1991). Second, TV viewers display a *purposive* and *goal-directed* behavior. In other words, the focus is on *how* and *why* people use a particular media to satisfy their needs rather than on focusing on its content. In contrast to the media effects model, which is asking *what media do to people*, the U & G has a broader approach by asking *what people do with the media*, which permits diverse interpretations (Gauntlett, 1995). The U & G approach has shown to be an effective empirical model for understanding why people use media and the benefits derived from such uses (Chandler, 1995). Third, the emphasis of U & G researchers is to *discover* the *motives* of individuals for using the media (Giles, 2003; Leung, 2001). However, some critics believe that gratifications may also be seen as effects for instance thrillers are likely to produce very similar responses among most viewers. Fourth, TV-viewing and our surrounding help to *shape the needs* and expectations of viewers about the media (Chandler, 1995). Fifth, TV-viewing may influence how people rely on the media because it may influence the cultural, social, political and economical facets of society (Rubin & Windahl, 1986).

Audience activity

Audience activity is a central concept in the uses and gratifications approach (Rubin, 2002) because it assumes a *conscious*, *goal-directed* and *active* audience who are motivated to make choices based on previous experience with the media as well as on the gratifications that they expect (Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch, 1974; McQuail & Windahl, 1993; Perse & Rubin, 1990; Perse & Ferguson, 2003; Rubin, 2002; Rubin & R. Rubin, 1985). Shapiro (1995) argued that TV-viewing is a complex psychological task and even watching a seemingly mindless program requires from the viewer to keep track of plots in order to be entertained or distracted. There are two opposite standpoints in television research. On one hand, viewers are characterized as *passive*, controlled by the content and scheduling structures (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan &

Signorielli, 1986 in Bryant & Zillmann, 1986; Goodhardt, Ehrenberg & Collins, 1987; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b; Webster & Wakshlag, 1983), and that TV-viewing seems to casually fill unoccupied time (Kubey, 1986). In contrast, patterns of TV-viewing are not standardized and watching TV is not a passive activity at all (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Here, viewers are characterized as *active* in fulfilling their own individual needs and making their own interpretations (Dervin, 1980; Livingstone, 1998). Greatest satisfaction is reported by the most active viewers (Lin, 1993). However, viewers are not universally or equally active at all times (Bryant & Zillmann, 2002; Rubin, 1984) and the dichotomy of active-passive is anyway misleading and irrelevant (Shanahan & Morgan, 1999; Gerbner et al., 2002 in Bryant & Zillmann, 2002). People are born into a world with TV since it is a mainstream activity and they will use it as their major vehicle of cultural participation (Gerbner et al., 2002 in Bryant & Zillmann, 2002). The audience activity model is relevant since it explains differences in the gratification of social and psychological needs that viewers get from TV exposure (Levy & Windahl, 1984). Motivation is directly influencing audience activity (Perse, 1998), which in general refers to the *selectivity*, *involvement* and *utility* of the viewer with the media (Blumler, 1979; Bryant & Zillmann, 2002). This two-dimensional model of audience activity was developed by Levy and Windahl (1984). The typology created includes a qualitative interaction of viewers with media content and a time consideration (temporal dimension) of the viewer with the media (Levy & Windahl, 1984). The first, *qualitative* dimension exemplifies three types of activities: (a) *selectivity*, which defines how purposely viewers choose media and their content; (b) *involvement*, or the degree to which viewers personally relate to media content; and (c) *utility*, which describes how useful media and their content are to viewers. The second, *temporal* component, posits activity as occurring: (a) *before exposure*, selecting media content; (b) *during exposure*, psychological attentiveness and personal involvement with the medium; and (c) *after exposure*, behavior takes place after viewing such as discussion or reflection. This two-dimensional typology reveals that viewers display different types and amounts of activities in different communication contexts and at different times in the communication process (Levy & Windahl, 1984). If activity is variable, then different ways of being active contribute to different outcomes (Kim & Rubin, 1997; McQuail & Windahl (1993). These broad categories are useful in describing the viewing patterns of audiences in today's media environment (Perse, 1990b). According to Rubin (1984), the categories of *ritualized*

and instrumental viewing are two other types of viewing behavior that encompasses different levels of activity explained by motives for media use. This research paper relies mainly on Rubin's concept. As already mentioned before, ritualized TV watching is a more important viewing experience, while instrumental TV watching is a more involving viewing experience (Rubin, 1984). This is similar to the qualitative dimension of audience activity by Levy & Windahl (1984) that posited a varying quality of media use by the audience. Therefore, in order to understand how people use TV programs for *coping*, it was important to look at audience activity from a ritualistic and instrumental viewpoint because as Rubin (1984) argued audience activity is variable and individuals use media ritualistically or instrumentally depending on situational demands. As for young adults, TV-viewing can be a great source of entertainment, information and social interaction. Young adults have around 40 hours of free time per week and this suggests that after socializing and watching TV, there is little time left for pursuing other leisure activities (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999).

Critics of uses and gratifications

One criticism of the U & G model is that it consists of several theories (Blumler, 1979; McQuail & Windahl, 1993). Critics say that self-report questionnaires are used within the U & G research and reporting about own behavior may not always be reliable or valid (Infante et al., 1997). Defining and measuring gratification is difficult because it is audience-oriented rather than researcher-oriented (Becker, 1995; Reimer, 1997). Further, gratification is not media specific and this implies that the viewer can receive gratification from any medium (Becker, 1995). Needs, motives and gratifications have often been used interchangeably within the U & G literature and this has somewhat resulted in ambiguous concept use of key constructs associated with the underlying psychological mechanisms behind media use (McQuail & Windahl, 1993; Swanson, 1977, 1987). The overstatement of active choices from which viewers obtain gratification regardless of which programs they prefer has been criticized (Blumler, 1979). Another weakness in the U & G research is its failure to consider media content more fully (Henningham, 1985). Other critics have stressed the lack of cultural and societal relations for media use (Elliott, 1974 in Blumler & Katz, 1974), meaning that the U & G model focuses too narrowly on the individual and neglects the social structure and place of the media in that structure (Severin and Tankard, 2001).

2.4 Determinants of media use

Television brings virtually *everyone* into a *shared national culture* (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, Signorielli & Shanahan, 2002 in Bryant & Zillmann, 2002). Media has the trend to become **mythic**. The French philosopher Roland Barthes (1981) used this word and meant by it that we have the tendency to see things that we created by ourselves as given by God. We look at these things, as they would be part of the natural order. Cars, aircrafts, newspaper and television have all reached a mythical status because they are perceived as given by nature, and not as objects, which are based on a specific political and historical event. When a technology becomes mythic, it gets dangerous because nobody questions it, and it's difficult to change it (Fröhlich, 1995). TV-viewing is usually assessed by the **amount of time** spent with the medium on an average day (Bryant & Zillmann, 2002). Further by its context, content and what kind of **relationships** people may have towards the medium. The topic of media context and content is omitted in this research paper because I'm neither focusing on the TV environment nor on TV genres. The focus is more on the amount of viewing, the motives for TV-viewing and what kind of involvement (media relationship) a person is engaging in when watching the telly.

Amount of media usage

People spend different amount of time with watching TV. Some may spent on average 3 hours watching television each day while there may be others who turn on their TV sets for less than 1 hour a day or for more than 8 hours a day. Thus, the amount of TV-viewing differs greatly from individual to society and what is leading to these differences in viewing amount remains unsolved (Henning & Vorderer, 2001; Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004). This is a scientific gap in the literature and solving this issue may take a few more years. The amount of TV-viewing can be predicted from viewing motives such as entertainment, habit, and pass time motives, which increase viewing quantity (Rubin & Rubin, 1982b). The general amount of viewing follows the lifestyle of the viewer and viewing decision depends more on the clock than on the program (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, Signorielli & Shanahan, 2002 in Bryant & Zillmann, 2002). Within these days, TV-viewing is the most important medium and people will continuously watch more TV as technologies improve and

make broadcasting non-stop available (Gibson, 2007). The present study consisted of a sample of University students living in 5 different countries. I would like to introduce each country in this section by mentioning some key facts about each country as well as their average daily TV-viewing time (see Table 1). As can be seen in the Table 1 below, Americans watch the most closely followed by Hungarians. Israeli viewers are in the middle while Norwegians watch a tiny bit more than Swiss, who ranked lowest in the amount of TV-viewing.

Table 1: Actual TV use according to countries

	America	**Hungary**	**Israel**	**Norway**	**Switzerland**
Population size	302 630 000	10 064 000	7 184 000	4 770 000	7 508 700
Amount of TV-viewing*	**4 h 32 min**	**4 h 31 min**	**3 h 17 min**	**2 h 28 min**	**2 h 27 min**

Source: Wikipedia (2007)
Source*: Mediametrie (2007)

According to the Mediametrie (2007), which gathers information about TV-viewing worldwide, the average **American** household is goggling at the box for an average of 8 hours and 11 minutes every day while the average person in the USA is watching for 4 hours and 32 minutes. TV-viewing occupies more of the typical American's time than any other activity such as sleeping and working (Bryant & Bryant, 2001). The University of California in Los Angeles (UCLA, 2003) reported that TV-viewing fills half of the leisure time of American males and females. According to their survey, TV-viewing ranked third in leisure time use behind sleeping and work. Furthermore, Americans watch more TV than using the Internet (UCLA, 2003) and they are considered to be heavy TV viewers who watch more than four hours a day (Kubey, 1986). The fact sheets about American television shows that 99 % of US households possess at least one TV. 66% of Americans regularly watch TV while eating dinner. 49% say that they watch too much TV and only 1% of the U.S. population says that they don't watch television at all. Even the TV Turnoff Network organization remarked that they have only 20 TV-free families in their database (Currey-Wilson, 2007).

The most recent public trend surveys prove that television viewing is in the top 3 lists of leisure activities in **Hungary** (TÀRKI Research Institute, 2004). A survey in 2006 revealed that 3 out of 10 Hungarians say that their lives would be incomplete without

TV. The average time of watching TV is gradually increasing since 1990. In 2004, Hungarian viewers spent on average more than 33 hours per week in front of the telly (European Journalism Centre, 2007). Television has remained the most significant source of entertainment and information, especially for those who do not use the Internet (ITTK, 2007; TÁRKI Research Institute, 2004). Another interesting point may be that Hungary and Israel are considered to be more collectivistic countries according to Hofstede and Hofstede (2004) in which Hungary reached (55 points) and Israel reached (54 points) while America (91 points), Switzerland (68 points) and Norway (69 points) are more individualistic. Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) explained collectivistic societies as putting more emphasis on group welfare including family security and honoring elders, whereas in individualistic cultures the emphasis is more on encouraging individual goals including exciting life and independence. Research in Central and Eastern Europe have emphasized the strength of friendships among adolescence and the young (Shlapentokh, 1998) and in an analysis of Newspaper representations in Hungary, it was shown that the Hungarian media emphasized the significance of close family relations and friendships (Goodwin, 1999). Different cultural and social factors are said to produce different needs and gratifications and consequently different motives for using the mass media (Marghalani, Palmgreen & Boyd, 1998).

In **Israel**, the average daily viewing time is 3 hours 17 minutes (Mediametrie, 2007). In 1970, 55% of the Israelis preferred to watch information first, entertainment second, and culture third while in a follow-up survey in 1990 Israeli viewers ranked both information and entertainment highest with each 43% (Katz, Gurevitch & Haas, 1973; Katz, Haas & Gurevitch, 1997). Television is nowadays standing on the second place with books or cinema (Katz, Haas & Gurevitch, 1997). Israel is considered to have both collectivistic and modernized Western traditions (Sagy, Orr & Bar-on, 1999). The importance in family and the collective value in times of peace or trouble have been hallmarks of Jewish life (Katriel, 1991). It is common practice in Israel to have strong and frequent contact to parents and even living near them after marriage is not usual (Peres & Katz, 1981). Though a gradual change toward more individualistic values has occurred during the last two decades, Israel can still be characterized as a culture with a collectivistic orientation (Sagy, Orr, Bar-on & Awwad, 2001; Weller, Florian & Mikulincer, 1995).

Norway has a population of 4.6 million inhabitants (European Journalism Centre, 2007). According to the Statistics Norway (2007), TV-viewing remains stable. The percentage of Norwegians who watch TV on a regular day has not really changed from 1995 to 2006 among the people aged 9 to 79 years. In 2006, TV-viewing accounted for 83% compared to 85% in 2005. Norwegians watched TV for 2 hours 28 minutes per day in 2006. This is 1 minute more than in 2005 (Statistics Norway, 2007). Norwegians watch the least TV among the European countries (European Journalism Centre, 2007). Leisure time is divided into newspaper reading and TV-viewing, which ranks highest among media users, followed by listening to the radio and reading books. These uses remain pretty stable while surfing on the Internet is rocketing upwards (Statistics Norway, 2007). The Norwegian lifestyle emphasizes more outdoor activities and not too much time is left to spend in front of the telly (Ling & Thrane, 2002).

Key facts about **Switzerland** according to Wikipedia, the free online encyclopedia (2007) are that the population size is 7 507 000 and the GDP per capita is 58 513 USD. Approximately, 80% of the Swiss households have cable TV and 10% have a satellite dish. The households have access to 40 multi-language channels and the programs are broadcasted in English, French, German and Italian. An interesting fact in the media landscape of Switzerland is that private TV stations do not exist on a national level (European Journalism Centre, 2007). When it comes to watching TV then only 10% of Swiss viewers are watching more than 3 hours of TV per day and they are therefore considered to be heavy viewers (Frey, Benesch & Stutzer, 2006). According to this, Swiss people are not sitting too much in front of the tube.
In order to be able to compare the amount of TV-viewing in other countries as well, please find Figure 2 pasted below. According to Figure 2, Americans watch the most TV, while Switzerland is second last in this ranking. The daily television consumption of Canada and South Korea are over 3 hours while Finland, Austria, New Zealand, Ireland and Sweden are watching the least (Economist, 2007).

Figure 2: OECD summary of TV-viewing habits in different countries.
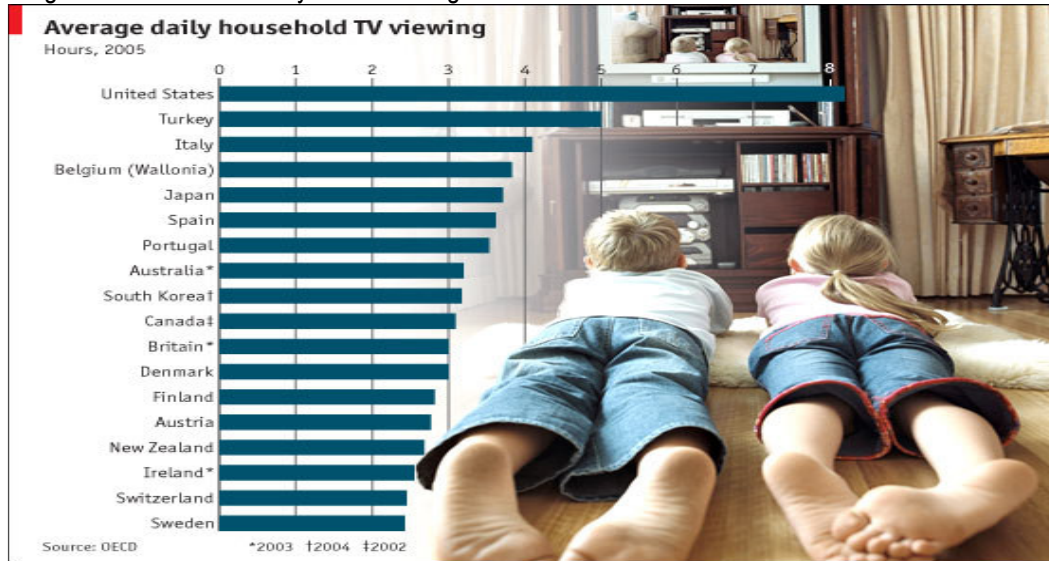
Source: Economist (2007)

Media relationships

Since hundred years have psychologists attempted to define emotions scientifically. The closest description is that emotion is a distinct psychological state involving subjective feelings, physical arousal, cognition and a behavioral response to a stimulus. Emotional states are "subjectively experienced feelings arising from material events" (Panksepp, 1998: p.14). Emotions prepare us for appropriate actions and implies either approach or avoidance behavior (Miron, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). TV programs broadcast a wide range of emotions and these feelings are activating the limbic areas of the brain (Miron, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Television provides affective gratifications (Dobos, 1992) and people can use TV to maintain or change their moods or arousal states, and physiological studies have shown that TV-viewing can alter blood pressure, heart rate, and other physiological states (Bryant & Zillmann, 2002).

Audience involvement

Within the U & G approach, involvement is integrated as a part of the concept of audience activity (Bryant & Zillmann, 2002). Involvement is defined as a connection between the viewer and mass media content as well as the psychological interaction between the viewer and medium (Levy & Windahl, 1984). Thus, involvement is an

internal state and it can be seen as a ***direct personal experience*** during message reception. It can also be an indicator of ***cognitive, affective***, and ***behavioral*** participation (Krugman, 1966; Cohen, 2004; Perse, 1990a; Petty & Cacioppo, 1990; Kim & Rubin, 1997; Wirth, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Findings suggest that TV viewers and especially young viewers are mentally much more involved (ERIC Digest, 1995). Temporarily, viewers can live emotionally and cognitively within the world presented by the media and this has been recently referred to as *non-mediation or presence* (Lombard & Ditton, 1997; Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004).

Pre-and post exposure activity

Before media exposure activity levels should help determine during-exposure activity levels, which in turn extend their influence on post-exposure activity levels (Lin, 1993). People with greater intentional program selection have a bigger channel repertoire (Perse & Ferguson, 1993). Advance planning can take active forms and it is important because people are motivated differently to watch various programs (Perse, 1998). The active viewer may be intentional and plans to record a program (Levy & Fink, 1984). Selectivity nowadays is eased because viewers can use elaborate search strategies and remote control devices to find the program that gratifies his motives and interests (Eastman & Newton, 1995) or turn away from boring or unsettling programs that are not gratifying (Perse, 1998; Perse & Ferguson, 2003). Predicting viewers behavior was previously based on structural features of the TV environment such as time of day, time available to watch TV, and number of channels available (Perse & Ferguson, 2003) but not anymore due to VCR's and Internet TV, where favorite programs can be scheduled to be recorded or downloaded in order to watch them at any time (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999).

The post-exposure activity is another type of audience involvement and any information gained during exposure may be useful for potential interpersonal utility. Levy and Windahl (1984) suggested that active viewers display a willingness to discuss and integrate information into their mental and social behaviors. For example, viewers who talk with others about messages received during the program exhibit behavioral involvement in post-exposure media use (Rubin & Perse, 1987a). When post activities are perceived as enjoyable and useful then viewers are more likely to seek such gratifications again (Levy & Windahl, 1984). In other words, cognitive and

affective involvement is associated with enjoyment and will have influence on subsequent planned media exposure (Knobloch & Zillmann, 2002).

Cognitive and emotional involvement

Krugman (1966) was among the first to introduce the concept of involvement in consumer research. He preferred a cognitive approach and believed that involvement is the number of conscious associations that a viewer makes per minute between his own life and a stimulus. Cognitive involvement includes two components *during* media exposure. First, *attention* includes allocating mental effort directed toward the program and evaluating messages during reception (Greenwald & Leavitt, 1984; Petty & Cacioppo, 1990; Kim & Rubin, 1997). Kim and Rubin (1997) found that those who paid more attention to the TV content and figures showed higher levels of *empathy* and *attraction* with the characters and were more *satisfied* with their favorite programs. The second aspect of during exposure involvement is *elaboration*, which is the way in which viewers interpret, attach meaning to, and respond to messages. Elaboration is a deeper level of involvement and relates incoming information to existing knowledge as well as attaches associative meanings to it (Perse, 1990a; Rubin & Perse, 1987b). Television is considered to be a passive, low-involvement medium, while print media is considered to be an active, high-involvement media (Krugman, 1966; Salomon, 1984). Today, brain scans such as functional magnetic resonance imaging (FMRI) and positron emission tomography (PET) can show everything about what our brain does while watching TV. The scans show that blood flow in the brain varies depending upon the activity with which the brain is occupied. The researcher Herbert Krugman (1966) showed that while viewers are watching TV, the *right hemisphere* is twice as active as the left, and it releases the body's natural opiates, so-called *endorphins*, which are usually habit-forming. So today it is known that the left brain side tends to switch off and goes to sleep once the TV set is switched on and the TV images go straight to the right brain hemisphere. However, this is not conscious learning as shown by the switch from beta to *alpha* brain waves, which are the ones we associate with meditation and sleep (Moore, 2001).

During exposure involvement has also an affective component. This emotional involvement is the subjective experience of media usage (Wirth, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006) in which the viewer is getting caught up in the action of the program

(Bryant, Comisky & Zillmann, 1981). The duration and intensity of emotional responses differ greatly from person to person while involving a range of emotions from satisfaction and happiness to frustration and anger (Perse, 1990b). As viewers actively watch, they begin to interact with what they see, leading to specific emotional reactions about how the program is developing, what the characters are doing, or how they would feel as if what was happening in the program were happening to them. This enjoyment while watching TV programs in turn may lead to the motivation for post-exposure interaction. Identifying with the TV character refers to an emotional involvement with media characters, which is an active and purposive (i.e., instrumental) media use (Eyal, 2003; Ward & Rivadeneyra, 1999). Identification is a fleeting relationship between the viewer and media figure during TV exposure (Cohen & Perse, 2003) including *imagining* oneself as being the media character, *adopting* the perspective of the media figure, becoming *caught up* in the action as experienced by the character, and viewing the media content from the *perspective* of the character (Cohen, 2001; Cohen & Perse, 2003; Eyal, 2003; Eyal & Rubin, 2003; Hoffner, 1996). Identification is linked to perceived *similarity* or the degree to which people are comparable in beliefs, education, and social status, which in turn encourages identification (Cohen & Perse, 2003; Eyal & Rubin, 2003; Hoffner & Cantor, 1991). Viewers may identify with TV figures because they relate themselves to these ordinary characters on the basis of shared demographic, geographic, or personality characteristics (Babocsay, 2002; Basil, 1996; Kósa & Vajda, 1998). Viewers who identify with media figures are likely to be influenced by the figure and they are more satisfied with their viewing experience (Eyal, 2003). Positive emotional involvement is closely related to entertainment motives (Perse, 1990a; Vorderer, 2004; Wirth, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006).

Parasocial interaction

The appeal of television is partly due to the engagement or emotional involvement that viewers have with TV characters (Rubin & Step, 2000). These media figures can evoke laughter and smiles and provide viewers with a warm feeling. Horton and Wohl (1956) coined the term parasocial interaction (PSI) and this occurs when TV-viewers respond to a media figure as though it was a real person. Although it is more likely that a viewer has never and will never meet these media figures in real life, TV

viewers feel to *know* these media figures (Giles, 2003). Viewer involvement is enhancing parasocial interaction (Perse & R. Rubin, 1989). Rosengren and Windahl (1978) argued that ***PSI occurs when a viewer interacts but does not identify*** with a media figure. Identification with a media character is only one way of viewers to respond to characters (Cohen, 2001; Cohen & Perse, 2003) but it is *opposed* to parasocial interaction, which is defined as the viewer's response to people on the screen during media exposure and encompasses affective, cognitive and conative components (Hartmann, Schramm & Klimmt, 2004). The viewer's response is called *parasocial* because there is a *limit* in terms of possible interactions between the viewer and the medium (Hartmann, Klimmt & Vorderer, 2001). The viewer engages in a kind of pseudo-friendship with the media figure (Horton & Wohl, 1956; Cohen, 2004) and over time, viewers can establish a *parasocial relationship* (PSR) with media people (Horton & Wohl, 1956; Hartmann, Schramm & Klimmt, 2004), which increases the enjoyment of a particular program as well as the importance of the media character for the viewer's social life (Cohen, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Many studies have connected PSI and PSR to entertainment programs (Hartmann, Schramm & Klimmt, 2004; Klimmt, Hartmann & Schramm, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006; Perse & R. Rubin, 1989; Vorderer, 1998 in Roters, Klingler & Zoellner, 1998) and instrumental viewing motives (Conway & Rubin, 1991). During such one-sided parasocial interactions, viewers' may talk to the media figures, feel sorry for the media figures when they make a mistake, look forward to seeing them, miss them when they are gone, wish to meet them in person, imagine and discuss the lives of media figures and seek information about them (Rubin, Perse, & Powell, 1985). Seeing a newsreader or actor and his or her body language on the screen is relevant for the relationship between the viewers because it enables the viewer to make a personal connection with particular newsreaders or actors (Rubin & Perse, 1987b; Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). The viewer could for example live his or her life through the media figure in order to fulfill his or her own personal ambitions. Important antecedents for PSI are *attractiveness* and perceived *similarity* of media figures (Rubin & McHugh, 1987; Turner, 1993; Cohen, 2001; Hartmann, Klimmt & Vorderer, 2001; R. Rubin & Rubin, 2001 in Manusov & Harvey, 2001). Studies have found that attraction to media figures was highly correlated with PSI (Giles, 2003). According to Conway and Rubin (1991), attraction is a primary principle to relationships, the more viewers feel attracted to a TV figure, the more they will sense

importance in the relationship. Further on, when this similarity or bond is felt, viewers are more likely to be attracted to a TV character and thus affected by what they see on the program. However, loneliness does not predict more intense parasocial interactions (Rubin, Perse & Powell, 1985) but rather *people with high social abilities* (Cole & Leets, 1999) and *shy people* with high need for social interaction (Vorderer & Knobloch, 1996) tend to report strong PSI. Put in other words, viewers who lack the ability to relate to the feelings of others cannot really develop relationships with TV characters (Cohen, 2004, Turner, 1993). The study of Cohen (1997, 2004) as well as Cole and Leets (1999) provided evidence that attachment styles are related to parasocial behavior in which anxious-ambivalent people were most likely to form parasocial bonds, whereas avoidant people were least likely to form PSI, and securely attached people were in the middle. Other studies showed that women have stronger parasocial interactions with soap opera figures (Turner, 1993; Vorderer, 1998 in Roters, Klingler & Zoellner, 1998) and develop stronger parasocial relationships with their favorite TV figure (Cohen, 1997, 2004; Vorderer & Knobloch, 1996). The amount of media use is positively associated with strong PSI (Conway & Rubin, 1991; Hartmann, Schramm & Klimmt, 2004; Perse, 1990a; Perse & Rubin, 1988; Rubin, Perse & Powell, 1985; Vorderer, 1996) and to entertainment motives in particular (Perse & Rubin, 1988; Rubin & Perse, 1987a). Parasocial interaction with media figures may be rewarding in itself (Klimmt, Hartmann & Schramm, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006) and higher PSI has been linked to instrumental media use for entertainment (Kim & Rubin, 1997; Perse, 1990a; Rubin et al., 1985) as well as higher post-viewing cognitions (Rubin & Perse, 1987a; Perse & Rubin, 1988). Today, parasocial interaction is seen as a "normal consequence of TV-viewing. People may naturally feel a sense of friendship with a TV figure they watch over time and feel that they have come to know" (Perse & R. Rubin, 1989: p.61). Thus, the PSI process may serve specific motivational dispositions for instance companionship, escapism and a need for diversion from inferiority in real life (Katz & Foulkes, 1962). The development of PSR can influence the behaviors underlying enjoyment through engagement with the characters. Hence, in some way behavior influences media enjoyment (Nabi & Krcmar, 2004). Watching TV is understood as a *social event* (Boyns & Stephenson, 2003) and a form of parasocial interaction, which provides an *illusion of intimacy* (Horton & Wohl, 1956). This idea proposes that TV plays a social role and the interaction with people becomes less needed because TV creates a feeling of

belongingness and companionship so that the attachment to real people becomes unnecessary (Boyns & Stephenson, 2003). PSI can be a source of alternative companionship (Rosengren & Windahl, 1972). Other findings suggest that social and parasocial interactions are *complementary* and rather an extension of strong social relationships (Cohen, 2004). Watching TV and developing PSI can have the important function to supply material for gossip (Giles, 2003). It is not uncommon that people arrive at the office in the morning and immediately ask the co-worker whether he/she has seen the show yesterday. When people meet for the first time or when they start watching a new show then the first contact with the media figures trigger the same automatic response as in social encounters in the real world (Cohen, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). A first impression is formed and available very quickly (Hartmann, Schramm & Klimmt, 2004) and the later course will partly depend on the results of this impression and whether the media figure fits to our motivational dispositions (Cohen, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). The U & G approach regards PSI and PSR as primary motivations of selective media exposure (Palmgreen, Wenner & Rayburn, 1980) or as a special type of interpersonal involvement that combines interaction and identification with media characters (Rubin, Perse & Powell, 1985). In this sense, PSI and PSR are not separated analytically but rather used interchangeably. Variations of the PSI scale have been used to assess PSI with soap characters (Rubin & Perse, 1987a; Visscher & Vorderer, 1998 in Willems & Jurga, 1998), comedians (Auter, 1992), local newscaster (Levy, 1978; Alperstein, 1991), and favorite TV-character (R. Rubin & McHugh, 1987; Turner, 1993).

<u>TV affinity</u>

Television affinity is the level of importance that viewers attach to the medium (Rubin & Conway, 1991). More accurately it is a person's ***dependency*** upon the medium (Rubin, 1983). TV affinity or needs can differ among viewers and it plays a significant role in why and how people use the media (Rubin, 1986 in Bryant & Zillmann, 1986). TV-viewing affinity is generally and for certain genres particularly more enduring and stable (Bryant & Zillmann, 2002). Cross-sectional studies have shown that a person's affinity for television is positively correlated with viewing for habit (Rubin, 2002), escape (Rubin, 1979), companionship and PSI motives (Auter & Palmgreen, 2000; Perse, 1990a; Rubin, 1983; Rubin & Perse, 1987a). Furthermore,

research has validated that parasocial interactions increased with a stronger TV affinity (Rubin & Perse, 1987a; Perse, 1994 in Rubin, Palmgreen & Sypher, 1994; Perse & Rubin, 1988) and that the frequency of media exposure may be crucial for this (Klimmt, Hartmann & Schramm, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). However, life satisfaction is negatively linked to TV affinity, and as a result of this, television viewing is *not* seen as an important communication vehicle to escape for people who are least satisfied with their current life (Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982a).

Dependency model and TV addiction

The dependency model by Sandra Ball-Rokeach and co-author Melvin DeFleur (1976) is an extension of the U & G model and it offers a framework for exploring the social and cultural effects of TV-viewing. The authors stated that mass communication is a function of a complex relationship between the media, viewers and society (Ball-Rokeach & DeFleur, 1976). The dependency model looks at how viewers rely upon the mass media to provide them with information, advice, and services. The model refers to goals instead of needs to indicate a problem-solving motivation in which individuals may not consciously articulate their dependency relationship with the media. Yet, viewers have the ability to articulate goals that give rise to media behaviors. Just as the U & G model has its five elements so has the media dependency model as listed by DeFleur and Dennis (1996) in which people in advanced societies: (1) require information to decide where to obtain food, shelter, transportation, and mating; (2) tend to live life in similar ways and people are linked by networks of families and long-term friendships for obtaining the information they need; (3) are differentiated by factors of race, ethnicity, occupational- and economic statuses; (4) have less social ties in order obtain information they need; (5) depend heavily on the mass media for information about news and entertainment to make decisions for short- and log-term goals. Ball-Rokeach (1998) confirmed that people turn to the media for social and emotional support when social factors distance them from the comforting mantle of family, church and neighborhood. Rather than gratifying a basic need, the media then becomes a social support on which the viewer comes to depend. As social systems become more industrialized, people tend to rely more and more upon the mass media for ***coping strategies***, instead of relying on traditional support systems such as family, friends, and church. Most individuals these

days do not remember a time without television (Turck, 2004). Yet, the term TV addiction is blurred although it stands for a very real phenomenon. So what is addiction? When we think about addiction then the first thing that may cross our mind may be drugs and alcohol. Now, in the modern age of technology, addiction also applies to many other fields such as shopping addiction, Internet addiction, eating disorder, and TV addiction. It is important to differentiate between heavy TV-viewing and TV addiction. Robert McIlwraith (1998: p.372) defined TV addiction as: "heavy TV watching is subjectively experienced as being to some extent involuntary, displacing more productive activities, and difficult to stop or to limit." The draw of television is a paradoxical force because TV programs can educate viewers and deepen our thinking about important issues as well as trivialize such issues (Gibson, 2007). Kubey (1996 in MacBeth, 1996) prefers to use the term dependence instead of addiction by which he refers to a learnt psychological need. People are more and more evaluating their TV-viewing by checking its impact on their leisure activities such as sports and their availability to friends and family (Gibson, 2007). According to McIlwraith, Jacobvitz, Kubey & Alexander (1991), heavy TV viewers exhibit *five dependency symptoms*, including: (1) indiscriminate viewing - the person uses the media more frequently and over a longer period than intended, (2) inability to stop watching - the person realizes that too much time is spent with media use but fails to reduce or control this, (3) The person reduces or gives up important social, occupational or recreational activities because of media use, (4) the prolonged media use leads to social, psychological and physical problems that become more intense by continuous media use, (5) withdrawal symptoms occur as a result of continued use, if the person tries to stop media use. Kubey and Csikszentmihalyi (2002) stated that this rapid indulgence of TV does benefit relaxation and is similar to a habit-forming drug. 42% of the American population said that they are spending too much time watching TV (McIlwraith et al., 1991). Rubin (1993) found a similar sense of a heightened media dependency when physical barriers restrict social interaction. His studies showed that less healthy and less mobile people depend more upon TV than do self-reliant people. Even researchers wonder about the captivating effects of TV-viewing as stated by Percy Tannenbaum of the University of California at Berkeley (in Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002: p.50): "among life's more embarrassing moments have been countless occasions when I am engaged in conversation in a room while a TV set is on, and I cannot for the life of me stop from periodically glancing over to the screen. This occurs not only

during dull conversations but during reasonably interesting ones just as well". For some people, life without TV would be unbearable. This attraction can be explained by the biological ***orienting response*** and refers to our "instinctive visual or auditory reaction to any sudden or novel stimulus" (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002: p.50). Two things happen during the orienting response that is the person is focusing his attention on gathering information while at the same time the body relaxes. It is the form of TV programs and not the TV content that triggers this orienting response (Reeves & Thorson, 1986 in Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). However, there are reasons for rejecting the term addiction with reference to drug dependence according to McQuail (1997). He suggested that viewers are among the first to be critical of watching too much TV. People can feel guilty about being glued too much to the tube (Morley, 1986; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b, McQuail, 1997; Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Yet, guilt feelings do not inevitably lead to reduced TV-viewing (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Janice Radway (1984) pointed out that feeling guilty is due to the fact that society places more value on work than on leisure time. Watching TV is not seen as a productive activity by modern society (Anderson et al., 1996). Finn (1992, 1997) also showed that there is no support for any conceptualization that excessive TV-viewing is a disease.

2.5　Life satisfaction & TV-viewing

For it was not into my ear you whispered, but into my heart.
It was not my lips you kissed, but my soul.
– Judy Garland (1922 - 1969)

Every human being has problems, even the psychologically healthy ones. People who are emotionally, physically and psychologically healthy are better capable to regulate and to resolve problems and this gives them satisfaction in life (White, 2007). If a person feels good about himself/herself then they can understand and adapt to change in life, the person copes better with stress and has a positive self-concept, the person has the capacity to care for others and is independently able to gratify his or her own needs (Lyubomirsky & Abbe, 2003). When a person is emotionally not healthy then Zillmann (2000 in Roloff, 2000) and Lazarus (1991) argue that negative emotional experiences are associated with coping needs and efforts. Brandtstadter and Renner (1990) affirmed that people overcome adversities by changing life conditions to personal preferences (assimilative coping) or by adjusting personal preferences and goals to given situational constraints (accommodative coping). Both types of coping strategies are linked to life satisfaction and with increasing age there is a gradual shift from the assimilative to the accommodative style.

Life satisfaction

The study of life-satisfaction has developed considerably over the last decade (Diener, 2000; Veenhoven, 1995, 1999) and satisfaction with leisure-time has been significantly related to well-being (Argyle, 1987). Leisure time is nowadays equated with media time (Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Thus, combining the two concepts of television viewing and life satisfaction is important. What exactly is life satisfaction? The definition of life satisfaction is that it is a global and cognitive judgment of *subjective well-being* (SWB; Diener, 1984) and it refers to an overall evaluation of life (Diener, 2000; Veenhoven, 1999). Life satisfaction includes questions like is my life in general going well? Or, if I could live my life again, how much would I change? Put differently, life satisfaction explains how much an individual likes his or her own life (Cheng, 2004). Life satisfaction has many

synonyms and *happiness* is one of it (Veenhoven, 1996 in Saris, Veenhoven, Scherpenzeel & Bunting, 1996). Aristotle considered hedonic happiness to be an offensive ideal, making human mindless followers of desires and that's why he posited that true happiness is found in the expression of virtue or in doing what is worth doing (Keyes, Ryff & Shmotkin, 2002). So, life satisfaction involves mainly a cognitive judgment (Kahneman, Diener & Schwarz, 1997; Sousa & Lyubomirsky, 2001 in Worell, 2001) and reflects the *gratification of needs* by linking it to hedonic affect (Veenhoven, 2000). Life satisfaction is positively related to better physical health (Veenhoven, 1995), mental health, longevity, age, gender, education, income, and everyday stressful events (Amato & Booth, 1997; Louis & Zhao, 2002). In general, males and females are similar in life satisfaction levels (Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith, 1999) however females report more positive and negative feelings than males. A way to capture true happiness and to measure SWB is by using the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS), which was developed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin in 1985 and reviewed by Pavot & Diener in 1993. This self-report survey in which respondents report their life satisfaction is also assessing the frequency of pleasant affects or unpleasant emotions. This construct of life satisfaction is assessed with a short, five-item scale. The items show a high-factor loading on a single common factor and the scale has a very high Cronbach alpha and test-retest reliability (Larsen, Diener & Emmons, 1985). A confirmatory factor analyses on the five items of the Satisfaction With Life Scale (op.cit.) was carried out by Vitterso, Roysamb, and Diener (2002 in Gullone & Cummins, 2002) who found that a one-factor model fit the data reasonably well in 41 nations. Thus, these findings propose that the SWLS assesses a single construct and more importantly, the concept of life satisfaction is **universally understood across cultures** (Sousa & Lyubomirsky, 2001 in Worell, 2001). This means that males and females in different cultures react similarly and in a consistent way to questions about LS. Consequently, life satisfaction embodies a **cultural and social indicator** (Veenhoven, 1996 in Saris et al., 1996). Culture may differ in their labeling of specific feelings but life satisfaction is important for initiating, maintaining and regulating behavior (Kubey, 1986; Vas & Gombor, 2008b; Zillmann, 1991 in Bryant & Zillmann, 1991). Additionally, life satisfaction has a tendency to be stable over time (Cummins, 1998), across genders and cultures (Sousa & Lyubomirsky, 2001 in Worell, 2001), indicating a dispositional component (Judge, 2001). Other cross-cultural studies related in general to subjective well-being show

that it is one symbol of the quality of life in a society (Shweder, 2000 in Harrison & Huntington, 2000). Hence, as people move through life, their goals and needs change but SWB remains somewhat stable. It is interesting to see that gender differences in life satisfaction are almost nonexistent in Western countries. The greatest data comes from the **World Value Survey** (Inglehart, 1990) in which a representative sample of approximately 170,000 respondents from 16 nations were surveyed and the findings showed that the differences in life satisfaction between men and women were very small. The data of the World Value Survey is compiled at the University of Michigan including data on the happiest countries in the world for over twenty years. Within the rankings of countries according to life satisfaction levels, Switzerland ranked within the top 3, followed by Norway ranking on the 9th place. America reached rank 17, followed by Israel reaching the 34th place, while Hungary arrived at 61th place (Inglehart, 2004, see Table 2).

Table 2: Average happiness in 95 nations 1995-2005

Nation	**Satisfaction with Life** (0 – 10 scale)	Number of surveys	Rank
Switzerland	8,1	3	2-3
Norway	7,6	2	9-14
United States	7,4	2	17
Israel	6,7	2	34-37
Hungary	5,6	8	61-62

Source: Veenhoven (2008)

Life satisfaction is highest in countries that provide the best *access to knowledge*, as measured by literacy, school-enrolment and use of mass media including Internet, newspapers, radio, and TV (Veenhoven, 1996 in Saris et al., 1996). People with higher education and income also tend to have higher scores on life satisfaction (Ryff, 1995). Similarly, Michalos (1991) studied 18,000 college students in over 30 nations and found very small gender differences in life satisfaction. This indicates that life satisfaction is highly heritable (Lykken & Tellegen, 1996; Watson et al., 1988). Life satisfaction may vary around a set point, which is a personal baseline that remains constant over time (Fujita & Diener, 2005). Changes in our life circumstances can have an influence on the interaction we have with others and this in return can alter the satisfaction with life circumstances (Nussbaum, 2000). These changes in life

satisfaction can affect the use of media consumption (Barbato & Perse, 1992; Vas & Gombor, 2008a) and life satisfaction is hence a determinant of media use. However, there is disagreement whether TV-viewing is related to lower or higher life satisfaction and this chapter is going to highlight both views. For instance, a study in 1990 found that general life satisfaction in the U.S. was consistently lower among heavy viewers than light viewers (Gerbner et al., 2002 in Bryant & Zillmann, 2002). Further on, reduced life satisfaction contributes to escapist television viewing (Barbato & Perse, 1992; Conway & Rubin, 1991; Rubin, 1984; Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982a) especially among women (Minnebo, 2004). On the other hand, people with high levels of life satisfaction report using television more for entertainment and relaxation (Barbato & Perse, 1992).

Psychological well-being

A major aim of the present study was to operationalize television viewing and life satisfaction. The psychological evaluation of well-being has been mainly divided into two primary approaches. First, the *hedonic* approach, which focuses on **subjective well-being** (e.g., life satisfaction, happiness; Diener, 1984; Larsen, Diener & Emmons, 1985; Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith, 1999) and defines well-being in terms of pleasure attainment and pain avoidance (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The hedonistic model predicts that viewers have a desire for entertainement when it comes to media use (Raney, 2003). Second, the *eudaimonic* approach, which focuses on **psychological well-being**, shortly PWB (e.g., life purpose; Andrews & Withey, 1976; Diener et al., 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff, 1989), which emphasizes the meaning of life, human potential and self-realization by defining well-being in terms of the degree to which a person is fully functioning (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Thus, subjective well-being is regarded to be distinct from psychological well-being (Keyes, 2002). Yet, there are also strong associations between SWB and some subcategories of PWB such as self-acceptance as well as environmental mastery (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Diener & Tov, 2007).

Carol Ryff (1989, 1995) and Keyes, Ryff, & Shmotkin (2002) extended these distinctions in their research and distinguished six subcategories of psychological well-being, which are (a) the individual's sense of *self-acceptance* (mental health, optimal functioning, maturity); (b) *positive relations with others* (warm, trusting

interpersonal relations, ability to love); (c) *autonomy* (self-determination, independence, self-regulation of behavior); (d) *environmental mastery* (ability to choose and change); (e) *purpose in life* (meaning to life, sense of directedness, intentionality); (f) *personal growth* (person continues to develop one's potential, openness to experience). In sum, the integration of mental health, clinical and life span developmental theories are pointing to multiple converging aspects of positive psychological functioning. The criteria of psychological well-being are theoretically and empirically distinct from existing formulations (Ryff, 1989, 1995; Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Ryff & Singer, 1998, 2000). Well-being centers on the fulfillment of *innate* psychological needs such as autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Particularly relatedness is characterized to be a *basic human need* that is fundamental for well-being (Bruni & Stanca, 2006; Deci & Ryan, 2000). However, most research on media reception has focused on SWB instead of PWB (Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006).

TV-viewing is a learned, daily routine

Positive psychological functioning can be defined by two indices, namely positive affect and life satisfaction (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Alternatively, negative psychological functioning can be defined by negative affect, which taps many of the emotional qualities found in most measures of psychological maladjustment including measures of depression and anxiety (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). Because life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect are all generally believed to have universal relevance (Keyes, Shmotkin & Ryff, 2002), they should represent key measures of positive and negative psychological functioning. The television environment can be treated as a microcosm of a larger social environment (Weigel & Jessor, 1973). Viewing behavior is learned and can be transferred to other programs (Crawley, Anderson, Santomero, Wilder, Williams et al., 2002). Salomon (1984) showed that children's viewing habits resemble those of their parents! Adults tend to have even more established patterns of TV-viewing compared to teenagers and children (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). TV is a source of learning for a variety of behavior patterns including norms, values, attitudes, social roles and personal identities and there was already in 1973 an interest in college students' TV exposure, which lasted for an average of 4.4 hours a week (Weigel & Jessor, 1973). Nowadays, the average

leisure time of adult Americans aged 19 – 64 years during 1965 – 1995 has climbed by 6 hours from 35 to 41 hours according to time-use studies (Robinson & Godbey, 1999; Bittman, 1999; Gershuny, 2000; Goodin, Rice, Bittman & Saunders, 2005; Aguiar & Hurst, 2006). It is tempting for many people to watch TV rather than to pursue other engaging activities (Frey, Benesch & Stutzer, 2007). "Abstention from television is not related to education or age or anything other than the psychology of a rare individual" as remarked by Robert Bower (1985 in Fowles, 1992: p.27), who was a president of the American Association for the Public Opinion Research. Bower (1985 in Fowles, 1992) also discovered that everybody is watching TV about the same amount regardless of age, gender, education or income. It is often claimed that those better educated are watching less, but this is not the case and their viewing habits these days are almost the same as that of the rest of the population (Fowles, 1992). TV-viewing has colonized our leisure time (Sahin & Robinson, 1981) and watching TV is situated in the *top three freely chosen leisure activities* (Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982b; Schmitt, Woolf & Anderson, 2003). TV-viewing has, compared to other leisure activities, a nonexistent entry barrier. Viewers do not have to dress up or buy tickets nor do they have to leave the house in order to watch TV and people do not need to coordinate TV-viewing with others. Students in particular have more leisure time available and there is a marked change in daily routine in how young people spend their free time (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Studies have shown that active leisure behavior is more common among the happy than among the unhappy (Veenhoven, 2000). This is true for all kinds of leisure activities because the happy eat out more often, they visit theatres more frequently and they spend more time with friends. Another study (Clark & Watson, 1988) found a similar relationship between happiness and sports among young adults in which the participants had to list three times a day what kind of feelings and activities they were doing. The results showed that those students who were most involved in parties, traveling and sports appeared to be in a better mood on average. Yet, TV-viewing and especially "heavy viewing is not at odds with sports or exercise. Heavy viewers were the most likely to be engaged in athletics" according to Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi (1990b: p.151). TV-viewing is "the most freely chosen of all activities" (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b: p.79) and it is an important component of people's everyday lives in contemporary societies (Boyns & Stephenson, 2003). TV-viewing can be part of our domestic routine and even provide a fixed marker point in the day, yet it doesn't have to be the determining factor in the

planning of daily activities (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). The viewer's age and gender are significant to how everyday activities are organized (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b) but our viewing schedules are often arranged around TV schedules (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Especially College and University students organize their busy timetable to view specific soap operas (Lemish, 1985). Some American studies show a staggering statistic in which the telly is usually turned on for 7 hours every day (Putnam, 2000). The amount of viewing is an important topic, but it does not focus on the more important aspects of TV-viewing such as enjoying watching a favorite show on a routine basis. A lot of people spend a huge amount of their lives in front of the telly, but may not attach much importance to this behavior. Schaffer (2000) argued that activities composing so much of our common daily routines deserve more empirical attention. When people are at home they may not be watching TV but they are likely to be either in its presence (Putnam, 2000) or do something else (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b). There is frequently a symbiotic connection between the family and television because people depend on TV for both entertainment and information to gratify their socio-psychological purposes, while television relies on the people for watching their programs and commercial broadcasting (Bryant & Bryant, 2001). As Gauntlett & Hill (1999: p.79) concluded "the role of TV-viewing alters dramatically in relation to life changes". Further, "television plays a significant role in the day-to-day activities of young people" (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999: p.82). Students are less directed in their viewing behavior because viewing often has to be cast aside in favor of studying or going to the pub. Students may watch TV in the morning before and also after coming home from College lessons. Its uses vary from unwinding to background noise, from watching alone to collective viewing and it is always a welcoming distraction whilst having to complete homework or studying for exams. Especially when considering the latter, then television provides an important role and break from the routine of studies. Therefore, TV-viewing can act as a bridge between established daily routines and new lifestyles (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). People are often using television in a ritualized way (Selberg, 1993) while *familiarity* of TV genre gives *gratification* (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999) and people often do not have to scan through TV magazines in order to find out what's on because they *know* the seasonal programs already (Ling & Thrane, 2002). TV programs are regular, patterned and will be flickering on the screen every week at the same hour. Viewers prefer to see familiar shows and this is similar to Freud's *repetition compulsion theory* (Fowles,

1992). According to this, people often have recurring dreams, which occurs in response to psychological pressure that has to be somewhat resolved in dreaming. TV series provide a kind of familiarity and repetitiveness, which the viewer appreciates by tuning in regularly in order to go along with that weekly storyline (Fowles, 1992). So far, the focus of research on media use in the home environment was particularly on TV and on day-to-day routines in order to understand the media as a cultural factor in modern living (Hall, Hobson, Lowe & Willis, 1980). German and American researchers (Bausinger 1984; Lull, 1980) emphasized to study the role of the TV in the home environment. Media scholar Roger Silverstone (1993; 1994) identified television to be fundamental for everyday life experiences of human beings in modern societies. The basic function of television is to offer security in everyday life by creating patterns of habits and routines. Gauntlett and Hill (1999) described TV to be the centerpiece of private lives in this modern world. TV has developed into a friend and also babysitter (Goodhardt, Ehrenberg & Collins, 1987; Lemish, 1985; Levy & Windahl, 1984). However, as stated by Boyns & Stephenson (2003: p.14) "television is not just a toaster with pictures", but a matchless device with an astonishing capacity to hold people's attention when switched on. The nice remark of Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi (2002: p.51) fits very well when they state "viewing begets more viewing!" Atkin (1993) believed that watching TV is based on a cost-benefit theory. People watch programs that provide a greater feeling of reward when measured with costs to viewing the program and that selective exposure is characterized by reinforcement. People will ultimately select materials that are favorable to pre-existing attitudes and behaviors. Choosing what people will watch on TV is guided more by affect, familiarity and learned routines than by cognition (Zillmann & Bryant, 1985; Donohew, Lorch & Palmgreen, 1998).

Arousal theory

The whole person must be considered in order to comprehend how an individual regulates his or her level of arousal. The range of arousal states varies from high to low and these changes in the arousal state produce behavior, which in turn will again have an impact on the arousal state. People are motivated to uphold an optimal arousal level (Hebb, 1955). So if a person's arousal level is too high or too low then we are motivated to bring it back to its most favorable level. Hebb (op.cit.) also noted that the

connection between arousal and performance resembles that of an inverted U-shape and there is a certain point in time when either over-arousal or under-arousal will weaken the performance. The theory of optimal arousal plays a central role in television studies and the results of Zillmann & Bryant (1983 in McGhee & Goldstein, 1983; 1985, 1986) showed that TV-viewing plays an important and regulative role in the arousal level. TV-viewing can decrease high arousal levels by distracting the viewers from his/her problems and it can also raise low arousal levels by acting as a tool for increasing the external stimulus. Thus, media usage fulfils a mood management role in the life of viewers (Finn & Gorr, 1988).

Mood-management theory

The mood management theory was developed by Zillmann and Bryant (1984, 1985) and revised by Zillmann (1988). According to this theory, people are using the mass media to search for an appropriate stimulus in order to maintain their good moods or to alleviate their bad moods. "This hedonic theory predicts that individuals in aversive states will seek stimulation to alter their mood, and that people in states of gratification will seek the least engaging stimulation so as to maintain their current state" (Moskalenko & Heine, 2003: p.77). For example, people regulate their mood after a bad day by enjoying to unwind and watch a travel or comedy show (Knobloch, 2003; Zillmann, 2000 in Roloff, 2000) or renting a funny movie (Gross & Thomson, 2007 in Gross, 2007) because TV-viewing is reducing negative emotions by presenting continuous new stimuli to the viewer (Singer, 1980; Zillmann & Bryant, 1985). Zillmann (1988) maintains that entertainment serves to help manage people's mood. "The *maintenance of positive moods* may be a *universal motivation*" (Oliver, Kim & Sanders, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006: p.331). Maintaining positive mood is a form of emotion regulation, which may be understood as a *coping function* (Folkman, 1992; Lazarus, 1991). However, emotion regulation is different from coping (Gross & Thomson, 2007 in Gross, 2007) because the first is more concerned with altering emotions and decreasing negative affect (Gross, 1999) while the latter is focusing on the organism's effort to manage its relations with an environment that assesses its ability to respond (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000). People who are watching TV are distracted from negative thoughts and rumination to prevent adding to unpleasant mood (Bryant & Zillmann, 1984; McIlwraith & Schallow, 1983; Singer, 1980; Singer & Singer, 1983).

When viewers explicitly select negative media content such as for instance watching negative news it is enjoyable because it offers an opportunity for a so-called *downward comparison* in which mood enhancement results from comparing oneself with others who are in a worse situation (Wills, 1981). This is an extension of Festinger's (1954) theory of social comparison. The outcome of both processes in the mood management and social comparison theory are the same, that is, to regulate mood. In sum, we can say that individuals in negative moods will use different mood enhancing strategies (Knobloch-Westerwick, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Yet, the critics of the mood-management theory propose that it "fails to explain why people would seek forms of entertainment that are neither exciting nor alleviating. Indeed, not only do people watch tragedy and drama, which do not satisfy either of these criteria, but they also turn to entertainment without a clear preference for genre, as when they turn on TV just to watch something. The mood management theory provides no account for this tendency" (Moskalenko & Heine, 2003: p.77). Nevertheless, Mills (1993) stated that experiencing any dramatic emotion on TV is pleasant because it is *humane* to experience good or bad emotions and people relate to this. Nabi et al. (2006) proposed that sad movies have a potential to serve as a source of information for people who want to cope with their stress. Dahlquist, Söderberg and Norberg (2008) supported this view where watching sad movies was described to help people to express their feelings and to be able to let oneself go.

Another conceptualization of television-viewing motivations was proposed by Seth Finn and Mary Beth Gorr (1988). The two authors postulated that television-viewing motivations can be grouped into two categories. First, the **social-compensation** dimension incorporates the motives of *companionship, pass time, habit* and *escape*, which are partially identical with the ritualized viewing motives. People who are viewing TV for the social or companionship motive are gratifying these needs by watching television and thereby decreasing negative affect and increasing their subjective well-being. Second, the **mood-management** dimension incorporates the TV-viewing motives of *relaxation, arousal, entertainment,* and *information-seeking*, which contribute to subjective well-being (Finn & Gorr, 1988). The *social interaction motive* is missing because Finn and Gorr (1988) did not believe that this motive can be placed into the social-compensation nor mood-management dimensions. Their view is bolstered by Blumler (1985 in Rosengren, Wenner & Palmgreen, 1985), who believed that the social utility motive is historically distinct (Finn & Gorr, 1988). The

main criticism of the mood-management theory (Zillmann & Bryant, 1985) is that no real cause and effect relationship can be established (Anderson et al., 1996). Mood tends to be influenced in the short-term of media use and extreme emotions elicited through a much unexpected situation cannot be managed anymore by simply watching television (Zillmann & Bryant, 1985). Further, television is not chosen "for its emotion-eliciting value but rather for its ability to attract people's attention" (Moskaleno & Heine, 2003: p.77).

Affective disposition theory

This theory supports the idea that watching TV is experienced as enjoyable (Raney & Bryant, 2002; Raney, 2004) and that viewers develop emotional alliances with TV characters (Cohen, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). According to the disposition theory, viewers make moral judgments about TV characters, which is the basis of the viewer's emotional reactions to the TV characters (Zillmann, 1996 in Vorderer, Wulff & Friedrichsen, 1996). Those television characters that behave in line with the viewer's moral system will be evaluated as positively, while those opposite to the viewer's moral system will be evaluated negatively. These evaluations will trigger the viewer to experience an emotional affiliation or affective disposition towards the TV character. These emotional ties in return will elicit expectations for the outcome of the program and enjoyment of the program results when the outcome is as expected, such as good things will happen to the character we like and disliked characters will experience bad things (Knobloch-Westerwick, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006; Raney & Bryant, 2002; Zillmann & Bryant, 1994). This is similar to the just world theory of Lerner (1980) where good individuals get good outcomes and bad things happen to bad individuals. Moreover, it is also similar to the attribution theory of Weiner (1986) in which individuals use information to make assumptions about the reasons of behavior. Television is an extremely powerful medium in our popular culture and advanced societies for shaping our social reality (Morgan & Signorielli, 1990). As Rosengren (1985: p.2) said "the mass media are the main carriers of our culture, in all senses of the word". Our sense of reality and what is good or bad for us is influenced by our moral judgments and our attitudes towards starring at this inanimate tube. People often attach a moral sense to watching TV, and they are sometimes having guilt feeling by admitting to have watched TV for many hours in a

row, even though they most probably liked doing this activity. Most of us like to eat ice cream but no one insists that those who do not like it have failed to live up to a morally important requirement. On the other hand, most people watch several hours of television a day, but no one believes that they should. TV-viewing receives moral disapproval in general public discussion and it is unfortunately seen as an *unproductive* activity.

Is TV-viewing increasing or decreasing well-being?

Media satisfaction refers to an immediate response of need fulfillment (Dobos, 1992). People usually report that they feel *slightly happier* during *viewing*. They also state to feel pretty relaxed during and after watching TV because first, it is an effortless activity and second, the TV content provides a kind of order for the viewer because it was his/her goal to relax in front of the telly (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b). McIlwraith, Jacobvitz, Kubey and Alexander (1991) also argue that watching television can relax, distract and even decrease negative affect and some viewers anticipate this effect. Television viewing has been shown to go along with relaxation and daydreaming (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b; Rubin, 1994). Moreover, mood has an influence on the amount of TV-viewing (McIlwraith & Schallow, 1983). People who report negative feelings in the afternoon tend to watch more TV in the evening, whereas those who report feeling better in the afternoon tend to watch less TV in the evening (Kubey, 1986; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b). Taking people's moods and well-being into account is important because it "should lead to greater success in establishing when and why people watch television" (Kubey, 1986: p.110). There is controversy whether TV-viewing is improving or decreasing the levels of subjective well-being. In accordance with the mood management theory, relaxation and entertainment are contributing to SWB (Oliver, 2003 in Bryant, Roskos-Ewoldsen & Cantor, 2003; Zillmann, 1988). With respect to mood, the assumption is that viewers in negative state will prefer programs that improve their mood, whereas viewers in a positive state will prefer programs that maintain their good mood (Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Finn and Gorr (1988) found that television-viewing was reportedly used for mood management and that people reported turning on the television in order to cheer themselves up, and as such, it was positively correlated with increases in positive self-feelings. In line with this,

ritualized use such as habit, passing time, escape and companionship serve the purpose of diversion and prevents the occurrence of negative affect, and thus contributing to higher levels of subjective well-being (Huston, Donnerstein, Fairchild, Feshback, Katz, et al., 1992; Finn & Gorr, 1988; Rubin, 2002; Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Television can provide a sense of companionship for those who watch with a social motive, and parasocial interactions with media characters are actively enjoyed, therefore increasing SWB (Finn & Gorr, 1988; Rubin, 2002; Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Social companionship has emerged as a major motive in media perception these days (Rubin, 2002; Weaver; 2000). Even when entertainment is not consumed with family members or friends it will provide an opportunity for subsequent communication (Sutter, 2002). People use TV-viewing to put up with the hardship of daily life (Henning & Vorderer, 2001). An up-to-date research by Sophia Moskalenko and Steven Heine (2003) from the US Penn University showed that people feel better after TV-viewing. This statement is based on several studies and the authors Moskalenko and Heine (2003: p.84) declared that they provided "the first experimental evidence that TV-viewing is associated with enhanced positive feelings about the self." And this already after watching TV for only 6 to 10 minutes! Their results indicated that people receiving failure feedback watched longer than the control group who likewise watched longer than those people who received success feedback. "People actively seek television as a stimulus to distract themselves from the failures or concerns that they may have at the moment" (Moskalenko & Heine, 2003: p.84).

In contrast, people who are not satisfied with their life tend to watch more TV, as shown in Kubey and Csikszentmihalyi (1990b) research findings in which unhappy individuals, who in addition had problems structuring their leisure time, were more likely to watch more TV than happy individuals. Similarly, unhappy people who wanted to avoid for instance a discussion with their partner may turn to television to avoid quarrels (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Those who reported watching more TV also reported that their lives were less happy, dynamic and satisfactory than those who watched less television (Morgan, 1984) and this was true regardless of the choice of the programs by the viewers (Espe & Seiwert, 1987). Kubey and Csikszentmihalyi (1990b) found that TV-viewing contains a lack of challenge and failing to provide any opportunity for growth. Moreover, heavy and ritualized television viewing has

frequently been shown to correlate with decreased PWB (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b; Rubin, 2002) and lower life satisfaction (Frey, Benesch & Stutzer, 2005). Another Swiss study by the same authors found that heavy TV viewers reported lower life satisfaction when more TV channels were available (Benesch, Frey & Stutzer, 2006). Although TV-viewing is involuntary and enjoyed by the majority of people (Frey, Benesch & Stutzer, 2005), simply collapsing in front of the screen box almost every evening no matter what is on in order to basically pass the time is not bringing the expected satisfaction (Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Life satisfaction has been negatively associated with escape, companionship, and pass-time viewing motives (Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982a). People, especially older people, who are not satisfied with their lives, are using TV to escape or to forget about their problems (Barbato & Perse, 1992; Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982a), whereas elders reporting high levels of life satisfaction report using TV more for entertainment and relaxation (Barbato & Perse, 1992). This is one of the main benefits of TV-viewing, meaning that it offers immediate relaxation and entertainment at a very low cost (Frey, Benesch & Stutzer, 2005; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b).

Other researches have not found clear evidence for a negative relation between TV-viewing and well-being (Tan & Tan, 1979; Greenberg, Lewis, & Dodd, 1999). Watching TV and play can be very absorbing (Liebes & Katz, 1986). People who read or play sports feel relaxed as it is the case when watching telly. But people participating in these other activities report improvements in mood afterwards in contrast to TV-viewing in which research reveals that "people's mood after watching TV are about the same or worse than before" (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002: p. 51). Actually, people prefer to watch TV and seek this vegetate state, because they are so exhausted from work that they lack the energy to enjoy other free time (Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre, 1989). Television can give *psychological stability* during difficult times (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Relational activities including sports, going to cinema or having dinner outside are constrained by costs, they need effort and time while it is so much easier to watch TV (Bruni & Stanca, 2006). Watching TV has no entry barrier and heavy TV consumption of entertainment can be highly adaptive by helping to prevailing moods and shifting emotions from bad to good. The consumption of much entertainment can be uplifting in ways of managing to calm viewers down, to cheer them up and having beneficial effects on subjective well-being. Therefore, it is "adaptive, recreational, restorative, and in this sense, **therapeutic**"

(Bryant & Miron, 2002: p.577 in Miron & Zillmann, 2002). The goal of all people is to strive to achieve internal equilibrium (Conway & Rubin, 1991). Well-being is dependent on a person's personality characteristics and on his or her life experiences while positive life experiences shape a person in a different way than negative ones (Fredrickson, 2001; Gombor & Vas, 2008). The **broaden-and-build model** (Fredrickson, 2001) showed that positive and negative emotions have different and opposing functions. *Negative emotions* (i.e., fear, anger, sadness) narrow a person's momentary thought and action repertoire that used to serve the innate purpose to help survival. *Positive emotions* (i.e., joy, interest, pleasure) *broaden* a person's short-term thought and action repertoire, which in turn can *build* a person's enduring resources and by this serves the innate function to promote survival. The positive emotions in the broaden–and–build model have also an ***undoing effect***. In other words, positive emotions undo the decreased psychological and physical actions of negative emotions. Empirical studies have shown that happiness speed up recovery from cardiovascular problems (Fredrickson & Levenson, 1998). A range of intervention strategies could be suggested to clients including relaxation and behavioral therapies aimed at increasing pleasant activities, and cognitive therapies aimed at teaching optimism, and finally, coping strategies marked by finding positive meaning. A person's health and well-being is optimized as well as positive emotions are cultivated, which counteract negative emotions as well as broaden the scopes of cognition and action of a person and build their enduring personal resources for coping. So, positive emotions are worth cultivating because they can enhance psychological growth and improve well-being over time as well as may undo the after-effects of negative emotions. Furthermore, cognitive broadening produces an ***upward spiral*** toward enhanced emotional well-being. This is the so-called ***broad-minded coping***. People become *resilient* and it is said that resilient individuals bounce back from stressful experiences in a more quick and efficient way. Therefore, the broaden-and-built theory makes the prediction that experiences of positive emotions may over time build ***psychological resilience***. If people are used to their habits of relaxing in front of the telly, they most probably are not willing to give up this effortless activity, especially since relaxation state occurs as an immediate consequence. As a result, routine reality maintenance is crucial for daily mental well-being. Human beings typically engage in such maintenance unconsciously by falling into routines of social living (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b). This could be called a need to watch TV over and over

again in order to keep the balance of relaxation feelings. A Roper Poll study (1981) of 2000 US adults asked what gives them the most personal satisfaction day in and day out and the results revealed that family ranked first followed by the second rank of TV-viewing, which outstripped friends, music, reading, eating and work. As mentioned earlier, watching TV may serve the function of escape from reality (Henning & Vorderer, 2001). However, this could be an ***adaptive regression*** for overall well-being. Peterson (2000) mentioned that positive denial can be associated with well-being in the wake of adversity. TV may well provide one of the least expensive and most effective waking retreats for those weary or frustrated by reality demands. Repeated viewing of TV programs can provide a stimulating yet ordered and comfortable experience for the viewer. This is one of the reasons why many people view the same TV programs many times. They do this due to the fact that watching repeated TV programs is *familiar*, and filled with fantasy material that usually ends happily. All this provides ***psychological order*** (Gaunlett & Hill, 1999).

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2.6   Stress & TV-viewing

TV is going to be the test of the modern world…
We shall stand or fall by TV – of that I am quite sure.
- E.B. White (1899 - 1985)

We experience stress every minute in our lives. Lots of information is available through TV, radio or Internet 24 hours a day and while most people would agree that life without challenge would be dull or monotonous, studies have shown that too much challenge, change or hardship causes an increase in the risk of developing an illness. Psychologists refer to stress as the *silent killer* (Cohen, 2000). That's why it is so important to keep stress at a comfortable level. Stress seems to be the key to physical and mental well-being and by understanding what people are experiencing under pressure and how they are learning new coping behaviors will help managing stress levels more efficiently. Assessing stress is difficult because every person responds differently in a stressful situation and a clear definition is only at hand for extreme situations including death of a beloved person or the looming danger of physical injury. Everything that occurs in our life or exists in the environment is technically a stressor because it affects us in some way. For instance, a nice holiday at the beach can be absolutely relaxing for some people and sheer torture for others. Cross-cultural research findings showed that low or moderate stress levels among students can lead to constructive coping whereas students with high stress levels exhibit more avoidant coping strategies (Oláh, 1995). It is the perceived control over stress according to health psychologist that plays a key determinant in decreasing the stress response (Brannon & Fiest, 2007). So far there are three underlying assumptions about stress in the research literature. The first is that stress is *omnipresent* in every phase of our lives (Folkman, 2001). According to a recent US study, people experience stress on 12 days within an average month and the main stressors included interpersonal tension, work-stress for men and network stressors for women (Almeida et al., 2002). The second assumption is that stress is a subjective and individual reaction to both *positive and negative feelings* and experiences in one's environment. The definition of stress by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) was that there is a special association between a person and his/her environment, and the person

appraises this link as either challenging with a positive feelings or eustress or this link is seen as going beyond available resources that produces negative feelings or distress. If the personal resources to handle stress are beyond one's capacity then this is endangering a person's well-being. The third assumption of stress is that people have to learn how to cope with stress. Stress is considered to be a pervasive factor in everyday life that significantly affects development and functioning (Brannon & Fiest, 2007).

Models of stress

Lazarus (1999) noted that the word stress was used as early as the 14th century to refer to hardship, strains and adversity. Later, the term was used in the 17th century in the physical sciences to understand how man-made structures could be designed to carry heavy loads without collapsing. This analysis of load and strain greatly influenced the 20th century models of stress in which the concept of load as an external force exerting pressure or force on physiological and psychological systems was conceptualized. The term stress is now used to describe a variety of experiences occurring in the physiological, sociological and psychological area. Hence, it appears more feasible to see stress as a generic term that acts as an organizing concept in understanding a variety of phenomena in human and animal adaptation (Lazarus, 1966; 1999). Stress then becomes more a unit of several variables containing three main elements. First, the most popular definition for stress created by psychologists is that stress is a *stimulus* in the environment and the person exposed to this stressful stimulus will react to it. So stressful life events require adaptation (Holmes & Rahe, 1967). The second concept identifies stress as a non-specific *response* in which the person responds to a demand. There is a focus upon the occurrence of the response as the actual stress itself and the physiological response is viewed to lead to a disruption of normal homeostatic and physiological functioning. This response definition of stress is very widespread in the natural science and medical field. For example, the Austrian-Hungarian born Hans Selye (1974), a noted pioneer in the field of stress theory, popularized the concept of stress, making a strong case for its definition as a response. Selye (1986 in Goldberger, 1986) defined stress as a nonspecific or generalized response to a variety of environmental stressors. Anytime a person's body encounters a disruptive stimulus, the body mobilizes in a general way and tries to

adapt to the stimulus. This process of adaptation or how to mobilize one's body is referred to as **general adaptation syndrome** (GAS). The general adaptation syndrome has three stages: The first stage is the *alarm reaction* in which the body's defenses against stress are activated. The second stage is the *resistance stage* in which the body mobilizes coping mechanism in order to adapt to the stressor. The final stage is the *exhaustion stage*, in which the body is not able to recover and this results in a breakdown or even death (Stokes & Kite, 2001 in Hancock & Desmond, 2001). The third, so-called interaction or relational definition is a combination of the stimulus and response models. It includes the entire process starting from encountering stressful stimuli in the environment until the response of the body along with the physiological changes and phenomenological stress experience (Tepas & Price, 2001 in Hancock & Desmond, 2001). This relational perspective, also called psychological model of stress, emphasizes the need to understand the nature of the relationship between a person and his environment (Cohen, Evans, Stokols & Krantz, 1986) so that the complex reaction pattern and its adaptational outcomes can be understood (Lazarus, 2000; Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). Hence, this definition of stress emphasizes the relationship between the person and the environment in which individual characteristics of the person and the nature of the environmental event are given equal consideration. Thus, in order to understand what causes psychological stress in different people, an examination of two critical processes that serve to mediate the person environment relationship, cognition and coping, must be examined (Stokes & Kite, 2001 in Hancock & Desmond, 2001).

Appraisals of stress

Events or conditions that trigger stress reactions are called *stressors (*Girdano, Everly & Dusek, 1997). In general, stress affects different people in different ways. It can cause addictive behaviors as well as psychological problems such as irritation, inability to concentrate, difficulty to make decisions and sleeping disorders (WHO, 2005). People often complain that stress is negatively affecting their functioning by impairing their concentration ability, problem-solving ability, decision-making ability and the ability to get work done (Lyon, 2000; Goleman & Gurin, 1993). It is also believed that severe and prolonged stress exposure is impairing homeostatic mechanisms and in turn affecting hormonal levels in the body, which can in turn

affect different body systems including eating habits (Lyon, 2000). In addition, stress has been linked to symptomatic experiences such as fatigue (Glaser & Kiecolt-Glaser, 1998), gastrointestinal upset (Whitehead & Schuster, 1985) and headaches (Davis, Holm, Myers & Suda, 1998). When people begin to show awareness about the stress circumstance that they are facing at the moment then the process of stress appraisal follows. There are certain environmental demands and pressures that can produce stress in a considerable number of people, both individual and group differences in terms of the degree and type of reactions that are apparent. Individuals and groups differ in their sensitivity and vulnerability to specific events, as well as the manner in which they interpret and react to those events (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, 1999). Hans Selye, who spent 50 years doing stress research, came to the conclusion that "it is not the stress that counts, but the way we react" (Selye, 1976, p.450). The author tells an interesting story of what happens if you pass a helpless drunk who insults you. In case you decide to walk on and ignoring the drunk then you most probably won't get upset physiologically. However, if you choose to fight back verbally or otherwise, "you will discharge adrenaline that increases blood pressure and pulse rate, while your whole nervous system becomes alarmed and tense in anticipation of combat. If you happen to be a coronary candidate, the result may be a fatal heart accident" (Selye, 1976, p.450). So the apparent question arising is then "what caused the death? The drunk or his insults? No, death was caused by choosing the wrong reaction" (Selye, 1976, p.450). The same idea was also emphasized by Lazarus (1966) who called attention to the importance of individual perceptions or appraisal of the environment. This information suggests that much of the stress we experience in our lives may have little to do with what is happening in our environment, and much more with our interpretation of what is going on. The meaning we give to situations is based upon the type of cognitive appraisal we make. A person's appraisal starts with assessing what kind of problem he or she is facing and then deciding whether he or she is in trouble or all right. If the answer is in trouble then a second question quickly follows, namely what can be done (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000). According to Lazarus (1999), the basis of appraisal theory is that individuals are continuously assessing their relationship with the environment in regards to their well-being. In general there are three kinds of appraisals including primary, secondary, and re-appraisal (Brannon & Fiest, 2007; Lazarus, 1999).

The **primary appraisal** is centered on whether or not the occurrence is relevant to the individual's values, goal commitments, beliefs about self and the world, and situational intentions. Stress can be seen as: (a) *Irrelevant appraisal*, which occurs when an encounter with the environment carries no implication for the person's well-being. There is no personal benefit or consequence in the potential outcome for the individual. (b) *Benign-positive appraisal*, which occurs when the outcome of an encounter is perceived as positive. In other words, the outcome preserves or enhances the individual's well-being or promises to do so (e.g., joy, happiness, love, peacefulness). (c) When an individual appraises a situation as **stressful**, the event is seen as potentially *harmful* as with illness or injury, or as *threatening* and damaging to person's self-esteem, or last but not least as *challenging* and offering potential for gain or growth and by this positively influencing an individual's well-being (Lazarus, 1966, 1999).

The **secondary appraisal** is the *process* by which a person forms an impression of his or her ability to control or to cope with harm, threat, or challenge (Lazarus, 1991). It is a cognitive-evaluative process that deals with how a person handles a stressful person-environment relationship. Primary and secondary appraisal often merges while the latter appraisal type can be viewed as the cognitive underpinning for *coping* options including problem- and emotion-focused coping strategies (Smith & Lazarus, 1993). Secondary appraisal of a stressful situation is very much dependent on an individual's belief about their personal effectiveness and beliefs about the situation itself (Cohen, Evans, Stokols & Krantz, 1986). The decisions that a person makes during the secondary appraisal are not at all times conscious and there are many factors such as demands, constraints, opportunities and culture as well as personal variables that influence an individual's appraisal of harm/loss, threat, and challenge (Smith & Lazarus, 1993), and it further influences a person's coping process as well as the subsequent emotions that may result (Lazarus, 1999). As appraisal theories of emotion would suggest (Lazarus, 1991), it appears that cognitive judgments are intertwined with the affective processes associated with enjoyment (Palmgreen, 1984 in Bostrom, 1984), though a more complete set of cognitions beyond social comparison or moral judgment remains open to exploration (Nabi & Krcmar, 2004).

The third type of appraisal is dealing with **re-appraisal**, which encompasses the changing nature of appraisals. During re-appraisal new information is assessed and this information may lessen or increase stress (Brannon & Fiest, 2007). A vulnerable person is more likely to bump more often into stress and to have more difficulties to handle it because of lacking resources (Lazarus, 1999). In other words, vulnerability involves a deficit in one's physical and social resources as well as whether or not that specific situation holds some personal importance for the individual. Appraisal in general has an impact on a person's coping and emotional responses and by this playing an important role in the process of adjustment (Smith & Lazarus, 1993). Learning how to cope appropriately with stress is improving health (Cohen & Williamson, 1988 in Spacapan & Oskamp, 1988).

Measures of perceived stress in college students

Research on stress among University students is extensive and the findings have shown that high levels of stress among students can lead to severe health problems, depression and academic difficulties (Misra, McKean, West & Russo, 2000; Hudd, Dumlao, Erdman-Sager, Murray, Phan, Soukas & Yokozuka, 2000). The most often used questionnaire for measuring perceived stress levels is the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) developed by Cohen, Kamarck and Mermelstein (1983) and revised by Cohen and Williamson (1988). This questionnaire was also used in this study. It was designed to determine how stress is appraised as unpredictable, uncontrollable, and overloading (Cohen, Karmarck & Mermelstein, 1983; Cohen, Tyrrell, & Smith, 1993). Findings confirm that self-ratings of perceived stress measures are better predictors of health-related outcomes (Cohen & Williamson, 1988; Koopman, Gore-Felton, Marouf, Butler, Field, et al., 2000). Studies have shown that the Perceived Stress Scale proved to be a very strong predictor for burnout and stress outcomes (Hills & Norvell, 1991). Students react in different ways to the new life at the University. For example, the sudden change in lifestyle can be stressful for some while for others it is an exciting new start. However, fact is that stress in University students is increasing (Peden, Rayens, Hall & Beebe, 2001). Students in Colleges and Universities experience a wide array of stressful events including leaving home maybe even for the first time in their life, taking responsibility for their own life, adjusting to demanding academic requirements, and making new friendships with

local and international peers (Hudd et al., 2000; Misra et al., 2000). Older students, living at home, often have multiple role demands such as family or occupational responsibilities that can lead to increased perceptions of stress (Lengacher, 1993). Tinto (2000) stated that older students often feel isolated from other peers at the University. They often believe they have nothing in common with other students and are unable to establish the peer supports that are developed by younger students. College students, regardless of the year in school, deal with pressures related to maintaining high academic standards, time management issues, relations with faculty members, eating and sleeping habits, relationships with family and friends, financial problems as well as interpersonal relationships. Especially interpersonal relations caused a lot of stress among College students (Ross, Niebling, Bradley & Heckert, 1999). A study in a northern California community found that 37% of College students reported feelings of great stress more than once or twice a week compared to 29% of non-students in this community reporting great stress more than once or twice a week (Schafer & King, 1990). Another study (Toews, Lockyer, Dobson & Brownell, 1993) compared levels of perceived stress among residents, medical students, and post-graduate students (Ph.D.) at a major medical University in Calgary, Canada. They found similar elevated stress levels for all three groups although students in the post-graduate level showed slightly higher levels of stress than the other two groups. The three groups had similar stressors including preparing for and taking examinations, quantity of work required, time available, and self-expectations. Females in the Calgary study reported higher levels of stress than their male counterparts. Another study (Frazier & Schauben, 1994) assessing stress among female college students found that the primary sources of stress were test pressure, financial problems, being rejected by someone, relationship breakups, status of grade in the course and failing a test. They also found that Asian American female College students reported a greater number of stressors and a higher degree of stress than Caucasian American female College students. The second greatest concern among American College students was stress and tension followed by fitness (Holmes & Roth, 1985). According to Ramsey, Greenberg and Hale (1989), the University years may be the most stressful time in a person's life. Sarafino and Ewing (1999) validated in their research that the severity of the perceived stress is often dependent on the individuals' coping skills.

Excitation theory

Zillmann (1996 in Vorderer, Wulff & Friedrichsen, 1996) developed the excitation-transfer theory in order to explain what happens when a viewers watches entertainment. The conclusion of this theory is "that the physiological arousal accumulated during exposure, particularly to drama or action movies, does not drop immediately, but sinks rather slowly at the end of a movie. The high level of arousal that remains is interpreted by the viewer in light of new circumstances, namely the happy ending of the narrative. Therefore, the arousal is linked to positive cognitions, which results in euphoria. This transfer of excitation from a negative to a very positive condition is the mechanism that underlies the experience of relief or even salvation that can be observed in many media audiences" (Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004: p.402). This is also true for viewers who are watching scary, frightening and psycho-thriller movies with the purpose of enjoying the relief of tension that follows. "Whether this is the most appropriate and useful explanation for such physiologically based effects of entertainment usage or not, it only refers to very short-term or even immediate effects of exposure to entertainment" (Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004: p.402). Another question that remains open is how media use is having an impact on a person's feeling, thinking, and actions in a more enduring way and whether entertainment is educating people in a crucial way (Zillmann & Vorderer, 2000).

Catharsis theory

Little empirical studies have explored the purification component as an effect of media use. The catharsis theory is still under scrutiny, although Scheele (2001) brought the interest of the scientific community back to the oldest theory of entertainment that is linked to Aristotle's idea of catharsis. Aristotle's catharsis theory comprises two different dimensions, namely purging and purification, which, proposes that watching an emotion eliciting event should help people purge their own built up emotion and thus to achieve purification (McCauley, 1998 in Goldstein, 1998). However, this view is challenged by a number of studies demonstrating for instance that watching aggression increases aggression counter to the catharsis theory predictions (Zillmann & Johnson, 1973). Aristotle did not limit the possibility of catharsis to anger and aggression (Knobloch-Westerwick, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Freud (1930) believed that pleasure occurs when tension is reduced. If people

truly perceive televised shows as entertaining, then according to this our tensions are reduced by simply watching what we find enjoyable (Giles, 2003). TV-viewing is a personal and enjoyable activity and it is quite difficult to find people who would willingly surrender their TV set for several weeks (Fowles, 1992). Enjoying TV-viewing is a classic case of the expectancy-value effect (Cooper, Burgoon & Roter, 2001). In this sense, TV fantasies are comparable to dreaming. Television is a kind of dreaming and it helps people feel relieved (Fowles, 1992). According to Edward Carpenter (1972, in Fowles, 1992: 42), "television extends the dream world". The brain wave patterns during dreaming and TV-viewing have been found similar (Fowles, 1992; Robinson, 1990). As mentioned earlier, neurologically a decrease in beta waves and an increase in alpha waves occur, and therefore television viewing seems to have the same effect as dreaming. TV-viewing may be even better than our own dreams because it contains more dramatic plots. Americans find only 40% of their dreams compared to 80% of TV-viewing to be enjoyable (Fowles, 1992). The cathartic effect appears as an emotional relief, which is subjectively experienced as well-being after getting rid of aversive tension (Scheele, 2001), and thus, television doesn't add to mental storage but subtracts and serves as a kind of *psychological discharge* (Fowles, 1992). However, the key element in the catharsis hypothesis debate is the meaning of what is viewed (e.g. violence or entertainment) for which empirical research offers little support yet.

Is TV-viewing increasing or decreasing stress?

The needs of people have an impact on how they use and respond to a medium as proposed by U & G theorists (Ruggiero, 2000). Zillmann (1988) and Bryant & Zillmann (1984) provided empirical evidence for the above statement with their mood management theory. Mood influences our media choice and media consumption. The mood management experiment is an excellent example of how to overcome boredom or stress. Within the experiment, participants were induced to boredom or stress situations and were afterwards provided with a waiting period in which they could choose to watch either three soothing or three stimulating programs. The results confirmed that stressed subjects watched *more tranquil or relaxing content*, whereas bored participants watched mainly the stimulating or exciting programs (Bryant & Zillmann, 1984; Christ & Medoff, 1984; Zillmann, 1988; Zillmann & Bryant, 1985).

Stress and boredom leads to contrasting choices of media (Angelman, 2000) as shown in earlier researches by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) who suggested that being selective in media choice is in fact empowering the media users. Anderson, Collins, Smith & Jacobvitz (1996) confirmed previous findings that bored subjects prefer exciting programs whereas stressed viewers prefer to watch relaxing programs. Especially people with higher levels of stress are the most satisfied with television entertainment (Pearlin, 1959) because TV can substitute negative affect with positive affect, it displaces anxious thoughts and finally, this kind of short-term social withdrawal allows the negative affect to return to baseline level (Zillmann, 2000 in Roloff, 2000). Television offers an opportunity to withdraw periodically from unpleasant thoughts and by this providing relief from stress, which is rewarding and often leading to increased TV consumption (Anderson et al., 1996). Pearlin (1959) was one of the first ones to propose that viewers are using TV to relieve their stress and Zillmann (1988) as well as Zillmann & Bryant (1985) provided theoretical justification for Pearlin's proposal. A recent report stated that half the viewers for watching cartoons are adults and reasons given by the them for watching cartoons are that after a hard day at work while listening to depressing newscasts and going through the bills, it is uplifting to turn to cartoons in order to being taken to a more carefree time in life (Currey-Wilson, 2007). Lichtenstein and Rosenfeld (1983) found that TV-movies were functional alternatives for U.S. College students to relieve tension while White, Winzelberg and Norlin (1992) found that watching a humorous videotape among University students was not as effective as relaxation training. However, in comparison to a control group, it was significantly more effective in reducing physiological measures of stress. Another study relating TV-viewing indirectly to stress was done by Prerost (1993) who reported a method of reducing stress among the elderly by first encouraging relaxation through breathing exercises. Then subjects are instructed to visualize events in their lives that have been stressful. The third step involves changing the stressful images into less stressful images by infusing the images with humor. This is done by changing the mental scenes into images that are absurd and exaggerated. Cartoons and TV shows like Ally McBeal all use this kind of technique in which stressful events are ridiculed in an exaggerated and humorous way. The author points out that laughter can counter a depressed mood while reviving a person's sense of worth. According to Pearlin (1959: p.255), people's reaction to stress induced by their environment takes many forms and "watching television, or at least watching certain types of television

programs, appears to be the latest mode of response to stress. Whether television viewing is in fact an escape from stressful reality may be debated". Further details about this can be read in the next section of coping strategies and TV-viewing. Every society generates stress and people cannot remain untouched by stress or its consequences and it can be said without exaggeration that stress is a common feature of modern social life (e.g. Almeida et al., 2002). "Just as no society can exist free of stress, it is also likely that there is no society, which does not have accepted practices, which can function as coping mechanisms for stress" such as for instance TV-viewing (Pearlin, 1959: p.255). The idea that media use is guided by motivations for viewing to reduce tensions can be traced back to Leon Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory in which the inconsistency between two cognitive aspects produces pressure and the person has to find consistency, which often occurs by changing attitude. Personality aspects are related to TV-viewing (Babocsay, 2002; Weaver, 2003) as shown in the following studies. McIlwraith (1998) found an association between television addiction and personality. Participants who labeled themselves as TV addicts were more *introverted* and *neurotic*. Self-labeled TV addicts were also easily bored and due to this were more likely to watch television when being stressed or in a negative mood state (McIlwraith, Jacobvitz, Kubey & Alexander, 1991). For them television was often used as a distraction from unpleasant thoughts, to fill time when there was nothing to do, as well as to regulate their mood (McIlwraith, 1998). Stressed people will watch programs that serve to replace their anxious and negative thoughts with positive ones (Zillmann & Bryant, 1985). This study provides support for the findings that there are certain personality factors that are connected to TV use (Weaver, 2003). As Fowles (1992: p.7) noted "the real function of television may be not to put lessons in people's brains as much as to take things out. Viewing comedies and action shows may be a way of getting rid of stress and tensions that mount up over the course of a day in the heads of us all. If this were true, it would be a significant benefit for the audience and may explain why people flock to their television sets once the workday is finally over." This is an alternative view, which has gone unnoticed by past research and is forthcoming in recent years and studies (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999; Minnebo, 2000). Television viewing can be used as an *emotional crutch* in times of stress. This role of television as a so-called *visual anti-depressant* can provide distraction from the turmoil of the changes in life or the viewer can turn his or her back on the tube in favor of a new social life activity (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). People may be more involved and attached to the media

during stress (Ruggiero, 2000) and thus, stress is often released through watching entertainment as shown in field studies in which stress resulted in longer TV consumption and especially in watching entertainment (Anderson, Collins, Schmitt & Jacobvitz, 1996). A German study confirmed this finding in which the conclusion was that stressed viewers favor entertainment (Brosius, Rossmann & Elnain, 1999). In general, stress was related to increased comedy viewing and decreased news viewing (Zillmann, 1988). When it comes to gender differences then stressed women view more games, various programs and overall more television while stressed men watch more action, violent and horror programs (Anderson et al., 1996) because each program type as preferred by the genders function to displace unpleasant thoughts about stressful events. The study of Anderson, Collins, Schmitt & Jacobvitz (1996) supported that TV-viewing is used by adults to manage their mood and to reduce stress. However, we should keep in mind that watching television only appears useful in reducing normal stress levels and mild tensions (Milkman & Sunderwirth, 1987; Kubey, 1996 in MacBeth, 1996).

Watching TV can increase stress trough specific media news coverage such as the terrible September 11 attack on the World Trade Centers in 2001 or the Asian Tsunami flood in 2004. Observing stressful events on TV such as for instance the 9-11 tragedy increases a person's stress levels by 6% for every hour of watching newscasts about the 9-11 attacks. Even the dreams, or better to say nightmares, of these people contain twice as much threatening contents (Propper, Stickgold, Raeann & Christman, 2007). Such findings can also be applied to people coping with other tragedies such as the recent Virginia Tech shooting in 2007 (Waugh, Fredrickson & Taylor, 2008). Similar findings were found by the co-authors Schuster, Stein, Jaycox, Collins, Marshall, et al., (2001) in a RAND survey, which is a research institute in Santa Monica, California. This study involved 560 American adults and 90% of the interviewed subjects reported to experience some levels of stress. Roughly 44% of them stated to have one or more stress symptoms appearing 3 to 5 days after the 9-11 attack. These participants were watching TV and the attacks on average for about 8 hours and those viewers who watched more than the average tended to report more stress symptoms. The results of this study showed that Americans appear to apply similar coping strategies when it comes to dealing with stress levels. Talking about the event with other people was very important and 98% used this strategy, while 90%

prayed and turned to religion, 60% joined group activities, and 36% donated blood, clothes or money (Schuster et al., 2001). Another study about coping with the aftermath of September 11th tragedy was made by Schlenger, Caddell, Ebert, Jordan, Rourke et al., (2002) as published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association* (JAMA). These co-authors found a correlation between TV-viewing and Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) across the U.S. nation. This study offers empirical evidence for the fact that the terrorist attacks have had also profound effects for those who were not physically impacted. However, the cause-effect relationship is unknown. Schlenger et al. (2002) pointed out that people suffering from PTSD symptoms may have selected TV-viewing as means to deal with their feelings. "People who were distressed watched the coverage as a way of trying to cope with their distress" (Schlenger et al., 2002: p.587). These findings showed that television viewing could serve as a way to **cope** for some people. So TV-viewing in one way or another and especially positive television viewing such as televised entertainment can function as a tension reliever (Winick, 1988 in Oskamp, 1988). Hazard (1967) published a similar study about anxiety and TV-viewing. The most anxious people were the ones with the highest desirability for entertainment. Rosenblatt and Cunningham (1976 in Lloyd & Archer, 1976) found that the tensest people turned to TV-viewing for remedy. So TV-viewing is not just seen as a great relaxer but also to remove daily mental pressures. Kubey and Csikszentmihalyi (1990b) determined that people with a more negative view of life tend to watch more television. The negative aspects of heavy TV-viewing include that is can isolate people, it consumes time, people exhibit a more passive lifestyle and people are unproductive while watching (Moskalenko & Heine, 2003). Yet, TV-viewing is strongly interrelated into our lives. A study about mass media and housewives found that watching TV is incorporated into everyday lives of viewers (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Many people do not feel guilty for watching TV and on the contrary are actually reporting that TV-viewing is a light relief. It offers a necessary *relief* from everyday life stress (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Stressed individuals especially prefer to watch comedy (Anderson et al., 1996; Zillmann, 1988) and the response to comedy has been shown to reduce stress (Berk, Tan, Fry, Napier, Lee, et al., 1989), which in return ***improves our immune functioning*** because laughing reduces corticosteroid discharge (King, 2000). Thus, a positive effect of television entertainment on health relates to the positive moods for stress reduction (Finn & Gorr, 1988), and I personally favor this point of view as well.

2.7 Coping strategies & TV-viewing

Carpe Diem - Seize the day!
- Roman poet Horace (65 B.C. – 8 B.C.)

When coming across today's social stressors, may it be real or imagined, then there is no need anymore for a flight or fight response as mentioned by researchers at the Harvard University (Benson, Wilcher, Greenberg, Higgins, Ennis, et al., 2000). Coping with stress has been related to health and well-being in many studies (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen & DeLongis, 1986) while the newest trend in research is to investigate possible links between coping and media uses (Gordon et al., 2007; Greenwood, 2008; Minnebo, 2006; Shklovski, Kraut & Cummings, 2006). We all encounter mild or severe stress on a daily basis and have to cope with it in a certain way. People are also using the media for many hours' day in and day out. So exploring the possible associations between these two concepts is inevitable. Researchers and practitioners in mental health fields have realized that knowledge of media uses and psychosocial factors are important in evaluating health risks and developing disease prevention and treatment programs for diverse groups of people (Greenwood, 2008). Thus, let's take a closer look at the association between coping and media uses.

Approaches to coping strategies

Research about coping preferences has shown that coping styles develop during childhood and are similar in nature to those exhibited by adults (Hoffner, 1993, 1997; Kliewer, 1991). Kling, Mailick-Seltzer and Ryff (1997: p.270) argued that people "do not approach each coping context anew, but rather bring to bear a preferred set of coping strategies". Coping strategies are connected to personality (Suls, David & Harvey, 1996) while coping is a response to stressors (Lazarus, 2000) and this response is an attempt of the individual to master situations of harm, threat or challenge (Garland & Bush, 1982) when a routine or automatic response is neither readily available nor part of the individual's basic repertoire (Zeidner & Endler, 1996). Coping strategies are most of the time active and direct tendencies intended to reduce stressful events (Lazarus, 1991) and this involves cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes by

which an individual manages a stressful situation (Boss, 2001; Lazarus, 2000; Moos & Schaefer, 1993 in Goldberger & Breznitz, 1993). The process of coping consists of a quite large range of overt and covert behaviors. A person's actual response to an environmental incident is as relevant as the event itself (Garland & Bush, 1982) and coping effectiveness depends very much on the type of stressful situation that the individual is confronted with (Kling, Mailick-Seltzer & Ryff, 1997). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) defined coping as constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts that an individual employs to manage specific external demands, which are appraised as challenging or surpassing the resources of the person. Coping is further conceptualized in terms of the dispositional approach, which presumes that relatively stable person-based factors influence the selection of coping behaviors while the contextual approach assumes that transitory situation based factors shape the person's choices of coping responses (Holahan, Moos & Schaeffer, 1996 in Zeidner & Endler, 1996). These various types of coping are conceptually distinct, yet they tend to be related empirically (Carver, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989). More than 50 years ago, Conger (1956) officially suggested that people drink due to stress in order to reduce tension. This viewpoint proposes that drinking alcohol is a way of coping with stress and Pearlin (1959) said the same about TV-viewing as means of reducing stress. The studies by Pearlin (1959, 1999) were among the first to address the interaction of a person and the environment in which coping was identified as a behavior with a protective mechanism that functions in three ways. First, attempts are made to eliminate or modify the problematic situation. Second, the person perceptually controls the meaning of the experience in a way that neutralizes the problematic character of the situation. Third, the person attempts to keep the emotional consequences of the situation manageable. The author (op.cit) believed that all coping behaviors can be categorized into these three areas. As mentioned earlier, the motivational perspective of television viewing contains an approach and avoidance system (Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004). The research by Roth and Cohen (1986) on coping identified two basic orientations to stress, namely **approach** and **avoidance**. These orientations refer to the cognitive, emotional and behavioral activity that is oriented either to or away from a threat. *Approach* strategies refer to attempting to take appropriate action to either change a situation or to make it more controllable. It emphasizes the *focus of coping*, which is a person's orientation and activity in response to a stressor (Moos & Schaefer, 1993). People in this approach are

moving toward the problem and are engaging in active efforts to resolve the problem, and then focus on managing the emotions associated with the stressor (Zeidner & Saklofske, 1996 in Zeidner & Endler, 1996). On the other hand, *avoidance* strategies attempt to protect the individual from the overwhelming power of the stressor by distancing the individual from the experience (Roth & Cohen, 1986). Within these two main approaches, three basic coping categories are discussed in the literature (Zeidner & Saklofske, 1996 in Zeidner & Endler, 1996). These three basic coping strategies are also referred to as the *method of coping*, which is a person's response effort to handle the stressful situation (Moos & Schaefer, 1993) including *problem-focused coping* and *emotion-focused coping*, which are considered to be **active** coping strategies with either behavioral or emotional responses intended to modify the stressor (Holahan & Moos, 1987), while the third, *avoidant* coping strategies are considered to be **passive** coping strategies that include activities such as drinking alcohol or mental withdrawing from surrounding in which a person is not directly dealing with the stressful event (Moos & Schaefer, 1993). Due to this, avoidant coping is generally associated with greater distress (Miller, 1987). According to Roth & Cohen (1986), the chosen coping strategy has to match with the situational demand and to the possible outcome in order to be effective. Approach strategies allow for direct action and attempt to change the situation and by this giving the individual more control. Approach strategies generally seem to be more effective when an individual has more power or control over a situation (Lazarus, 1991). At first glance, this seems to be more effective than applying avoidance strategies (Holahan & Moos, 1987). However, a student for example who continually copes by studying long hours, getting little rest and neglecting his family or personal needs is not necessarily coping effectively. Potential alternative coping strategies can only be recommended by the psychologist when knowing what kind of coping strategy the person is utilizing and this can be determined by filling out a coping questionnaire.

Brief COPE inventory

Two instruments have typically been used by researchers in recent years to assess coping. First, the Ways of Coping (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis & Gruen, 1986) and the coping orientations to problems experienced COPE inventory (Carver, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989), which was

theoretically guided by the Ways of Coping. There is a long-version with 60 items and a reliable and validated short-version with 28 items of the COPE inventory. Both COPE questionnaires have stable scales and are thus enjoying currently a wide use among coping researchers. The COPE inventory has also two wording formats. The **trait-like** or dispositional form is asking participants to choose how they typically react to stressful events. The **state-like** or situational form of the COPE is asking participants about a specific stressor (Carver, 1997). The short-version or Brief COPE (B-COPE) scale with the trait-like form was used in this doctoral project. The Brief COPE inventory contains 14 scales that can be divided into different coping styles (see Table 3).

Table 3: Brief COPE subscales reflecting active or avoidant coping strategies

Problem-focused coping:	**Emotion-focused coping:**	**Avoidant coping:**
• Active coping • Planning • Use of instrumental support	• Use of emotional support • Positive reframing • Acceptance • Denial • Religion	• Venting of emotions • Behavioural disengagement • Self-distraction (formerly mental disengagement) • Substance use • Humor • Self-blame

Source: Carver (1997)

Emotions and problems can be regulated and solved in many ways and therefore coping strategies have to be subdivided (Carver & Scheier, 1993 in Krohne, 1993). Problem-focused, emotion-focused and avoidance coping are all considered coping responses that a person uses to adjust to a stressor. All three strategies can facilitate or impede the coping process and all three can involve a cognitive and behavioral response. The main goal of the person is it to manage a stressor and to minimize the negative emotional or bodily affects (Lepore & Evans, 1996 in Zeidner & Endler, 1996). Coping resources such as for instance social support or social networks are having an impact on how a person is dealing with stressful life events. Once an event is appraised as involving harm, threat, or challenge a coping response is necessary in order to prevent or control emotional distress and to reduce anxiety (Carthwright & Cooper, 1993). For that reason, coping protects a person from being psychologically and physically harmed (Monat & Lazarus, 1991).

Active coping strategies & TV-viewing

Active coping strategies reflect cognitive and behavioral attempts to change how a problem is considered and to solve the problems by directly dealing with it (Carver, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989; Lengua & Sandler, 1996). People have stable patterns of motivation, which in turn have significant implications for stress and coping (Chun, Moos & Cronkite, 2006). The similarities between television viewing and coping strategies are that, for instance, TV-viewers are not uniformly active in their media consumption (Blumler, 1979; Rubin & Perse, 1987b) and the same is true for coping preferences (Carver, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989; Kling, Mailick-Seltzer & Ryff, 1997). Although people's viewing behavior and coping styles differ according to person and situation, we all have certain tendencies to react and behave in a certain way and these more or less stable patterns may help clarify the relationship between media gratification and coping strategies, which in turn may help to predict viewing motivations. People cope better when they are able to turn to familiar strategies (Carver, 1997) such as for example TV-viewing. Studies by Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch (1974) and Rubin (1983, 2002) suggested that basic viewing motives may be linked to one's social and psychological factors. This means that a viewer looks for specific programs that will fulfill his or her needs for companionship or escape, which are influenced by his/her personal character. Research has found that television viewing is frequently used as a coping strategy by children and adults (Chen & Kennedy, 2005; Kennedy et al., 2002; Ryan, 1989; Ryan-Wenger & Copeland, 1994; Sharrer & Ryan-Wenger, 1995) and coping has been identified as a significant motive (Chang & Yeh, 2003). The **gap** in these studies mentioned above is that television viewing motivations are mentioned to represent coping styles. However, these studies do only use single-item scaling in which TV-viewing is represented as a possible coping strategy but no information is provided on how various television motives were derived. Further, these studies do not empirically test how various viewing motivations may be related to specific coping strategies. This is a theoretical and scientific gap in the literature, and this research paper adds to previous research by expanding on the relationship between television viewing motives and real-life coping strategies

<u>Problem-focused coping</u> deals directly with the problem in order to alter the problem that is causing the distress (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980, 1985, 1988). Problem-focused coping is most likely to occur when conditions or situations are appraised as agreeable to change (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Problem-focused coping is best applied in situations where something can be done (Folkman, 1997, 2001). In addition, problem-focused coping can be conceptualized as an active behavioral effort to change the external situation involving shifting the level of aspiration, reducing ego involvement, developing new standards of behavior, new skills and procedures (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000). The problem-focused coping strategies in the COPE survey as described by Carver, Scheier and Weintraub (1989) include techniques as:

➢ *Active coping* – the person makes an effort to get rid of the stressor

➢ *Planning* – the person plans how to deal with the stressor

➢ *Use of instrumental support* – the person looks for info and advice about what to do

Problem-focused coping is defined as instrumental coping (Schmitz, Alsdorf, Sang & Tasche, 1993) because it includes choices of information gathering, problem-solving, communication, social skills training, time management, mobilizing supports and direct efforts at changing the environment. Little research can be found on whether any of the problem-focused strategies are related to instrumental viewing motives (i.e. information-seeking and social utility motives) and thus I hypothesize that there will be a positive association between watching TV for instrumental reasons and problem-focused coping because both concepts are similar and include the need for gathering information. Problem-focused coping is an active coping strategy and it is related to increased activity (Rokach & Brock, 1998) as well as active solitude (Rubenstein & Shaver, 1982) in which people are involved in a constructive search to deal with the situation. This may be linked to instrumental viewing motives, which have a positive effect on a number of distress symptoms (Minnebo, 2000). For instance, instrumental soap opera use is described by interpersonal usefulness and importance of the content in order to search and find advice about life (Rubin & Perse, 1987a). So people may apply problem-focused coping within their motives for viewing by watching programs that serve them with useful information on how to deal with the problematic situation. They take an active role and instrumental viewing is described as goal-directed behavior. In this sense, TV-viewing can be seen as a ***reference to the rest of the world*** because it constitutes a link between the home and the outside world when it comes to

receiving information, orienting oneself in society, interpreting and understanding context (Berker, Hartmann, Punie & Ward, 2005). Thus, it is a coping strategy for dealing with the gap that exists between the home and the outside world. Cantor and Wilson (1988: p.60) noted that "very little thought has been given to the mechanism underlying the different coping strategies". Particularly heavy viewers choose TV to occupy free time, although there would be many other possibilities like calling friends, reading or listening to music in order to pass the time. People often know what they want to watch and intentional viewing is strongly associated with instrumental uses (Rubin & Perse, 1987b). Since people are problem solvers, they try to acquire useful information in order to cope with life challenges and the media provides ample gratifications regarding lifestyles and what's going on in the world (McGuire, 1974). So individuals who deal with their problems in a problem-focused way will generally experience less distress (Miller, 1987). The attention to television is determined by the importance of what viewers find in program content (Anderson & Burns, 1991). Selectivity is shown in content preferences (Perse, 1998) and instrumental TV-viewing is selective (Rubin, 1984; Rubin & Perse, 1987b). However, selective viewing cannot predict program choice, which is determined through a range of variables (Webster & Wakshlag, 1983) and knowing the viewer's needs alone is not enough for predicting program choice (McQuail, 1997). Nevertheless, needs lead to specific patterns of TV use (Schmitt, Woolf & Anderson, 2003). "Television viewing provides a context within which the viewers' needs are being served" (Schmitt, Woolf & Anderson, 2003: p.267).

In addition, media response has been linked to other coping styles such as *blunting* (i.e. cognitive avoidance) and *monitoring* (i.e. information-seeking; Cantor & Wilson, 1988; Miller, 1987; Sparks, 1989; Sparks & Spirek, 1988). Miller and her colleagues (1988) have examined the association between preferences for monitoring and blunting, health behaviors, information-seeking, and distress. They found that high monitors and low blunters, who are likely to seek information about the threat, deal better with more information, more attention and reassurance, whereas low monitors and high blunters who are inclined to avoid threat-relevant information fare better without information, attention, and reassurance (Miller, Brody & Summerton, 1988). But apart from the research on coping with *media-induced fear* (Kubey & Peluso, 1990; Valkenburg, Cantor & Peeters, 2000), *TV as a social compensator* (Finn & Gorr, 1988), or *TV as a mood manager* (Anderson, Collins, Schmitt & Jacobvitz,

1996; Zillmann & Bryant, 1985), the literature offers very little insight into the connection between specific television viewing motivations and particular coping preferences.

Emotion-focused coping regulates the emotional response during a crisis and it prevails when the person beliefs that the stressor must be endured and nothing can be done to modify a harmful, threatening, or challenging situation (Folkman, 2001; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Emotion-focused coping is an active attempt to change the cognitive and emotional reactions, without directly influencing the external reality (Endler & Parker, 1990; Folkman, 1984). Emotion-focused coping strategies involve minimizing, distancing, selective attention and positive comparisons. According to Lazarus (1999), palliative or emotion-focused coping focuses on regulating the emotional response and it includes techniques as denial, diverting attention, searching for meaning, emotional distancing, expressing affect, cognitive re-labeling and relaxation training. The emotion-focused coping strategies in the COPE questionnaire as described by Carver, Scheier and Weintraub (1989) include techniques as:

➢ *Use of emotional support* - getting emotional support from another person
➢ *Positive reframing* - making the best of the situation by seeing it in a more positive light
➢ *Acceptance* - accepting that the stressful event has occurred and it is real
➢ *Religion* – turning to religion
➢ *Denial* – rejecting the stressful reality

Coping is related to mood changes (Folkman, 1997, 2001; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000) and this does not exclude the likelihood that mood also influences coping. Kohn, Hay, and Legere (1994) investigated hassles, negative well-being and coping styles and found that emotion-oriented coping intensified the adverse of hassles on psychiatric symptoms. Both, ritualized and instrumental media uses are based on motives, attitudes and behavior (Rubin & Perse, 1987b). Studies relating emotion-focused coping to motives for TV-viewing are rather limited. The emotion-focused coping strategies are hypothesized to fit to both instrumental (i.e. information-seeking motive) and habitual viewing motives (i.e. companionship and escape motives) because these viewing motives reflect how people may cope with stress by gaining advice or simply gaining companionship through switching on the set in order to alleviate negative feelings and distress. People can learn from TV shows by gaining

advice on personal problems (Herzog, 1944). In media research, TV-viewing is considered to be a medium of experience in which people encounter and negotiate worlds (Gershuny, 2000). Further, TV-viewing is giving reassurance about the world (Levy, 1978) and all this in a safe environment (Kubey, 1986). TV-viewing is an activity that can be enjoyed alone and it is still an effective coping strategy against loneliness (Austin, 1993). Especially older viewers tend to turn to the television in order to cope with their loneliness (Kubey, 1986). A way to handle difficult situations is by expressing emotions, which is important in coping, and it can be related to social support (Rokach & Brock, 1998) because it involves talking to people and getting advice. Individuals deliberately shape their own lives rather than merely react passively to environmental stress (Kling et al., 1997). Moreover, people prefer to maintain positive mood, which may be understood as a coping function (Folkman, 1992; Lazarus, 1991) and using TV to do so is an effective strategy as the mood management theory (Zillmann & Vorderer, 2000) has shown. Early U & G research has explored the audience needs and expectations as intervening variables within the mass communication process (Herzog, 1944; Pearlin, 1959). These studies indicated the connection between personality characteristics and purposes of media use (Babocsay; 2002; Gombor & Vas, 2008; Kósa & Vajda, 1998; Pearlin, 1959; Rubin, 1979). Television is able to satisfy the psychosocial needs of people (Katz et al., 1974). The uses and gratifications model applies this idea in which people recognize that they watch TV in order to get this connection. Gerhardt Wiebe, Dean of the School of Public Communication at Boston University in 1970, incorporated in his theory what role a person in society may play and then integrated this general view upon what viewers get from the media. He distinguished three types of messages. The *directive* messages enclose news, while *maintenance* messages include game and talk shows. Yet, the majority of media messages are *restorative* featuring crime, violence, wealth, sexual indiscretion, and freedom of social restraints (Wiebe, 1969). According to this, the programs seem to contain and release hostility for adult viewers and the function of these restorative media messages is perhaps to relieve tensions (Fowles, 1992). Wiebe (1969) proposed that the primary function of entertainment is to supply restorative messages, which ease the stresses of socialization. Television modifies the attitudes about lifestyles of young people notably as depicted in dramas, soap operas, and escapist TV serials. Any lifestyle change is stressful and TV or other entertainment media work to relieve this stress (Fowles, 1992). Television implements

an efficient calming and beneficent influence on people who are confined in hospitals, prisons and asylums (Vandebosch, 2000). Thus, TV-viewing has a complex identity ranging from passivity to escape and entertainment (Ling & Thrane, 2002). Windahl et al. (1986: p.59) stated that the emotional involvement or attachment of people to the media is different "and their attachment may be influencing both their media use and their gratifications from that use". Television creates home ambiance and the point is to have fun and to enjoy TV (Ling & Thrane, 2002). It has a *pacifying* component (Lull, 1980; Meyrowitz, 1985; Silverstone, 1994) and nowadays, TV-viewing symbolizes a way to cope with leisure and stress, which is a temporarily way of people to escape from stressful events or painful experiences (Driver, Brown & Peterson, 1991; Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000). Psychological fears are still spread by anti-television scholars antagonizing that TV-viewing traumatizes people by making the viewer anxious, aggressive and apathetic (Putnam, 2000). This is a negative myth about the media (Schoenbach, 2001) and a never-ending controversy in the literature of media studies. A well-known myth is clearly that we are *amusing ourselves to death* in which TV has become our culture (Postman, 1985). People to whom the world is presented by TV programs, especially news, come to expect information to be presented in small, disconnected and entertaining pieces. On the other hand, a positive myth about the media is that it serves as an escape and it can put us into a better mood (Schoenbach, 2001). This doctoral thesis is favoring the second viewpoint.

Passive coping strategies & TV-viewing

Passive coping is often referred to as avoidant coping strategies that include cognitive and behavioral attempts to deny threats and to avoid any confrontation with the problem (Lengua & Sandler, 1996). It is often described as a maladaptive coping strategy, but as Lazarus (1999) and Folkman (2001) have stated can a coping strategy not be entirely good or bad, adaptive or maladaptive because it always depends on the context. Avoidant coping strategies in the COPE questionnaire as described by Carver, Scheier and Weintraub (1989) include techniques as:

➢ *Venting* – increased emotional stress level and person wants to discharge these feelings

➢ *Behavioral disengagement* – a person is giving up to reach his/her goal due to the stress

➢ *Self-distraction* (previously mental disengagement) – a person is psychologically disengaging from the stressor through daydreaming, sleep, or watching TV

> *Humor* - making jokes about the stressor

> *Substance use* – using too much alcohol or drugs

> *Self-blame* – accusing oneself for the problem

Avoidant coping involves the use of wishful thinking, *escapism* and an overt effort to deny and distract oneself from the problem (Folkman, 1984; Zeidner & Endler, 1996). People using avoidant coping strategies are characterized by *suppressing their negative thoughts and feelings* as well as to be *preventive* involving disengagement of attention from distressing experiences *before* negative affect has been encoded and experienced (Diamond, Hicks & Otter-Henderson, 2006). Avoidant individuals are also described as having difficulties trusting others, they tend to think that love is transitory if real at all and are less likely to be upset when their relationship ends, and in general feel more isolated and lonely than other people (Shaver & Hazan, 1987). Avoidance or distancing, are behavior patterns that are thought to be more passive and are often thought of as weak or ineffective (Cole & Leets, 1999). Avoidance can be important to allow assimilation of a stressful situation until the individual can gain more control or acceptance. This can be especially effective in a situation where an individual has no control such as in the case of disease (Roth & Cohen, 1986). It is important, however, that avoidance or denial is used only to facilitate assimilation since denial can cause negative consequences. First, denial may cause the individual to not perceive or take advantage of opportunities to correct a stressful situation. An example of this would be a student who will not take advantage of student services such as counseling or tutoring. Second, denial can lead to unconscious build up of pressure in the active memory, which can cause psychological intrusions such as nightmares, rumination or negative feelings (Roth & Cohen, 1986). In case that avoidant individuals are successful in pre-empting distress altogether, one may expect them to show relatively positive health outcomes over the life span (Diamond et al., 2006; Ryff & Singer, 2001). If avoidant individuals regularly employ repressive coping as a dissociative emotion-regulation strategy, their chronically unregulated physiological reactivity may expose them to health risks over the long term. Repressive coping effects have been consistently associated with measures of sustained sympathetic nervous system activation, which is specifically related to detrimental long-term patterns of neuro-endocrine and immunological response

(Cacioppo et al., 1996; Kamarck & Jennings, 1991). People with repressive coping styles are more likely to experience higher levels of stress and anxiety (Sparks, Pellechia & Irvin, 1999). Further on, avoidant coping strategies are related to less life satisfaction (Chun, Moos & Cronkite, 2006).

Connecting avoidant coping strategies to other psychosocial factors as well as to TV-viewing motivation is imperative. Thus, more research is needed in this field in order to link avoidant coping strategies such as denial and mental disengagement to escape viewing motive. *Mental disengagement*, also called self-distraction (in the brief COPE), is a variation of behavioral disengagement and occurs through a wide range of leisure activities that serve the only purpose to distract the person from the problem. Distraction tactics involve alternative activities such as daydreaming, escaping through sleep, and escaping by immersion in TV (Carver, Scheier & Weintraub, 1989). The self-distraction scale in the brief COPE inventory (Carver, 1997) contains two items and one of it is specifically referring to television use. Moreover, the self-distraction scale is regarded to measure avoidant coping strategies so this already indicates a theoretical link between TV uses and coping behavior. Television is seen, as a legitimate form of relaxation, if a person needs to withdraw from daily stresses. The functions of relaxation and entertainment are similar because both offer diversion and escape from thoughts and daily life (Ling & Thrane, 2002). Distraction in general allows freedom from what is painful (Dahlquist, Söderberg & Norberg, 2008). The distraction function of TV can be so enormous that it reduces the pain of patients during dental procedures (Kubey, 1996 in MacBeth, 1996). People who are suffering from long-term disease or disability use TV to aid their recovery because it offers a great deal of mental stimulus in order to ease physical or psychological strains (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Television serves much better for unwinding activities and is often replacing other activities such as playing games with friends in which we would find relaxation and relieve from stress (Fowles, 1992). When it comes to research between TV-viewing motives and coping strategies then some studies (e.g. Minnebo, 2004) have included coping items as reasons or motives for using television. These studies (op.cit.) found connections between avoidant coping strategies and habitual TV-viewing motives such as pass time and escape. The association between these two constructs gives some potential answer as to *why* people choose TV-viewing for instance for decreasing their stress levels or to find useful information (Gordon et al., 2007; Greenwood, 2008).

<u>Escapism</u>

People seek escape by communicating with others and watching TV (Rubin, Perse, Barbato, 1988). The term escapism is a mental diversion in which people are using entertainment in order to escape from the unpleasant facets of daily stress (Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004). Escapism is defined as ***leaving the reality in a cognitive and emotional way*** (Henning & Vorderer, 2001). It also describes actions of people when they try to ease feelings of despair or sadness. The term escapism has a negative connotation because it is more dominant in urban societies and refers to the fact that hi-tech devices remove a person from his/her biologically surroundings by using cinemas, computer games, fiction literature, Internet, music, sports, and TV. But even healthy activities such as eating, doing exercise and having sex can lead to escapism when employed extremely (i.e. over-eating; Wikipedia, 2007). Nevertheless, shows that offer escapist pleasure are enough for people to continue watching (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999), but finding pleasure in escape viewing should be distinguished from entertainment viewing. As Sonia Livingstone (1988: p.66) noted "while entertainment may be found in many aspects of one's life…the escapist explanations constitute a specific contrast with the everyday life of the viewers". The escapist viewing motive can be defined as an escape from everyday life and as something else to think about (Livingstone, 1988; Rubin, 1983), whereas media entertainment in the escapism hypothesis is defined as an overproduction of unpleasant fantasies. People's fantasy styles predispose them to watch more TV and media entertainment (Valkenburg & Peter, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). There are two versions of the escapism hypothesis:

➢ **Thought-blocking hypothesis** – people with a lot of unpleasant fantasies view more entertainment with the intention to get rid of these obnoxious thoughts (McIlwraith, 1998; Valkenburg & Peter, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006).

➢ **Boredom-avoidance hypothesis** – people suffer from poor attentional control, thus are easily bored or distracted and therefore watch more entertainment (Schallow & McIlwraith, 1986; Valkenburg & Peter, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006).

These two versions of the escapism hypothesis have been supported by correlational studies, however the "causal direction of the relationship could not be established" (Valkenburg & Peter, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006: p.107). The though-blocking hypothesis is supported by Katz & Foulkes (1962) research while the boredom-

avoidance hypothesis has been confirmed by Kubey (1986) and Henning & Vorderer (2001). Let's take a look at these three studies:

First, Katz and Foulkes (1962) have pointed out that the mass media in general are expected to serve the public's need to distract themselves from their social lives and to escape into the dream-like world of the media. In this way, viewers escape from problems for a brief time and more importantly, daydreaming is not seen as harmful rather it is adding to be better adjusted to the environment and role obligations. TV-viewing may provide a good coping possibility for soothing our turmoil of conflicting emotions (Nabi et al., 2006). The uses and gratification theory argues for many years now that people turn regularly to TV-viewing in order to escape the stress encountered in daily lives (Abelman, 1987; Conway & Rubin, 1991; Henning & Vorderer, 2001; Herzog, 1944; Katz & Foulkes, 1962; Kim & Rubin, 1997; Kippax & Murray, 1980; Levy, 1978; Lichtenstein & Rosenfeld, 1984; McQuail, Blumler & Brown, 1972 in McQuail, 1972; Rubin & Perse 1987a; Vincent & Basil, 1997).

Second, Kubey (1986) gave three reasons for escapism: (a) people may want to escape from negative incidents at workplace, (b) people may want to escape from negative incidents in personal interactions, and (c) people may want to escape from negative incidents with the self and in idle time. The escapist model presumes that leisure time is filled with TV-viewing in order to pass time (Barwise, Ehrenberg & Goodhardt, 1982; Kubey, 1986). Especially heavy viewers make more use of TV-viewing because as Kubey (1986) showed these viewers feel worse during idle or unstructured time than light viewers. Thus, heavy viewers use TV to cope with unstructured moments. Yet, people select TV-viewing by purpose in order to get distraction or avoid whatever they wish to hide from. As Kubey and Csikszentmihalyi (2002: p.55) remarked is TV watching "an easy provision of relaxation and escape, and television can be beneficial in limited doses". Television viewing is frequently used by people to escape from negative and unpleasant moods such as being anxious, angry, lonely and sad (Kubey, 1986, 1996; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990a; McIlwraith, 1990; Schallow & McIlwraith, 1986). Research in psychology and mass media has identified a range of strategies used to regulate emotions in stressful situations (Cantor & Wilson, 1988; Hoffner, 1997). Frequently used methods include distraction, avoidance and seeking comfort (Hoffner, 1995). Research indicates that avoiding objective self-awareness is associated with relatively negative self-perceptions (Duval, Duval & Neely, 1979;

Ickes, Wicklund & Ferris, 1973; Wicklund, 1975). This view suggests that experiencing any spectrum of good or bad emotions is satisfying because this experience is *humane* (Mills, 1993) and the individual can experience a vast range of emotions in a safe environment of fiction but "entertainment is sought out not for its emotion-eliciting value but rather for its ability to attract our attention" and by this distracting the person from his negative self-image (Moskalenko & Heine, 2003: p.77). Entertainment is a good diversion from the self and this has been overlooked by past studies. The study by Korzenny and Neuendorf (1980) showed that there is a relationship between TV-viewing patterns and a person's self-concept. Their findings showed that self-concept is negatively related to TV use because the sense of isolation increases. This is similar to Kubey's (1986) self-alienation mentioned above, which explains the relationship between the amount of viewing and negative affect during idle activities. The same concept is discussed by Baumeister (1991) in his book "Escaping the self: Alcoholism, spirituality, masochism, and other flights from the burden of selfhood". The book discusses the devastating effects that contemporary society, with its emphasis on individuality, has on psychological well-being of human beings. The author (op.cit.) argues that besides the reassuring feelings of belongingness, people resort to some extreme measures to flee from the disappointment they feel when they focus their attention on themselves. Drug addictions, sexual masochism, suicide and other dangerous behaviors as the author claims can be seen as an overcompensation of the unbearable burden that modern society places on the individual. However, people may not need to resort to such extreme ways of relieving the discomfort when TV-viewing can provide a ***convenient escape*** from the self. Thus, television provides a useful temporarily escape for those who need it.

Third, a German study confirmed that "the concept of escapism proves to be useful in explaining TV use when it takes over a psychological and sociological perspective" (Henning & Vorderer, 2001: p.100). The authors (op.cit.) proposed three forms of escapism: (a) sociological escapism, (b) social-psychological escapism, and (c) individual-psychological escapism. This third form is very similar to Kubey's (1986) third reason, meaning that people feel alienated from the self during idle time and in order to escape from these unpleasant feelings, they are watching TV. We use the media to fulfill our various needs and these needs serve as motivations for using the media (Blumler & Katz, 1974). Empirical evidence is supporting this third form of escapism.

The need for cognition reflects a cognitive-motivational factor (Cacioppo, Petty, Feinstein & Jarvis, 1996) and people with a lower need for cognition or those who dislike thinking about themselves and their problems have a higher need for distraction and are watching more TV because the easiest way of escaping the pressure to think is by watching TV (Henning & Vorderer, 2001). People watch more TV depending on how bad they feel when they have nothing to do (Kubey, 1986) and this refers to "*individual-psychological escapism*" (Henning & Vorderer, 2001). Viewers have to make a decision to watch or not to watch (Van den Bulck, 1995) and by deciding to watch TV, which is the most inexpensive, always available and fastest way to distract ourselves from how we feel than anything that has ever been invented in the past (Kubey, 1996 in MacBeth, 1996). People want to be taken to another world by television and human beings have always been trying to escape how they feel (Katz & Foulkes, 1962; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990a). Applying escape coping during a stressful situation is as important as any other coping strategy (Lazarus, 1999). Some people resort to entertainment as a form of escape (Shklovski, Kraut & Cummings, 2006) and TV-viewing has been identified by Lull (1980: p.203) as a "resource for escape". Using TV-viewing as an escape route during times of stress is a favorite strategy of many people (Schmitz, Alsdorf, Sang & Tasche, 1993) because suppressing feelings is easy through the diversity of cognitive stimulation at the push of a button. It is assumed that people with a tendency to use more avoidant coping strategies and who are experiencing stress will apply an escape-viewing motive (Schmitz et al., 1993). This approach is similar to Conger's (1956) idea about alcohol use in which he postulated that people drink alcohol in order to reduce tension. These people usually display avoidant coping, which is strongly related to drinking alcohol (Moos et al., 1998). This idea was picked up by Pearlin (1959) by proclaiming that escape viewing is a form of reducing tension and therefore TV-viewing is a way to cope with stress. Empirical support for this is provided in a recent research by Jürgen Minnebo (2004) from Belgium in his doctoral thesis titled "Trauma recovery in victims of crime: the role of television use" in which he found interesting results that I also hope to find within my doctoral dissertation. The aim of Minnebo's research paper was to investigate whether a victim's TV use is also related to coping processes. A panel of 224 crime victims was longitudinally studied for this purpose and the victims had to complete self-report questionnaires at 3, 6, and 9 months post-crime. The findings at 3 months post-crime indicated that TV-viewing motives are related to the recovery

process because as the symptoms increase so are both males and females watching more TV in order to escape their unpleasant memories. Women in general tend to watch more TV during the first 3 month after victimization and they select more mood congruent programs with a preference for excitationally programs, whereas men avoid programs related to crime (Minnebo, 2004). The findings showed that **escape viewing always predicts higher levels of psychological distress** (Minnebo, 2000). Further, the stress levels of males were positively related to ritualistic viewing motives whereas the stress levels of females were positively linked to escape viewing motives and amount of viewing (Minnebo, 2004). TV-viewing may be a positive and appropriate coping strategy for temporary reducing stress (Anderson et al., 1991). These results indicate that there is a relationship between TV-viewing motives and coping strategies in which **avoidant coping is strongly associated with escape viewing** (Minnebo, 2004, 2006; Schmitz et al., 1993). Hence, adults are seeking refuge and comfort in TV-viewing at certain times and situations (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999) and while Minnebo's research (2004) dealt with victimized people, my doctoral dissertation will explore whether this concept is applicable to the general population. As Jib Fowles (1992: p.51) asserted is "television a grandly therapeutic force in the lives of virtually all Americans". Viewers may receive psychological services from the medium that they are unaware of but unconsciously seek for (Fowles, 1992). This is another gap in the literature that remains to be solved. There is reason to believe that our motivations for TV-viewing are associated with coping strategies. The use of the media as a coping guide in our modern world has become so predominant that as Ball-Rokeach (1985: p.496) said "there are few, if any, functional alternatives to the media system for the average American". Consequently, as a matter of fact, more research is needed to uncover associations between psychological adjustment and media uses (Greenwood, 2008).

Hitherto, the introduction section and now follows the formulation of the hypotheses.

2.8 Hypotheses

People nowadays see more of the world through television than they ever have. People use the TV content as a catalyst for social interaction in a variety of social settings (Rubin, 1981, 1983; Towers, 1986; Wenner, 1982). Since instrumental TV-viewing (information-seeking, social interaction) is a more involving experience (Rubin, 1984), the first hypothesis predicts that:

H 1 – **Instrumental** television viewing motives will be positively related to:
(a) TV-affinity
(b) parasocial interaction, and
(c) post-viewing cognition

Research is limited for the next hypotheses and therefore basically relies upon the notion that television viewing is frequently used a s a coping strategy by children and adults (Chen & Kennedy, 2005) and TV-viewing may serve as coping resource (Nabi et al., 2006), therefore, the next four hypotheses predict that:

H 2 – **Instrumental** television viewing motives (i.e. information-seeking, social interaction) will be positively related to **active, problem-focused coping strategies** (i.e. planning, use of instrumental support).

H 3 – **Instrumental** (i.e. information-seeking, social interaction) as well as **ritualistic** (i.e. companionship, escape) television viewing motives will be positively related to **active, emotion-focused coping strategies** (i.e. denial, use of emotional support).

H 4 – **Ritualistic** television viewing motives (i.e. escape) will be positively related to **avoidant coping strategies** (i.e. mental disengagement, behavioral disengagement).

The next hypothesis is exploratory in nature because no prior research was found to explore nation-based differences in television use and coping behavior. It is assumed that individuals may be distinguished by their motives for TV-viewing and that differences in their motives may explain the differences in their coping behavior. The more avoidant coping strategies a person applies, which is the easiest way for individuals to escape any type of pressure, the more ritualistic TV-viewing patterns

may be practiced. Thus, individuals will watch more ritualistic TV when they have a lower need for active coping mechanism. "Results of a survey study show that the concept of escapism proves to be useful in explaining TV use when it takes over a psychological perspective as well as a sociological one" (Henning & Vorderer, 2001: p.100).

H 5 – There will be more **cultural characteristics** between television viewing motives and coping strategies for the American and Hungarian sample than the Israeli, Norwegian and Swiss sample, since prior research has shown (e.g. Mediametrie, 2007) that Americans and Hungarians are watching more television than the other target populations.

The current hypothesis above is exploratory in nature because it embodies a new and understudied area of the literature. Therefore, testing what the differences are between the samples when it comes to television viewing motivation and coping strategies may be of interest to the academic community in order to contribute to media and coping theory development. Rokeach (1999) found that there are cross-cultural variations in coping strategies but cross-cultural studies on coping are still relatively under-researched. I truly believe that most people are not just watching TV for the sake of spending time and to be entertained because people are intelligent creatures and as such will choose and select what to watch on the telly. Therefore, viewers are selective and by going one step further, I would even say that people watch what they are and they are what they watch (Spier, 2003). This means that our interests and needs will determine what kind of shows or movies we would like to watch and it yet has to be discovered how our viewing motives may be related to coping strategies, especially in a cross-cultural setting.

H 6 – **Higher** levels of **life satisfaction** among students will predict **entertainment** and **relaxation** viewing motivation, whereas **lower life satisfaction** levels will predict **escape** viewing motivation.

Barbato & Perse (1992) showed that older persons not satisfied with their life used TV as an escape, whereas those elders reporting high levels of life satisfaction reported using television for entertainment and relaxation. So I would like to test this hypothesis on a younger audience in order to either confirm or disconfirm existing literature.

H 7 – **Higher stress** levels among students will predict **escape** viewing motivation.

The literature indicates that stressed people employ television viewing as a basis for escape (Lull, 1980; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990a; Zillmann & Vorderer, 2000). So it is worth investigating the associations between stress levels and viewing motivation.

Each of the seven hypotheses represents reasonable comparisons of psychosocial factors that are associated with TV-viewing motivations. The above mentioned hypotheses were attained because the generation in which I myself grew up is known as *TV-generation* in which we have tons of TV channels available and at hand so people are spoilt for choice! Television changes the lives of average citizens by showing and influencing the viewer with the symbols of wealth, status and power, which have become all too powerful in our culture of happiness. Nobody can really escape the flickering screen and it was an old intention of mine to examine the *positive* aspects of TV-viewing. Understanding the psychological relations between television viewing motivations and coping strategies as well as how daily routines of TV-viewing habits can affect our stress levels and life satisfaction is important for health practitioners to develop treatments. For example, understanding how and why students use TV-viewing to meet particular needs, such as coping, may be useful for University staff or any other institutional staff to better comprehend and maintain the mental health of their students. This may expand the research literature by illustrating a more positive view of television uses. The media, especially television, represents a significant part of our lives. Individuals who have one or more TV sets at home belong to the *majority* and people without a tube clearly belong to the *minority*. Since the sound and light of television creates a multi-faceted attraction by which people turn to it for a taste of another kind of life, it is important to assess what impact TV-viewing may have on our abilities to deal with problems on an individual and collective level. The purpose of the present study was to determine what the relationship is between TV-viewing motives and stress, life satisfaction as well as coping styles in University students living in their home country as in Hungary, Israel, Norway, Switzerland, and the United States. I have chosen University students as my sample because they are my age group and as such young adults whose viewing habits

and preferences are already set and established (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Furthermore, students are among those who have time to watch and who are most influenced by media use (Rubin, 2002). I am very lucky to have friends all around the world and therefore I could conduct research in five different countries to which I have strong ties. Previous studies (e.g. Gordon et al., 2007) revealed that there are inconsistent associations between motives for television viewing, stress and life satisfaction. At the same time, research on TV-viewing motives and coping strategies is scarce. Therefore, the above-mentioned topics are very current because these issues have not yet been solved although the topics in question are dating back as early as 1944 (e.g. Herzog, 1944). In addition, a similar cross-cultural study with the application of an online survey has not been conducted before in Hungary and the present study seeks to expand this previous under-researched area in order to fill this gap. Thus, this study highlights the importance of examining why students are watching television for a specific motive in relation to their reported stress levels, life satisfaction levels and coping strategies.

The next chapter will explain the methodological part of this research project in detail.

METHODOLOGY

If it weren't for the fact that the TV set and the refrigerator are so far apart,
some of us wouldn't get any exercise at all!
- Joey Adams in Friends (2004)

This chapter discusses the sampling method that was employed in this empirical study to ensure an accurate and credible data collection. The chapter begins by addressing the sampling procedure that was utilized for selecting respondents to participate in the online survey and continues by describing the specific target population chosen for this study. The procedure is addressed first in this chapter because several countries and many institutions as well as teachers were contacted and for this reason it is easier to explain and comprehend first *how it was done* prior to *with whom it was done*. The American website used for the sampling purpose was Survey Monkey at www.surveymonkey.com. The chapter concludes by discussing the survey instruments, which included well-known questionnaires selected to specifically measure variables associated with TV-viewing behavior, life satisfaction, stress, and coping strategies.

3.1   Procedure

The current study followed the uses and gratifications tradition to assess psychological traits and behavioral activities of participants by administering a web-based survey that can be accessed by invited University students from virtually any computer that is connected to the Internet. The decision was made to target students online because the research was carried out globally in five countries at the same time. Research has shown that the Internet access is very high among University students in the USA and Western Europe (Dillman, Tortora & Bowker, 1999). Further on, such an online survey gives manifold access to highly concentrated student populations while locating these students by random sampling would be very hard. Today, Internet-based surveys are very popular and successfully used for contacting diverse sample populations (Medin, Roy & Ann, 1999). One main criterion for being included into the data was that the respondents must be students enrolled at the selected

College or University in their home country. Most of the students were studying psychology, medicine, and economy, while some students were majoring in history, mathematics, or law. The present study focused on individuals who are watching television without any restriction to single programs or specific genres. No survey submission was discarded, though not everybody filled out each scale and because of this the number of responses for certain scales is varying. The students usually filled out each scale in the beginning of the questionnaire and got survey fatigue towards the end and that's why sometimes one-third of the responses are missing in certain scales. None of the students were reimbursed for their participation. The measures of life satisfaction, stress and coping strategies were considered as independent variables while television viewing motives were considered as dependent variables. The selection criterion for the current study targeted a cross-sectional population with a non-probability sampling by using convenience sampling from which interfering to the general population may not be possible but it is most useful for pilot testing (Wikipedia, 2007) and it may be representative of students and their TV-viewing style with a diverse set of preferences.

The following sampling strategies were employed to circulate the online survey among the five samples:

➢ A number of deans, professors, teaching assistants and University Department secretaries were contacted by e-mail in order to ask for their help in forwarding an e-mail cover letter with an URL link to their students' e-mail address. This ensured complete freedom of choice to participate as well as confidentiality and anonymity. The e-mail cover letter with an URL link to the online survey was forwarded by e-mail by these institutions to the selected students. Placing the URL link of the survey into the e-mail cover letter allows the respondent to simply click with their mouse on the URL link and to be re-directed to the survey site where they can consequently fill out the questionnaire.

➢ Another effort was made to solicit the participation of students by asking site administrators of University homepages in Hungary (Eötvös Lorand University), Israel (Tel-Aviv, Haifa and Bar Ilan University), and Switzerland (Zurich and Basel University) to place a link to the online survey instrument on their website.

The e-mail invitation message to the institutions included the specific instructions how and what to forward to the students. Both, the e-mail invitation message to the institutions and the e-mail cover letter to the students, contained a short description of the study and a URL link, which when clicking on it, forwarded the students directly to the beginning of the study on the American website of Survey Monkey at www.surveymonkey.com where the online survey instrument was posted for 25 USD per months. The online data collection occurred for six weeks from April 16, 2007 to May 25, 2007. The sampling rate (see Figure 3 in Results chapter) was quite high in the first two weeks and then gradually declined until I closed the survey at the end of the sixth week. The timing of the survey administration was strategically set to take place shortly before the end of the Semester to include the exam period and perceived stress levels as well as coping strategies applied during this time. The website of Survey Monkey automatically saved each response and those participants, who had filled out the survey once, were not allowed to fill it out again. A follow-up posting to each of the students was made after 2 weeks of the data collection in an attempt to solicit participation from students who may have missed the initial invitation. Copies of the e-mail invitation and e-mail cover letter can be found in Appendix B. When the data collection was over, the results from SurveyMonkey.com were exported to an Excel file and then transferred into a SPSS file.

The next paragraph will give a descriptive overview about each target sample in this study and the number of students participating according to countries (see Table 4).

3.2   Sample

A College and University student sample living in Hungary, Israel, Norway, Switzerland and United States of America was targeted in order to examine selective viewing behavior in relation to psychosocial variables. The following reasons will explain why a student sample was chosen in this study. Such a young adult population consisting of mainly students will provide some small age variance but is otherwise quite homogeneous in day-to-day lifestyle (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). A graduate and undergraduate student sample is often mentioned to be active media users and the most influenced group by the media (Rubin, 2002). The availability of students for viewing is certainly less tied to full-day routines of work and family. Furthermore, the student environment typically offers almost unparalleled opportunities for interactions

with peers who share the same situation and interests. This offers students greater opportunity to approach television with these group interests being salient rather than as isolated individuals. Given the above, it is quite possible that University students are less constrained by program structures and their own availability than the general population, and are therefore more likely to be more selective and active TV viewers than the general population or even non-students of the same age (Schmitt, Woolf & Anderson, 2003).

The *purpose* of the current study was to find associations between television viewing motives and life satisfaction, stress and coping strategies among University students from five different countries. The students in this sample were living in their home country as in Hungary, Israel, Norway, Switzerland and United States of America. I chose to conduct research in these five countries because of my personal relationship with each country and on a more general level in order to carry out a cross-cultural research study. A summary description about each sample according to countries (see Table 4) can be found below. Altogether, 1432 adult students, living in their home country, filled out the online survey. The mean age of the whole sample was 24.3 years (SD = 5.55). The students ranged in age from 18 to 46 years and the majority of students who completed the survey were females with 78 percent.

Table 4: Description of respondents who participated in the online survey.

Survey Title	Created for	Design	Collect	Analyze	Respondents	Clear	Delete
Üdvözöllek !	**Hungary**				**656**		
Welcome to this Survey !	**Switzerland**				**270**		
Welcome to this Survey !	**Israel**				**264**		
Welcome to this Survey !	**Norway**				**188**		
Welcome to this Survey !	**United States**				**54**		
	TOTAL				**1432**		

American sample

The data collection with the American sample was done by contacting first the Director of International Education at the Emory and Henry College in Virginia by e-mail and to ask for permission to forward the e-mail invitation message to the students. The research request was granted and my e-mail invitation message was forwarded by the Department to their students. Second, several teaching assistants at the Rutgers University in New Jersey were contacted by e-mail in which I asked for their help to forward my e-mail invitation to their students.

Taken together, **54** American students filled out the online questionnaire, 11 males and 43 females. The mean age of the American sample was **28** years (SD = 10.59). The mean age of American males was 29 years (SD = 14.35) and that of females was 27 years (SD = 9.70).

When it comes to working then 18 students clicked on the answer that they are not working, 22 students are working on part-time basis while 14 are working full-time. The marital status was answered with 32 students being singles, 11 with partner, 8 married, and 3 divorced.

The living condition of the students was that 6 students were living alone, 15 at home with parents or siblings, 9 with friends, 7 with partner, 8 with husband and child(ren), and 9 with other person(s). The majority of American students have 2 to 4 TV sets in their home and the majority of students have a TV set in their own bedroom, with 35 yes answers and 19 no TV set in their own bedroom. Most students are watching TV with their family (20 students), whereas the rest prefers to watch either alone or with friends. The majority of students are usually watching **1-2 hours** TV on a daily basis during the week while on the weekend they are watching TV for **2-3 hours**.

Unfortunately, not many American students filled out the online questionnaire. A reason for this could have been that the Virginia Tech shooting on April 16, 2007 interrupted the willingness of students to participate in this survey and of course their attention was focused on this sad and terrible event.

Hungarian sample

The data collection with the Hungarian students was done at two levels. First, professors and teaching assistants at the University of Eötvös Lorand (ELTE) and Semmelweis University of Medicine (SOTE) were asked to forward my e-mail

invitation to their students by e-mail. Second, the Head of the student organization was contacted in order to ask for permission to post the e-mail invitation on the website of the University of Eötvös Lorand at www.ppk.elte.hu where the students could directly click on the link and fill out the online survey. This was granted and the link was posted on the University website for 6 weeks.

Taken together, **656** Hungarian students filled out the online survey, 125 males and 531 females. The mean age of the Hungarian sample was **23** years (SD = 4.70), and this was the case for both males and females (SD = 3.95 and SD = 4.86 respectively). 373 students clicked on the answer that they are not working, 197 students are working on part-time basis while 86 are working full-time. The marital status was answered with 477 students being singles, 112 with partner, 60 married, and 7 divorced. The living condition of the students was that 50 students were living alone, 366 at home with parents or siblings, 41 with friends, 83 with partner, 60 with husband and child(ren), and 56 with other person(s).

The majority of Hungarian students have 1 TV set at home (265 answers) while some have 2 (227 answers) or 3 TV sets (164 answers) in their home. The majority of students have a TV set in their own bedroom, with 346 yes and 310 no TV in own bedroom. Most students are watching TV with their family (282 students) whereas the rest said that they are watching alone or with friends. The majority of Hungarian students are watching **less than 1 hour** on a daily basis during the week while they are watching TV for **1-2 hours** on a typical weekend.

Israeli sample

The first step was to establish contact with the Head of the Israeli student organization at Tel-Aviv University, Haifa University and Bar-Ilan University. Permission to distribute the e-mail invitation was requested and granted by the student organization. With their help the survey link was forwarded to the students e-mail addresses. As a second step, the student organization at these three Universities also posted the e-mail invitation with the survey link on their University website.

Taken together, **264** Israeli students filled out the online survey, 56 males and 208 females. The mean age of the Israeli sample was **25** years (SD = 4.29). The mean age of Israeli males was 26 years (SD = 6.07) and that of females was 24 years (SD = 3.62).

74 students clicked on the answer that they are not working besides studying, 163 students are working on part-time basis while 27 are working full-time. The marital status question was answered with 155 students being singles, 81 with partner, 26 married, and 2 divorced. The living condition of students was that 28 students were living alone, 102 at home with parents or siblings, 32 with friends, 54 with partner, 26 with husband and child(ren), and 22 with other person(s). The majority of Israeli students have 1 TV set in their home (109 answers) whereas the rest said that they have 2 or 3 TV sets at home. The majority of students do not have a TV set in their own bedroom, with 152 no answers compared to 112 yes answers. Most students are watching TV alone (143 students), while 64 students said that they are watching with family and 57 are watching alone. The majority of students are usually watching **1-2 hours** on a daily basis during the week while on the weekend they are watching TV for **2-3 hours**.

Norwegian sample

The Dean of the Oslo University College, Faculty of Nursing, was contacted to ask for her permission to distribute the e-mail invitation with the online survey link among her Faculty by e-mail. The permission was given and after sending the e-mail invitation to the Department secretary, it was forwarded to the students. Altogether, **188** Norwegian students filled out the online survey, 23 males and 165 females. The mean age of the Norwegian sample was **26** years (SD = 6.49). The mean age of Norwegian males was 28 years (SD = 6.43) and that of females was 26 years (SD = 6.47).

37 students clicked on the answer that they are not working besides studying, 145 students are working on part-time basis while 6 are working full-time. The marital status was answered with 63 students being singles, 87 with partner, 34 married, and 4 divorced. The living condition of students was that 24 students were living alone, 7 at home with parents or siblings, 41 with friends, 65 with partner, 34 with husband and child(ren), and 17 with other person(s). The majority of Norwegian students in this sample have 1 TV set in their home (119 answers) while the rest said that they have 2 or 3 TV sets at home. The majority of students do not have a TV in their own bedroom, with 123 no answers and 65 yes answers. Most students are watching TV with the family (68 students) or alone (62 students) or with friends (58 answers). The

majority of students are usually watching **1-2 hours** on a daily basis during the week while on the weekend they are watching TV for **2-3 hours**.

Swiss sample

The e-mail invitation was sent to professors at the Berne University as well as to website administrators at the Basel and Zurich University to forward the URL link by e-mail to their students. Altogether, **270** Swiss students filled out the online survey, 102 males and 168 females. The mean age of the Swiss sample was 24 years (SD = 5.66). The mean age of Swiss males was 26 years (SD = 6.16) and that of females was 23 years (SD = 5.00).

81 students clicked on the answer that they are not working besides studying, 149 students are working on part-time basis while 40 are working full-time. The marital status was answered with 129 students being singles, 118 with partner, 18 married, and 5 divorced. The living condition of the students was that 52 students were living alone, 86 at home with parents or siblings, 44 with friends, 45 with partner, 18 with husband and child(ren), and 25 with other person(s). The majority of Swiss students have 1 TV set in their home (155 answers) while the rest have 2 or 3 TV sets at home. The majority of students do not have a TV set in their own bedroom, with 207 no answers compared to 63 yes answers. Most students are watching TV with alone (127 students), while the rest is watching TV with family or friends. The majority of students are usually watching **less than 1 hour** on a daily basis during the week while on the weekend they are watching TV for **1-2 hours**.

3.3   Survey instrument

The survey instrument was based on self-reports, which is mainly used in media studies and it does provide accurate data about media use (Katz et al., 1974; Rubin, 2002). The goal of the survey was to acquire data about television viewing behavior of young adults living in Hungary, Israel, Norway, Switzerland and the United States as it directly relates to their viewing involvement with television programs and indirectly to their coping strategies applied in daily life. This involved two major types of data acquisition. The first part of the survey focused primarily on items associated with the respondent's demographic characteristics and their personal

preferences for TV-viewing. The demographical variables about the students included *age, gender, marital status, education, working status, and living condition.* The second part of the survey contained several scales for measuring psychological variables that are related to television viewing motives, coping strategies, current perceived stress levels and momentary life satisfaction. These items were included in order to test several hypothesized relationships about television behavior and other psychological concepts.

The samples received the same questionnaires. The questionnaires used in this research were originally in English and they were translated into Hungarian for the Hungarian sample in order to ensure that the students fully understand the questions. A translator with a degree specializing in psychology terminology was contacted at the Eötvös Lorand University (ELTE) in Budapest. She translated the questionnaires into Hungarian and an impartial teacher, who blindly back translated the questionnaires into English, further checked the translation. Some scales like the life satisfaction scale (Diener et al., 1985) and the perceived stress scale (Cohen et al., 1983) have already been translated into various languages and therefore the Hungarian versions of these scales were downloaded for free from the website of the authors and used in the questionnaire. In addition, only the Hungarian questionnaire was administered to a Hungarian trial group of 25 students as a pre-test. After receiving those questionnaires, some minor adjustments had to be made to considering some fine aspects of the Hungarian language and after those alterations had been made, the English and the Hungarian survey versions were put online. The questionnaires were not translated for the Israeli, Norwegian and Swiss students since these students start learning English already within the kindergarten or at primary school level. Furthermore, all items in the different scales that made up the questionnaire were phrased at junior High-School level English and the content of the scales were general (see Cohen et al., 1983). Therefore it was assumed that these students will not have problems understanding either the language or the content of the scales. Within the comment section at the end of the online survey, the students were given the possibility to write some remarks and none of these students approached me with questions regarding the questionnaire, which may indicate that the Israeli, Norwegian and Swiss students understood the questions in the survey. Thus, the results may be interpreted reliably.

The entire online survey contained 245 items divided among 3 online pages and the time frame for filling out the online questionnaire was approximately 25 minutes. The respondents were given the option for some items to skip while other items were compulsory to fill out. This was done in an effort to minimize survey fatigue given the rather long length of the survey instrument. Only a partial section of the questionnaire will be presented below that was used and processed in the statistical analysis. The growth of the Internet has an impact on virtually every aspect of society and web-based surveying is no exception since it offers many advantages, including time and cost reduction as well as avoiding manual and error-prone data entry, over traditional sampling procedures (Medin, Roy & Ann, 1999; Reips, 2002). The survey as it appeared in its online form is included in Appendix A.

Measures

A Likert-type scale was used to measure each of the behavioral and psychological variables in this survey. The Likert-type scale has often been used in previous uses and gratifications research (Perse, 1994). Likert-type scales have several advantages including being highly reliable, having an appealing model and it can be adapted to measure diverse attitudes (Reips, 2002).

General TV consumption scale

The respondents had to indicate separately *how much* they are watching television on a typical weekday and typical weekend. The seven response categories for TV-viewing on a typical weekday and weekend included *less than 1 hour; 1-2 hours; 3-4 hours; 5-6 hours; and more than 7 hours*. The respondent also had to indicate during what times they are watching TV on a typical weekday and weekend. The eight time periods included from *6 a.m.–9 a.m.; 9 a.m.–12 a.m.; 12 a.m.–3 p.m.; 3 p.m.–5 p.m.; 5 p.m.–8 p.m.; 8 p.m.–11 p.m.; 11 p.m.–1 a.m.; and 1 a.m –6 a.m.* The responses to all these categories were summed to arrive at a general TV use on weekdays and weekends. Furthermore, the respondents had to indicate with whom they are watching TV and the response categories included *alone, with parents, with friends, with animal*. Previous U & G research has included a global measure of television viewing such as the amount of time spent in front of the telly and it has also been used as a

control variable since TV exposure has been found to mediate television involvement (Rubin & Perse, 1987b).

Television affinity scale

The television affinity scale reflects the importance that people assign to the television medium or specific programs (Perse, 1994 in R. Rubin, Palmgreen & Sypher, 1994). The television affinity is a five-item scale and has been used in several studies to measure television affinity of people in general (Abelman, 1987; Greenberg, 1974; Rubin, 1981, 1983; Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982a; Perse, 1994 in R. Rubin, Palmgreen & Sypher, 1994). It reflects an affinity with television viewing and the medium as a whole and conceptualizes a global measure of how important television viewing may be for a person. Further on, TV affinity can also measure a person's dependency on TV-viewing. In general, many scales such as TV affinity, parasocial interaction and post-viewing cognition can measure TV-viewing involvement. The TV affinity scale is used as control variable since previous research has found that it mediates reasons for television viewing (Conway & Rubin, 1991; Rubin, 1986 in Bryant & Zillmann, 1986). The TV affinity scale asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) that expresses their feelings of affinity while watching TV programs. Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for this measure have ranged from 0.79 to 0.93 in previous studies (Perse, 1994 in R. Rubin, Palmgreen & Sypher, 1994). Responses were averaged to create an affinity scale.

Parasocial interaction scale

Another scale measuring TV-viewing involvement is the Parasocial Interaction (PSI) scale. The original PSI version consists of 20-items (Rubin, Perse & Powell, 1985) but a short 10-item version of the PSI scale (Rubin & Perse, 1987a; Rubin, 1994 in Bryant & Zillmann, 1994) was used for the current study in order to reduce the survey length. The PSI scale was worded according to a favorite television show in which participants were directly asked to think about a favorite television show before responding to the items. Especially series with many episodes tend to foster a greater amount of involvement because in case that a person doesn't see his/her favorite

program then he-she may miss an important story element. Respondents had to indicate their level of agreement with each statement on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). High reliability and construct validity can be found in both, the long- and short-form of the PSI scale (Auter, 1992; Rubin et al., 1985). The 10-item version showed high internal Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranging from 0.85 to 0.91 (R. Rubin & McHugh, 1987). Responses were averaged to create a PSI scale.

Post-viewing cognition scale

When a person continues thinking about a program, although he or she has stopped viewing, then the post-viewing cognition scale can measure this viewing involvement. The post-viewing cognition scale was developed by Rubin and Perse (1987b). It consists of four items in which the respondents have to agree with the statements on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Prior research has shown a high internal Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of 0.86 (Rubin & Perse, 1987b). Responses were averaged to create a post-viewing cognition scale.

Television viewing motives scale

The original television viewing motives scale was chosen for the current study consisting of 27-items measuring 9 types of ritualistic and instrumental viewing motives as identified in previous research (Greenberg, 1974; Rubin, 1981, 1983; 1984; Rubin, Perse & Barbato, 1988; Perse 1990a, 1998) including *habit, pass time, relaxation, arousal, entertainment, companionship, escape, information-seeking,* and *social interaction*. This scale was chosen because it involves a broader scaling of both ritualistic and instrumental viewing motives. A revised version of the TV-viewing motives scale has identified six factors for watching TV (Kim & Rubin, 1997) in which following dimensions of instrumental viewing motives were produced: exciting-entertainment, information-voyeurism, escapist-relaxation, passing-time, social utility, and companionship. The television-viewing motives scale is asking participants to indicate their reasons for television viewing and participants have to agree or disagree with each statement on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1

(strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Previous studies (Rubin, 1984) showed a high internal reliability alpha coefficients ranging between 0.68 (escape motive) to 0.87 (entertainment motive). Three more items were added to measure voyeuristic television viewing motives. This subscale is based on the sexual appeal of television content or TV figures (Perse, 1986; Kim & Rubin, 1997). The 30 TV-viewing motives scale was subject to principal component factor analysis with Varimax rotation in which the interrelated nature of the television viewing motives was recognized. Responses were averaged to create a ritualistic and instrumental television viewing motive scales.

Life satisfaction scale

The Satisfaction of Life scale was developed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin (1985) and further validated by Pavot, Diener, Colvin and Sandvik (1991) as well as by Diener and Pavot (1993). The scale is a self-report measure that assesses a person's satisfaction with his/her life in general. The questionnaire includes five items and is using a 7-point Likert scale in which the respondents have to indicating their agreement with each item from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The scale has a reported high internal Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of 0.87. The test-retest coefficient for the life satisfaction scale was 0.82 (Diner, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985). Factor analyses on the Satisfaction With Life Scale confirmed that a one-factor model could be used in 41 nations (Vittersø, Røysamb & Diener, 2002). The construct of life satisfaction is universal and people from different nations respond in a similar way to the life satisfaction inventory (Diener & Tov, 2007). In regards to the present study, Diener (2000) found that people from Israel were more satisfied with life than those from Hungary. Responses were averaged to create a life satisfaction scale.

Perceived stress scale

The PSS is the most widely used psychological instrument for measuring an individual's perception of stress (Cohen, 2004). The perceived stress scale (PSS) was developed by Cohen, Kamarck and Mermelstein (1983). This scale has 3 variations with 14-items, 10-items and 4-items. The 10-item measure was used for this survey.

Cohen et al. (1983) reported a high internal Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranging between 0.78 to 0.86 in three different samples. Acceptable evidence of validity was also found since higher perceived stress scores were related to failure to quit smoking, failure of diabetes monitoring and more sickness (Cohen & Williamson, 1988 in Spacapan & Oskamp, 1988). The PSS assesses the global measure of perceived stress in a person's life and how different situations influence our feelings and perceived stress. It also assesses the degree to which respondents encounter their lives as unpredictable, uncontrollable and overloading. The PSS items ask the respondents specifically about his/her feelings and thoughts during the last month. The 10-items scale includes a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). Some scores have to be reversed. Higher scores indicate a higher perceived stress level (Cohen et al., 1983). More recent studies have confirmed associations between perceived stress and various outcomes such as self-reported health, depressive symptoms, smoking status and help-seeking behavior (Cohen et al., 1983; Cohen & Williamson, 1988 in Spacapan & Oskamp, 1988; Koopman et al., 2000). Responses were averaged to create a perceived stress scale.

Brief COPE scale

The original and well-known coping orientations to problems experienced (COPE) scale consists of 60 items (Carver et al., 1989), whereas the brief COPE (B-COPE) scale consist of 28 items with 14 subscales and two items per scale that can be divided into three main coping categories (Carver, 1997). Both measures were developed with the belief that coping is a stable disposition (trait-like) rather than situational specific. The short-version scale with the trait-like form and present tense wording was used in the present study because it is less time consuming. The brief COPE scale deals with ways a person is coping with stress in his/her life and participants are instructed to report what they usually do when they are under stress. Respondents choose their answers based on a 4-point Likert scale that is anchored at 1 (I usually don't do this at all) to 4 (I usually do this a lot). Carver (1997) reported high internal Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for the B-COPE ranging from 0.50 (venting) to 0.90 (substance use) and this suggests that the coping strategies are quite stable over time. The internal validity of the B-COPE scale shows moderate inter-correlation while the test-retest reliabilities ranged from 0.46 to 0.86 (Carver, 1997). The 28-items B-COPE scale was

subject to principal component factor analysis with Varimax rotation in which the interrelated nature of the coping strategies was assessed. Responses were averaged to create different coping scales such as:

(a) **<u>problem-focused coping:</u>**

    including active coping, planning, and use of instrumental support;

(b) **<u>emotion-focused coping:</u>**

    including acceptance, denial, religion, positive reframing, and use of emotional support;

(c) **<u>avoidant coping:</u>**

    including behavioral disengagement, humor, self-blame, self-distraction, substance use, and venting of emotions.

The next chapter will highlight the results found in this current research paper.

RESULTS

Do not worry about your difficulties in mathematics,
I can assure you mine are still greater.
- Albert Einstein (1879 – 1955)

This chapter includes the hypothesis testing and the presentation of the findings. A total of 1432 respondents filled out the online survey during 6 weeks. A set of seven hypotheses were formulated to predict specific associations between the variables of television viewing motives, life satisfaction, stress and coping strategies. Pearson correlation analyses and multivariate linear regression models were used to determine the associations between television viewing motives and psychosocial variables. The statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS 10.0 for Windows.

Let's start this chapter by taking a look at the sampling rate of the completed surveys within the time frame of six weeks. The sampling rate was high in the first two weeks and then gradually declined until the survey was closed at the end of the sixth week

Figure 3: Sampling rate of the online survey during 6 weeks.
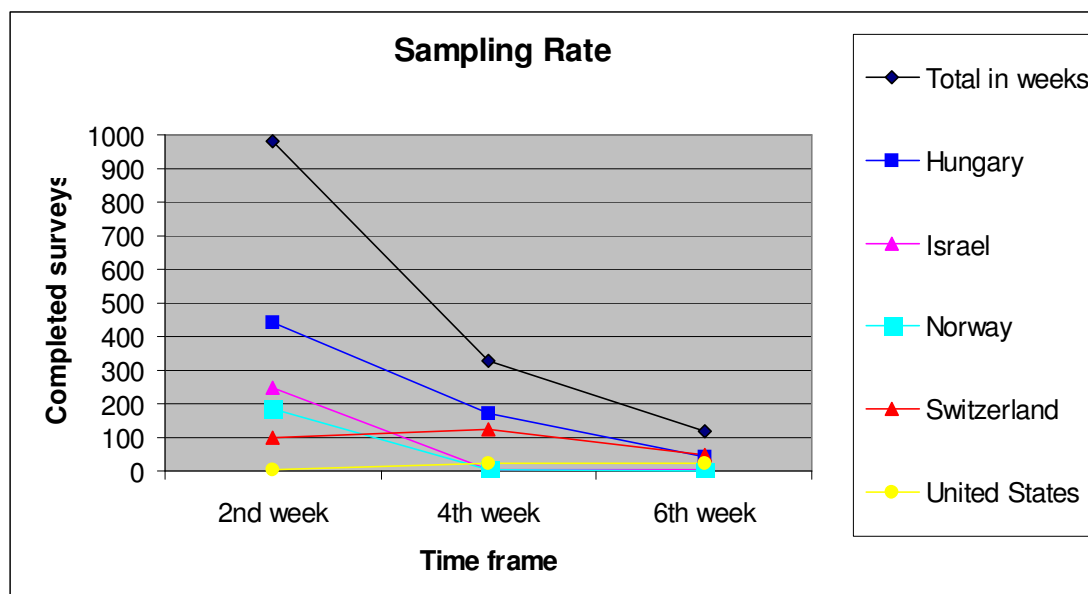
The Figure 3 above is showing the sampling rate of the completed surveys within six weeks. Within the first 2 weeks, 442 Hungarian, 7 American, 98 Swiss, 185 Norwegian and 250 Israeli students have filled out the online survey. I would like to mention here that the 250 Israeli students have filled out the questionnaire within 2 days! Within the 4th week, 170 Hungarian, 24 American, 126 Swiss, 7 Israeli and 3 Norwegian students filled out the online questionnaire. Last but not least, within the 6th week of having the survey online, 44 Hungarian, 23 American, 46 Swiss, 7 Israeli students have completed the questionnaire. Altogether 1432 students have filled out the survey, and they can be separated into 656 Hungarians, 54 Americans, 270 Swiss, 264 Israelis and 188 Norwegians.

Table 5: Descriptive statistics of all scales

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Life satisfaction	1124	5	35	16.74	10.84
Perceived stress	956	10	50	28.28	5.92
Parasocial interaction	972	10	50	13.75	12.65
TV-affinity	982	1	5	2.50	.64
Post-viewing	965	1	5	2.47	.83
Relaxation	1150	1	5	2.93	.94
Companionship	1420	1	5	2.81	1.11
Habit	1423	1	5	2.29	.89
Pass time	1417	1	5	2.69	.99
Enetrtainment	1419	1	5	3.22	.95
Arousal	1419	1	5	3.28	.94
Social interaction	1420	1	5	2.42	.87
Info-seeking	1422	1	5	2.29	.91
Escape	1420	1	5	2.37	.87
Voyeurism	1423	1	5	2.18	.98
Active coping	981	1	5	2.84	.89
Instrumental support	979	1	4	2.98	.74
Planning	978	1	4	3.11	.74
Denial	979	1	4	2.41	.88
Emotional support	977	1	4	2.21	1.11
Positive reframing	979	1	4	2.85	.77
Acceptance	978	1	4	2.68	.70
Religion	978	1	4	2.25	.95
Self-distraction	978	1	4	2.10	.96
Behavioral disengagement	978	1	4	2.03	.77
Substance use	979	1	4	1.46	.66
Venting	978	1	4	2.09	1.00
Humor	977	1	4	2.37	.80
Self-blame	977	1	4	2.36	.89
Valid N (listwise)	897				

The Table 5 above is showing the descriptive statistics including the number of responses, minimum and maximum of each scale range, the mean and the standard deviation of each measure such as the life satisfaction, stress, television involvement, as well as the different TV-viewing motives and several coping styles.

A rank order of means for the TV-viewing motives scale was also made in order to determine which motives are on average more important for the viewers. As Figure 4 is showing, viewing for entertainment and arousal motives are the highest ranked motives, while viewing for voyeuristic reasons is the lowest ranked motive.

Figure 4: Rank order of means for television viewing motives
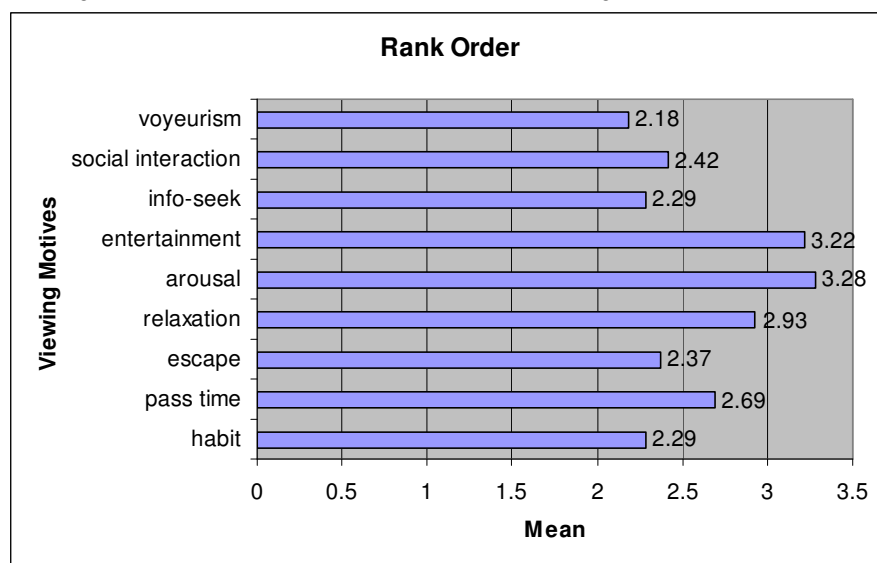
Psychometric properties of scales

A reliability analysis of all scales was computed to analyze the internal consistency of the scales. The Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients for all scales ranged between 0.50 and 0.84, indicating adequate internal consistency. The following Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients were computed for each scale: Television viewing motives scale ($\alpha = 0.84$), including relaxation motive ($\alpha = 0.59$), companionship motive ($\alpha = 0.81$), habit motive ($\alpha = 0.59$), pass time motive ($\alpha = 0.68$), entertainment motive ($\alpha = 0.77$), arousal motive ($\alpha = 0.67$), social interaction motive ($\alpha = 0.82$), information-seeking motive ($\alpha = 0.66$), escape motive ($\alpha = 0.50$), voyeurism motive ($\alpha = 0.72$). TV affinity scale ($\alpha = 0.61$), post-viewing cognition ($\alpha = 0.69$), parasocial interaction scale ($\alpha = 0.81$), life satisfaction scale ($\alpha = 0.73$), perceived stress scale ($\alpha = 0.76$), and B-COPE scale ($\alpha = 0.78$), including

active coping strategy (α = 0.72), planning strategy (α = 0.60), use of instrumental support strategy (α = 0.72), denial strategy (α = 0.67), use of emotional support strategy (α = 0.56), acceptance strategy (α = 0.50), positive reframing strategy (α = 0.78), religion strategy (α = 0.79), behavioral disengagement strategy (α = 0.80), mental disengagement or self-distraction strategy (α = 0.59), humor strategy (α = 0.69), self-blame strategy (α = 0.76), substance use strategy (α = 0.55), venting strategy (α = 0.58). Thus it was respectable in all five countries (see Appendix C).

As next, a principle component factor analysis with Varimax rotation was computed to explore the factorial structure of the 30 television viewing motives scale. The criteria for factors to be included were an Eigenvalue greater than 1.0 and at least two primary loadings greater than 0.40. In the end, 6 factors remained such as (1) Arousal-entertainment, (2) habit-pass time, (3) information-seeking-social interaction, (4) voyeurism, (5) escape-relaxation, and (6) companionship, accounting for 59% of the total variance (see Appendix C).

A similar exploratory factor analysis was computed for the B-COPE scale. The principal component analysis was used as an extraction method with Varimax rotation method in order to explore the underlying sub-categories of the 28 coping strategies scale. The brief-COPE can be grouped in this study into 9 factors explaining 70% of the total variance for which the Eigenvalue was greater than 1 and a factor loading with minimal value of 0.4. The nine factors can be grouped into (1) use of instrumental support-use of emotional support, (2) active coping-planning, (3) denial-behavioral disengagement, (4) humor, (5) substance use, (6) self-blame, (7) religion, (8) self-distraction-positive reframing-venting, and (9) acceptance (see Appendix C). The resulting factor structures for both the television viewing motive scale and the Brief COPE scale were similar to the original factors as established by the authors (Carver, 1997; Rubin, 1984) and both scaling were used in the hypothesis testing in order to apply a broader calculation with recognized measures. Subsequently, Pearson correlation coefficients as well as multivariate (also called multiple) linear regression models were performed to examine the association between television viewing motives and psychosocial variables including life satisfaction, stress and coping strategies.

Hypothesis testing

The statistical analysis included a not weighted multiple regression analysis for most of the hypotheses in which the countries were not separated and taken as an entire sample. Only for the hypothesis 5 was a weighted multiple regression analysis conducted and the data will present stratified results (i.e. within country). This means that the statistical power in each substratum (country) is similar with this weighted procedure and there is the same power to detect associations in the very large Hungarian and the small US sample. The following tables as represented in this paragraph will show only the statistically significant associations and the full tables for each hypothesis can be found in the Appendix C section.

H 1 – The Pearson correlation was used to look at the relationship between instrumental viewing motives such as information-seeking, social interaction motives and TV involvement variables such as TV-affinity, parasocial interaction (PSI) and post-viewing cognition.

Positive associations were identified between the instrumental TV-viewing motive for social interaction and TV-affinity ($r = 0.219$, $p < 0.001$), parasocial interaction ($r = 0.320$, $p < 0.001$) and post-viewing cognition ($r = 0.293$, $p < 0.001$) as well as between the other instrumental viewing motive for information-seeking and TV-affinity ($r = 0.239$, $p < 0.001$), parasocial interaction ($r = 0.217$, $p < 0.001$), and post-viewing cognition ($r = 0.268$, $p < 0.001$). The presented analysis revealed that all univariate associations in the Table 6 are statistically significant though the strength of the relationship is weak to moderate in size since the Pearson coefficient ranged from 0.2 to 0.3. Thus, the first hypothesis is supported (see Table 6).

Table 6: Pearson correlation for instrumental TV-viewing motives and TV involvement variables

	TV-affinity	PSI	Post-viewing
Social interaction	0,219**	0,320**	0,293**
Info-seeking	0,239**	0,217**	0,268**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed)

H 2 – Multivariate linear regression model was used to look at the relationship between instrumental television viewing motives (information-seeking, social interaction) and problem-focused coping strategies (planning, use of instrumental support).

A weak but significant positive association was found between the coping strategy of instrumental support and information-seeking viewing motive ($\beta = 0.080$, $p < 0.05$). A significant negative association was identified between active coping strategy and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = -0.098$, $p < 0.01$) as well as between planning strategy and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = -0.076$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, the multiple regression analysis provided partial support for the second hypothesis (see Table 7).

Table 7: Summary of instrumental TV-viewing motives and problem-focused coping strategies.

Independent variables (coping strategies) / Dependent variable (TV motives)	β coefficients *	p values
Instrumental support - Information-seeking motive	0.080	0.017
Active coping - Social interaction motive	-0.098	0.003
Planning - Social interaction motive	-0.076	0.024

* Adjustment was made for age, gender, work, marital status and living condition.

H 3 – Multivariate linear regression model was used to look at the relationship between instrumental and ritualistic television viewing motives and emotion-focused coping strategies.

A significant positive association was found between the coping strategy of emotional support and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = 0.087$, $p \leq 0.01$).

Weak but significant positive associations were identified between denial strategy and instrumental viewing motives for information-seeking ($\beta = 0.081$, $p < 0.05$) and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = 0.083$, $p < 0.05$).

A significant positive association was found between denial coping strategy and the ritualistic viewing motive for companionship ($\beta = 0.089$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, the regression analysis provided partial support for the third hypothesis (see Table 8).

Table 8: Summary of instrumental and ritualistic TV-viewing motives and emotion-focused coping strategies.

Independent variables (coping strategies) - Dependent variable (TV motives)	ß coefficients *	p values
Emotional support - Social interaction motive	0.087	0.010
Denial - Social interaction motive	0.083	0.012
Denial - Information-seeking motive	0.081	0.015
Denial - Companionship motive	0.089	0.006

* Adjustment was made for age, gender, work, marital status and living condition.

H 4 – Multivariate linear regression model was used to look at the relationship between ritualistic television viewing motives such as escape and avoidant coping strategies such as mental or behavioral disengagement.

Positive associations were found between self-distraction strategy (formerly known as mental disengagement) and relaxation viewing motive ($\beta = 0.179$, $p < 0.001$) as well as escape viewing motive ($\beta = 0.161$, $p < 0.001$). These results indicate that those with high mental disengagement scores are more likely to watch TV for relaxation and escape reasons.

A positive association was identified between behavioral disengagement strategy and escape viewing motive ($\beta = 0.119$, $p < 0.001$).

A weak but significant positive association can be found between mental disengagement strategy and habit viewing motive ($\beta = 0.071$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, the fourth hypothesis is supported (see Table 9).

Table 9: Summary of ritualistic TV-viewing motives and avoidant coping strategies.

Independent variable (coping strategies) / **Dependent variable** (TV motives)	**ß coefficients** *	**p values**
Mental disengagement - Relaxation motive	0.179	0.000
Mental disengagement - Habit motive	0.071	0.023
Mental disengagement - Escape motive	0.161	0.000
Behavioral disengagement - Escape motive	0.119	0.000

* Adjustment was made for age, gender, work, marital status and living condition.

H 5 – Multivariate linear regression model was used to look at the relationship between television viewing motives and coping strategies in the five countries as in America, Hungary, Israel, Norway and Switzerland. Please note that only the statistically significant associations with a p-value of $p = 0.000$ or $p \leq 0.001$ where taken into account for this hypothesis testing in order to give the reader a good overview and to facilitate the reading of the findings (see Table 10). The associations of the multi-adjusted linear regression analysis were grouped into positive, positive and negative as well as negative associations within one country and several countries. Further, the associations were also grouped according to problem-focused, emotion-focused and avoidant coping strategies in order to enhance the reading of the statistical analysis.

Positive associations were found for the ***American*** students between the problem-focused coping strategy of active coping and voyeurism viewing motive ($\beta = 0.198$, $p < 0.001$), between planning strategy and habit viewing motive ($\beta = 0.258$, $p < 0.001$), planning strategy and voyeurism viewing motive ($\beta = 0.214$, $p < 0.001$), between instrumental support strategy and habit viewing motive ($\beta = 0.339$, $p < 0.001$), between instrumental support strategy and pass time viewing motive ($\beta = 0.215$, $p < 0.001$), between instrumental support strategy and companionship viewing motive ($\beta = 0.301$, $p < 0.001$), between instrumental support strategy and escape viewing motive ($\beta = 0.287$, $p < 0.001$), as well as between emotion-focused coping strategy of acceptance and companionship viewing motive ($\beta = 0.202$, $p < 0.001$), between acceptance strategy and voyeurism viewing motive ($\beta = 0.154$, $p < 0.001$), between positive reframing strategy and arousal viewing motive ($\beta = 0.196$, $p < 0.001$), as well as between avoidant coping strategy of self-distraction and information-seeking viewing motive ($\beta = 0.308$, $p < 0.001$), between self-distraction and voyeurism viewing motive ($\beta = 0.196$, $p < 0.001$), between substance use strategy and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = 0.232$, $p < 0.001$), between venting strategy and habit viewing motive ($\beta = 0.218$, $p < 0.001$), and between venting strategy and entertainment viewing motive ($\beta = 0.329$, $p < 0.001$).

A ***negative*** and ***significantly strong*** association was found for the ***Americans*** between behavioral disengagement strategy and relaxation viewing motive ($\beta = -0.539$, $p < 0.001$). Negative and ***significantly moderate*** associations were found for the Americans between denial strategy and relaxation viewing motive ($\beta = -0.450$, $p < 0.001$), between emotional support strategy and information-seeking viewing motive ($\beta = -0.433$, $p < 0.001$), between positive reframing strategy and escape viewing motive ($\beta = -0.334$, $p < 0.001$), as well as between instrumental support strategy and information-seeking viewing motive ($\beta = -0.327$, $p < 0.001$) and between planning strategy and companionship viewing motive ($\beta = -0.351$, $p < 0.001$). Other negative and significant associations were identified for the Americans between avoidant coping strategy of behavioral disengagement and entertainment viewing motive ($\beta = -0.161$, $p < 0.001$), between behavioral disengagement strategy and voyeurism viewing motive ($\beta = -0.161$, $p < 0.001$), between substance use strategy and entertainment viewing motive ($\beta = -0.239$, $p < 0.001$), between emotion-focused coping strategy of denial and information-seeking viewing motive ($\beta = -0.292$, $p < 0.001$),

between denial strategy and voyeurism viewing motive ($\beta = -0.184$, $p < 0.001$), between positive reframing strategy and pass time viewing motive ($\beta = -0.151$, $p < 0.001$), and between positive reframing strategy and companionship viewing motive ($\beta = -0.236$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive association was found for the **_Hungarian_** students between the emotion-focused coping strategy of denial and escape viewing motive ($\beta = 0.168$, $p < 0.001$), between positive reframing strategy and information-seeking viewing motive ($\beta = 0.148$, $p \leq 0.001$), as well as between avoidant coping strategy of self-distraction and pass time viewing motive ($\beta = 0.177$, $p < 0.001$), between self-distraction strategy and companionship viewing motive ($\beta = 0.157$, $p \leq 0.001$), between substance use strategy and habit viewing motive ($\beta = 0.162$, $p < 0.001$), and between venting strategy and relaxation viewing motive ($\beta = 0.166$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found for the **_Israeli_** students between the problem-focused coping strategy of instrumental support and entertainment viewing motive ($\beta = 0.181$, $p < 0.001$), between instrumental support strategy and arousal viewing motive ($\beta = 0.209$, $p < 0.001$), as well as between the emotion-focused coping strategy of acceptance and habit viewing motive ($\beta = 0.201$, $p < 0.001$), between acceptance strategy and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = 0.204$, $p < 0.001$), between use of emotional support strategy and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = 0.196$, $p < 0.001$), between positive reframing strategy and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = 0.188$, $p < 0.001$), as well as between avoidant coping strategy of venting and information-seeking viewing motive ($\beta = 0.179$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found for the **_Norwegian_** students between acceptance strategy and arousal viewing motive ($\beta = 0.203$, $p < 0.001$) and active coping strategy and entertainment viewing motive ($\beta = 0.201$, $p < 0.001$) and between self-distraction (formerly known as mental disengagement) strategy and habit viewing motive ($\beta = 0.182$, $p < 0.001$).

Negative associations were found for the **_Swiss_** students between instrumental support strategy and voyeurism viewing motive ($\beta = -0.199$, $p < 0.001$) as well as between emotional support strategy and voyeurism viewing motive ($\beta = -0.212$, $p < 0.001$).

Following associations between TV-viewing motives and coping strategies can be found in several countries:

Positive associations were identified between acceptance strategy and entertainment viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = 0.169$, $p < 0.001$) as well as for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.208$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between denial strategy and pass time viewing motive for the Hungarians ($\beta = 0.246$, $p < 0.001$), Israelis ($\beta = 0.191$, $p < 0.001$) and for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.149$, $p \leq 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between denial strategy and companionship viewing motive for the Hungarian students ($\beta = 0.184$, $p < 0.001$) and Norwegian students ($\beta = 0.214$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between denial strategy and social interaction viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = 0.346$, $p < 0.001$), Hungarians ($\beta = 0.203$, $p < 0.001$) and for the Swiss students ($\beta = 0.229$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between emotional support strategy and relaxation viewing motive for the Israelis ($\beta = 0.167$, $p \leq 0.001$) and Norwegians ($\beta = 0.166$, $p \leq 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between instrumental support strategy and relaxation viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = 0.250$, $p < 0.001$), Israelis ($\beta = 0.252$, $p < 0.001$) and for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.184$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between planning strategy and relaxation viewing motive for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.184$, $p < 0.001$) and for the Americans ($\beta = 0.272$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between planning strategy and entertainment viewing motive for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.206$, $p < 0.001$) and for the Americans ($\beta = 0.312$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between positive reframing strategy and relaxation viewing motive for the Hungarians ($\beta = 0.145$, $p \leq 0.001$) and for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.182$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between behavioral disengagement strategy and pass time viewing motive for the Hungarians ($\beta = 0.162$, $p < 0.001$), for the Israelis ($\beta = 0.207$, $p < 0.001$), and for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.213$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between behavioral disengagement and companionship viewing motive for the Hungarians ($\beta = 0.156$, $p \leq 0.001$), for the Israelis ($\beta = 0.153$, $p \leq 0.001$), and for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.299$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between behavioral disengagement strategy and escape viewing motive for the Hungarians ($\beta = 0.214$, $p < 0.001$) and for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.181$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between behavioral disengagement strategy and social interaction viewing motive for the Hungarians ($\beta = 0.159$, $p \leq 0.001$) and Swiss ($\beta = 0.204$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between self-distraction strategy (formerly known as mental disengagement) and relaxation viewing motive for the Hungarians ($\beta = 0.222$, $p < 0.001$), Israelis ($\beta = 0.191$, $p < 0.001$) and for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.284$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between self-distraction strategy and entertainment viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = 0.182$, $p \leq 0.001$) and for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.174$, $p \leq 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between self-distraction strategy and social interaction viewing motive for the Hungarians ($\beta = 0.185$, $p < 0.001$), Israelis ($\beta = 0.169$, $p < 0.001$), and for the Swiss ($\beta = 0.190$, $p \leq 0.001$).

Positive associations were identified between substance use strategy and pass time viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = 0.133$, $p \leq 0.001$), for the Hungarians ($\beta = 0.179$, $p < 0.001$), for the Israelis ($\beta = 0.250$, $p < 0.001$), and for the Swiss ($\beta = 0.213$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between substance use strategy and companionship viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = 0.226$, $p < 0.001$), for the Hungarians ($\beta = 0.187$, $p < 0.001$), for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.174$, $p < 0.001$), and for the Swiss ($\beta = 0.219$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were identified between venting strategy and escape viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = 0.208$, $p < 0.001$) and for the Hungarians ($\beta = 0.177$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between venting strategy and social interaction viewing motive for the American students ($\beta = 0.193$, $p < 0.001$) and Israeli students ($\beta = 0.207$, $p < 0.001$).

A *positive* association was found between use of instrumental support strategy and social interaction viewing motive for the Israeli students ($\beta = 0.200$, $p < 0.001$) and a *negative* association was identified for the American students ($\beta = -0.336$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive association was found between acceptance strategy and relaxation viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = 0.289$, $p < 0.001$), the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.162$, $p \leq 0.001$) and a negative association for the Swiss ($\beta = -0.202$, $p < 0.001$).

A positive association was found between denial strategy and habit viewing motive for the Swiss students ($\beta = 0.189$, $p < 0.001$), whereas a negative link was found for the American students ($\beta = -0.276$, $p < 0.001$).

A positive association was found between emotional support strategy and companionship viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = 0.324$, $p < 0.001$) and a negative link for the Norwegians ($\beta = -0.204$, $p < 0.001$).

A positive association was found between emotional support strategy and entertainment viewing motive for the Israeli students ($\beta = 0.161$, $p \leq 0.001$) and a negative link for the American students ($\beta = -0.199$, $p < 0.001$).

A positive association was found between emotional support strategy and arousal viewing motive for the Israeli students ($\beta = 0.229$, $p < 0.001$) and a negative link for the American students ($\beta = -0.196$, $p < 0.001$).

Positive associations were found between self-distraction strategy and escape viewing motive for the Hungarian ($\beta = 0.200$, $p < 0.001$) and Israeli ($\beta = 0.251$, $p < 0.001$) students, whereas a negative association was identified for the American students ($\beta = -0.186$, $p < 0.001$).

A positive association was found between venting strategy and companionship viewing motive for the Hungarians ($\beta = 0.156$, $p \leq 0.001$) and a negative association was identified for the American students ($\beta = -0.205$, $p < 0.001$).

A positive association was found between behavioral disengagement and habit viewing motive for the Norwegians ($\beta = 0.166$, $p < 0.001$) and a negative link for the Americans ($\beta = -0.309$, $p < 0.001$).

Negative associations were found between active coping strategy and habit viewing motive for the American students ($\beta = -0.162$, $p \leq 0.001$) and Swiss students ($\beta = -0.267$, $p < 0.001$).

Negative associations were found between active coping strategy and pass time viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = -0.418$, $p < 0.001$), Norwegians ($\beta = -0.304$, $p < 0.001$) and for the Swiss ($\beta = -0.280$, $p < 0.001$).

Negative associations were found between active coping strategy and companionship viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = -0.260$, $p < 0.001$), Norwegians ($\beta = -0.199$, $p < 0.001$) and for the Swiss ($\beta = -0.223$, $p < 0.001$).

Negative associations were found between active coping strategy and escape viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = -0.330$, $p < 0.001$) and for the Israelis ($\beta = -0.235$, $p < 0.001$).

Negative associations were found between planning strategy and pass time viewing motive for the Americans ($\beta = -0.303$, $p < 0.001$) and for the Norwegians ($\beta = -0.176$, $p < 0.001$).

Negative associations were found between acceptance strategy and pass time viewing motive for the Israeli ($\beta = -0.183$, $p \leq 0.001$) and Norwegian ($\beta = -0.166$, $p < 0.001$) samples.

Negative associations were found between emotional support strategy and habit viewing
motive for the American (β = -0.192, p < 0.001) and Swiss students (β = -0.182, p $\leq$ 0.001).
Negative associations were found between behavioral disengagement strategy and
information-seeking viewing motive for the Americans (β = -0.438, p < 0.001) and for
the Norwegians (β = -0.174, p < 0.001). Thus, the multivariate linear regression
analysis provided partial support for the fifth hypothesis.

Table 10: Summary of regression analyses regarding TV-viewing motives and coping strategies according to countries ❶

Independent variable (coping strategies) – Dependent variable (TV-viewing motives)	American students		Hungarian students		Israeli students		Norwegian students		Swiss students	
	β coeff *	p value	β coeff *	p value	β coeff *	p value	β coeff *	p value	β coeff *	p value
Acceptance – habit motive					0.201	0.000				
Acceptance – companionship motive	0.202	0.000								
Acceptance – arousal motive							0.203	0.000		
Acceptance – social interaction motive					0.204	0.000				
Acceptance – voyeurism motive	0.154	0.000								
Active coping – entertainment motive							0.201	0.000		
Active coping – voyeurism motive	0.198	0.000								
Behavioral disengag – relaxation motive	-0.529	0.000								
Behavioral disengag – entertainment motive	-0.161	0.000								
Behavioral disengag – voyeurism motive	-0.161	0.000								
Denial – relaxation motive	-0.450	0.000								
Denial – escape motive			0.168	0.000						
Denial – info-seeking motive	-0.292	0.000								
Denial – voyeurism motive	-0.184	0.000								
Emotional support – social interaction motive					0.196	0.000				
Emotional support – info-seeking motive	-0.433	0.000								
Emotional support – voyeurism motive									-0.212	0.000
Instrumental support – habit motive	0.339	0.000								
Instrumental support – pass time motive	0.215	0.000								
Instrumental support – companionship motive	0.301	0.000								

Motive												
Instrumental support – entertainment motive					0.181	0.000						
Instrumental support – arousal motive					0.209	0.000						
Instrumental support – escape motive	0.287	0.000										
Instrumental support – info-seeking motive	-0.327	0.000										
Instrumental support – voyeurism motive											-0.199	0.000
Mental disengage – habit motive							0.182	0.000				
Mental disengage – pass time motive			0.177	0.000								
Mental disengage – companionship motive			0.157	0.001								
Mental disengag – info-seeking motive	0.308	0.000										
Mental disengag – voyeurism motive	0.196	0.000										
Planning – habit motive	0.257	0.000										
Planning – companionship motive	-0.351	0.000										
Planning – voyeurism motive	0.214	0.000										
Positive reframing – pass time motive	-0.151	0.000										
Positive reframing – companionship motive	-0.236	0.000										
Positive reframing – arousal motive	0.196	0.000										
Positive reframing – escape motive	-0.334	0.000										
Positive reframing – social interaction motive					0.188	0.000						
Positive reframing – info-seeking motive			0.148	0.001								
Substance use – habit motive			0.162	0.000								
Substance use – entertainment motive	-0.239	0.000										
Substance use – social interaction motive	0.232	0.000										
Venting – habit motive	0.218	0.000										
Venting – relaxation motive			0.166	0.000								
Venting – entertainment motive	0.329	0.000										
Venting – info-seeking motive					0.179	0.000						

❶ Only statistically significant associations at the $p \leq 0.001$ level are presented.
 * Adjustment was made for age, gender, work, marital status and living condition.

H 6 – Multivariate linear regression analysis was used to look at the relationship between life satisfaction and television viewing motives.

A significantly moderate and negative association can be found between life satisfaction levels and the escape viewing motive. This means that low levels of life satisfaction are more likely to predict higher level of escape viewing motive ($\beta = -0.227$; $p < 0.001$). Life satisfaction is not related to entertainment TV-viewing motive ($\beta = 0.007$, $p > 0.05$) or to relaxation TV-viewing motive ($\beta = 0.011$, $p > 0.05$). Thus, the sixth hypothesis is partially supported (see Table 11).

Table 11: Summary of life satisfaction and TV-viewing motives.

Independent variables (LS) / **Dependent variable** (TV motives)	**β coefficient ***	**p value**
Life satisfaction / Escape motive	-0.227	0.000

* Adjustment was made for age, gender, work, marital status and living condition.

H 7 – Multivariate linear regression model was used to look at the relationship between stress levels and TV-viewing motives.

The perceived stress level is positively and significantly related to the escape TV-viewing motive ($\beta = 0.240$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, the seventh hypothesis is supported (see Table 12).

Table 12: Summary of perceived stress and TV-viewing motives.

Independent variables (PSS) / **Dependent variable** (TV motives)	**β coefficients ***	**p-values**
Perceived stress scale / Escape motive	0.240	0.000

* Adjustment was made for age, gender, work, marital status, time spent daily with TV-viewing, and living condition.

Besides using multivariate linear regression models, this hypothesis can also be tested by using a two-factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA), which is testing whether there are significant differences between two or more groups in means on a variable. For this reason, two groups based on perceived stress levels were created with the first group having high stress levels (above the median) and the second group having low stress levels (below the median). The Tests of Between-Subjects Effects with escape viewing motive as dependent variable showed that adult students with high stress scores (above the median) have significantly higher escape viewing scores ($F = 48,134$, $p < 0.001$). The data output for this analysis received the table number 13 and can be found in the Appendix C section.

Hitherto, this chapter covered the detailed data analysis. The discussion chapter follows in which the findings will be linked to the literature review. However, before closing this chapter, I would like to refer to a comment of an anonymous online participant, who wrote: "I really liked participating in this survey. It's interesting to answer these questions because TV watching is something we all do but I don't think most people really think about why we do it or in what situations we do it, or what we put into it. This survey makes you think about those things. It is very well made, and it was fun taking part in it. Good luck with interpreting the results and writing about this interesting topic."

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The beautiful thing about learning is that no one can take it away from you.
– B.B. King (1962)

This chapter will connect the previous chapters with each other into a digestible perspective, especially by linking the findings to the literature review. Interesting results were found and possible practical implications will be discussed regarding what kind of new, significant and useful contributions may be added to the existing literature. As next, the strengths and limitations of the study will be addresses and subsequently, some interesting further avenues will be suggested and how a similar study may be improved. The last section will end with a summary of the conclusions.

The most popular form of leisure use in the modern world is television viewing. This fact is validated by the amount of time spent watching TV, which is steadily increasing despite the growing number of Internet users. Europeans watched on average 225 minutes in the whole year of 2005 (Mediametrie, 2007). This is why television use in everyday life has the attribute of a nice fireplace in which people gather around every night like the cave ancestors did around the fireplace in order to find safety, warmness and a sense of togetherness (Bryant & Bryant, 2001). So watching TV is a very important activity for the majority of people in many countries and it offers immediate benefits such as being entertained or relaxed at very low immediate marginal costs (Frey, Benesch & Stutzer, 2006). Thus, television continues to dominate our sources of entertainment and information (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, Signorielli & Shanahan, 2002). TV-viewing has remained the dominant medium in mass communication research (Becker, 1995). The impact of television in 15 countries has been studied by Robinson (1972) and he noted that television has had a greater influence on our daily lives than any other medium or innovation in this century. Weiman, Brosius and Wober (1992: p.492) said that "no wonder that this

powerful medium has become one of the principle vehicle of contemporary culture". The purpose of this dissertation was to examine the assertion that social and psychological factors can directly explain media use behavior. The uses and gratifications approach provides support for such a viewpoint in which TV-viewing is used for mood management reasons (Roe & Minnebo, 2007). The results in this paper provided support for this assertion in which for instance perceived stress was directly associated with TV-viewing motives. The interpretations of the results can be found below within the next few paragraphs. A summary table 13 was created for giving a direct overview of the hypotheses and findings. The explanations and discussion section for each hypothesis will follow below.

Table 13: Review of the hypotheses and its outcomes

No.	Hypothesis	Supported / Not supported
1	Instrumental TV-viewing motives will be positively related to TV-affinity, parasocial interaction, and post-viewing cognition.	Supported
2	Instrumental TV-viewing motives will be positively related to active, problem-focused coping strategies.	Partially supported
3	Instrumental as well as ritualistic TV-viewing motives will be positively related to active, emotion-focused coping strategies.	Partially supported
4	Ritualistic TV-viewing motive (escape) will be positively related to avoidant coping strategies (mental and behavioral disengagement).	Supported
5	There are more cultural characteristics between TV-viewing motives and coping strategies for the American and Hungarian sample than the Israeli, Norwegian and Swiss sample, since prior research has shown (e.g. Mediametrie, 2007) that Americans and Hungarians are watching more television than the other target population.	Partially supported
6	Higher levels of life satisfaction among students will predict entertainment and relaxation viewing motivation, whereas lower life satisfaction levels will predict escape viewing motivation.	Partially supported
7	Higher stress levels among students will predict escape viewing motivation.	Supported

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis was supported and the findings provided support for an integrative model to understand the associations between instrumental television viewing motives and television involvement variables as measured by TV affinity, parasocial interaction and post-viewing cognition. The findings in this study confirmed prior research in which audience involvement can be predicted by instrumental viewing motives (Conway & Rubin, 1991; Rubin & Perse, 1987a). Statistically significant and positive associations were identified in the present study between the instrumental viewing motive for information-seeking and TV-affinity ($r = 0.239$, $p < 0.001$), parasocial interaction ($r = 0.217$, $p < 0.001$), and post-viewing cognition ($r = 0.268$, $p < 0.001$). Accordingly, instrumental viewing motives and TV affinity are related with each other (Rubin & Perse, 1987b). Involvement is a psychological construct located within the person (Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). According to Levy and Windahl (1985: p.112) television involvement is defined as "first, the degree to which an audience member perceives a connection between him or herself and mass media content; and second, the degree to which the individual interacts psychologically with a medium or its messages". This means that television involvement is a cognitive and psychological process, which heightens the engagement of the viewers with favorite TV shows or TV-figure. The cognitive process of involvement includes the post-viewing cognition in which the person is thinking about a program after it is over (Perse, 1990b). The sample in this study consisted of students who are to a certain degree watching television, tough this sample did not show to have heavy viewers. Yet, they had to think about their favorite TV show when answering the parasocial interaction scale, so it can be concluded that these student certainly have favorite TV-shows that they do not want to miss and they are involved emotionally with their particular program that they are watching regularly. This suggests that television viewing behavior of students, which is an atypical lifestyle from working adults, may be more selective and less bound to personal lifestyle and program structure than it is the case for the general population. Consequently, this study included adult students and the results obtained will mainly be applicable to similar settings.

In addition, positive and significant empirical links were identified between the instrumental TV-viewing motive for social interaction and TV-affinity ($r = 0.219$, $p < 0.001$), parasocial interaction ($r = 0.320$, $p < 0.001$) and post-viewing cognition ($r = 0.293$, $p < 0.001$). The uses and gratification approach has a long history within the field of communication research and has proven to be a useful model for investigating how and why people use various communication media (Ruggiero, 2000). The U & G approach assumes that viewers are fully aware of their own motives and able as well as willing to express them accurately (Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). People have needs and know how to gratify these needs by using the mass media (Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch, 1974) and especially television viewing. The concept that viewers are active is a fundamental principle within the U & G perspective (Perse & Ferguson, 2003) though viewers are not uniformly active all the time (Blumler, 1979; Kim & Rubin, 1997; Rubin & Perse, 1987a). Uses and gratifications imply that activity levels and television involvement are predictably linked to television viewing motives (Levy & Windahl, 1984; Perse, 1998, 1990a; Rubin & Perse, 1987b). The Pearson correlation results showed that TV uses and viewer involvement are related to gratifications sought and obtained (Lin, 1993). People who are watching TV for social interaction reasons may do this in order to be able to discuss the information seen on the screen with family, friends and coworkers. Such a link between needs and information-seeking strategies is shaping a stable relationship between a person and the medium. Such a stable relation is expected to remain stable over time because the person continues to receive information for their daily lives that they can share with their fellow human beings. Television viewers with a stronger affinity for television viewing or people who are forming parasocial relationships with their favorite TV-show provide unique opportunities for advancing knowledge about audience behavior. Parasocial interaction is a sense of friendship with media characters (Rosengren & Windahl, 1972; Rubin & Perse, 1987a). Viewers perceive media characters as similar to them who are attractive, natural and down-to-earth people (Rubin, 2002). Parasocial interactions derive from interpersonal involvement with the media personality (Rubin & Perse, 1987a) but the concept is restricted to viewing experience (Horton & Wohl, 1956). Television viewing is not only giving a person the feeling that they are not alone but maybe also that they are in good company (Livingstone, 1998). People may engage with television because they can identify with TV characters. Viewers may refer to television with an interest in

how the fictional character on TV behaves during stress or in romantic bliss. Television may provide reassurance to people seeking their identities, especially when they do not have immediate social support (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). This may be one of the reasons why soap opera viewers have been routinely targeted by uses and gratification researchers. In a study of college student soap opera fans, Rubin & Perse (1987: p.264) found that "the appeal of a particular program that makes it an avid audience member's favorite is associated with more instrumental or goal-directed involvement". This study suggests that fans are more likely then casual viewers to be selective and purposeful in viewing specific television programs. It also suggests that fans are less likely then more casual viewers to watch television in a ritualistic fashion. In a later study of soap opera fans, the same authors suggested that the more satisfied one is with a particular television program, the more "planned and intentional" is their viewing behavior (Perse & Rubin, 1988; p.374). The authors of this study concluded that "motivated and active media use provides a truer picture of media effects" (Perse & Rubin, 1988: p.374). This present study is in accordance with previous research and provides evidence for a reciprocal relationship between TV-viewing motives and TV-involvement measures.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis was partially supported because the instrumental TV-viewing motives were positively and negatively related to the active, problem-focused coping strategies. The hypothesis was partially supported because the findings showed that there was a significant positive association between the information-seeking motive and the coping strategy of instrumental support ($\beta = 0.080$, $p < 0.05$). Watching television for instrumental reasons is a more involving viewing experience (Rubin, 1984) and viewers have higher intentions to look primarily for media content with more substance (Lin, 1993; Perse, 1990a). This means that people want to be informed and this in return will help them to better adjust to the environment. According to prior studies, people watch non-fictional programs in order to be informed and entertained (Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982b). People depend heavily on media for information and entertainment in a media-saturated world (Giles, 2003). Watching a soap opera for instrumental reasons is described by interpersonal usefulness and importance of the content in order to search and find advice about life

(Rubin & Perse, 1987a), which represents a problem-focused coping style. Newer models in the uses and gratifications tradition have distinguished between gratifications sought and those obtained (Rubin, 2002) as well as between ritualized and instrumental motivations (Levy & Windahl, 1984; Rubin, 1981). The model has been extended since then to include personality (Finn, 1997; Krcmar & Greene, 1999; Weaver, 1991) and other social factors (Finn, 1997). Audience activity is directly influenced by motivation (Perse, 1998). Instrumental viewing suggests utility, intention, selectivity and involvement (Rubin, 2002). All four dimensions can be related to this research question because utility encompasses how strongly people are motivated to use mass media and their content for different reasons; intentionality includes how much planning people put into their media use; selectivity involves how selective people are in choosing or rejecting types of media content; and involvement indicates how much people are mentally or emotionally engaged with media content (Blumler, 1979; Levy & Windahl, 1984; Rubin & Perse, 1987a). The viewer's stage of maturation is an important factor to consider for instance what one person is watching in order to satisfy their needs, which may be seen as childish by another viewer, resulting in the fact that not all needs can be satisfied. I can relate to this completely because I like to watch movies and series that others may like or dislike the same shows. By presuming that the others watch these types of programs for the same reasons as I, for instance for finding excitement, helping me to make decisions, solving problems and comparing myself in relation to the characters on television or being able to socialize. The last mentioned motive is in connection with the next finding in which weak but significant negative associations were identified between the active coping strategy and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = -0.098$, $p < 0.01$) as well as between planning coping strategy and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = -0.076$, $p < 0.05$). This means that the active coping strategy is less indicative for making use of social interaction viewing motive. The students in this sample may discuss the shows and movies but not for coping reasons. Hence, only the instrumental viewing motive can be linked to the coping strategy of instrumental support.

Hypothesis 3

Since prior research about how instrumental and ritualistic television viewing motives may be related to emotion-focused coping strategies is very limited, the findings in this study are truly explorative and innovative.

The findings showed a significant positive association between the coping strategy of seeking emotional support and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = 0.087$, $p \leq 0.01$). While a negative link was found in hypothesis number 2 between the coping strategy of instrumental support and the social interaction viewing motive, the hypothesis number 3 showed that students are using the social interaction motive in order to cope with their emotional problems. The uses and gratifications theory is according to Henning and Vorderer (2001), explaining the combination between *coping efforts* and ritualistic as well as instrumental viewing motives. This refers to the fusion that motivations and emotions go hand in hand (Lazarus, 1991, 1999). The way an individual is handling his or her emotions will decide which coping strategy will be applied (Smith & Lazarus, 1993). Previous research has implied that television shows serve as a ***coping function*** (Katz & Foulkes, 1962; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990a; Pearlin, 1959). So the students in this sample may like to talk about television shows or movies and at the same time try to cope with their own situation by relating their crisis to the shows and handling it in a social setting. As Herzog (1944) declared, people can learn from TV shows by gaining advice on personal problems and they like to talk about it with friends and neighbors. Early research has related television viewing to coping in which the primary function of media consumption was an emotional release (Herzog, 1944; Solomon, 2001). However, prior research (op.cit) was not specific enough in describing the concrete associations and this study is filling this gap.

There were also very weak but significant positive associations identified between the emotion-focused coping strategy of denial and information-seeking motive ($\beta = 0.081$, $p < 0.05$) as well as social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = 0.083$, $p < 0.05$). The findings suggest that students prefer to handle a difficult situation by looking for information how to handle a complicated situation and that they are also seeking comfort or social interaction through watching television and maybe later to discuss what they have seen on TV in a social setting. But at the same time they are using

denial coping style, which refers to a rejection of a stressful situation. The students are coping in a way in which they are rejecting the situation from which they want to flee from while TV-viewing gives them a kind of social support, which is important in coping (Rokach & Brock, 1998) because it involves the expression of emotions and talking to people for getting advice. The literature has discussed TV as a social compensator (Finn & Gorr, 1988) or as a mood manager (Anderson, Collins, Schmitt & Jacobvitz, 1996; Zillmann & Bryant, 1985) but it offers very little insight into the connection between instrumental television viewing motivations and emotion-focused coping preferences.

Moreover, the results demonstrated a weak but significant positive association between denial coping strategy and the ritualistic viewing motive for companionship ($\beta = 0.089$, $p < 0.01$). Previous research verified that companionship and information-seeking are salient viewing motivations (Rubin & Rubin, 1982b) as also confirmed in this research paper. The students in this sample tend to watch television for companionship purposes while in the same moment they are denying the stressful surrounding. This means that the students are coping with stress by gaining companionship through switching on the set in order to alleviate negative feelings and distress. Previous research has discovered that ritualistic television viewing is a more *important* viewing experience (Rubin, 1984) and it is often referred to as a great distraction (Perse, 1990a, 1998; Rubin & Perse, 1987b). Thus, TV-viewing for companionship reasons may give the students reassurance about the world (Levy, 1978) and all this in a safe environment (Kubey, 1986).

Hypothesis 4

The uses of escapism have often been associated with either personality dysfunctions or diversionary functions (Katz et al., 1973), and now also with coping preferences. The findings of this study are on one hand in concordance with previous studies in which escape viewing motive is related to avoidant coping strategy such as mental and behavioral disengagement. On the other hand, they are innovative because other ritualistic viewing motives such as habit and relaxation have also been connected to avoidant coping strategies. The findings provided support for the hypothesis and

showed significant positive associations between mental disengagement or self-distraction strategy and escape viewing motive ($\beta = 0.161$, $p < 0.001$).

In addition, a positive association was identified between behavioral disengagement strategy and escape viewing motive ($\beta = 0.119$, $p < 0.001$). These results indicate that the adult students with high mental or behavioral disengagement scores are more likely to watch TV for escape reasons. Thus, watching television for escape reasons may represent a form of coping. Escape means that a person is *leaving the reality in a cognitive and emotional way* (Henning & Vorderer, 2001). Moreover, the escapist viewing motive can be defined as an escape from everyday life and as something else to think about (Livingstone, 1988; Rubin, 1983). Escape coping is important because this form of coping can be effective for controlling the effects of psychological stress by allowing a person to distance himself from the stress long enough to be able to re-appraise the event in a non-threatening way (Lazarus, 1993). Viewers seek entertainment and escape because it provides a temporary withdrawal from everyday life (Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004). Pearlin (1959) argued that television viewing allows viewers to escape from unpleasant life experiences. According to Kubey and Csikszentmihalyi (2002: p.50) "All these criteria can apply to people who watch a lot of television. That does not mean that watching television, per se, is problematic. Television can teach and amuse; it can reach aesthetic heights; it can provide much needed distraction and escape. The difficulty arises when people strongly sense that they ought not to watch as much as they do and yet find themselves strangely unable to reduce their viewing. Some knowledge of how the medium exerts its pull may help heavy viewers gain better control over their lives". TV-viewing may provide a good coping possibility for soothing our turmoil of conflicting emotions (Nabi et al., 2006) because it involves a pacifying component (Lull, 1980; Meyrowitz, 1985; Silverstone, 1994). TV-viewing also symbolizes a way to cope with leisure and stress, which is a temporarily way of people to escape from stressful events or painful experiences (Driver et al., 1991; Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000). The findings in this study supported prior research, which assumed that stressed people with a tendency to use more avoidant coping strategies will apply an escape-viewing motive (Minnebo, 2004, 2006; Schmitz, Alsdorf, Sang & Tasche, 1993).

Furthermore, significant positive associations were found between mental disengagement and relaxation viewing motive ($\beta = 0.179$, $p < 0.001$) as well as habit

viewing motive ($\beta = 0.071$, $p < 0.05$). Previous research found that ritualistic TV-viewing motives such as pass time and escape are related to avoidant coping strategies (Minnebo, 2004, 2006). In general, ritualized viewing is linked to heavy TV exposure and described as habitual and time-consuming (Rubin & Perse, 1987a). In addition, television is seen as a legitimate form of relaxation (Ling & Thrane, 2002) because it serves much better for unwinding activities and is often replacing other activities such as playing games with friends in which people would find relaxation and relieve from stress (Fowles, 1992). Other studies confirm that the initial benefit from TV-viewing is to experience relaxation (Kubey, 1986, 1996; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990a; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002) and using television as means of mental disengagement seems to be logical. Besides this, the results showed a link between habit viewing and avoidant coping strategy of mental disengagement. Habitual TV consumption or use relates to deeper psychological structures, which are influenced by social features such as media structures, social position as age or gender (Rosengren, 1994). This finding is important in the early establishment of health behaviors and research on habits has shown that changing negative habits, especially those experienced as pleasurable and rewarding, is much more difficult than establishing positive habits (Maddux & DuCharme, 1997 in Gochman, 1997). Thus, the findings in this study are pioneering and adding to prior research by expanding on the relationship between ritualistic television viewing motives and avoidant coping strategies.

Hypothesis 5

The findings in this hypothesis are unique and without doubt interesting for the academic research world because no other study before has compared the relationship between motives for television viewing and coping strategies in five different countries as in Hungary, Israel, Norway Switzerland and United States of America. The results yielded numerous relationships between the television viewing motives and coping strategies. However, only two to five unique findings will be discussed here in this section that were found in each country alone and which had the highest associations and were mostly used by the students. Let's start with a summary table 15 about the findings within each country separately that will give a general overview about the relationship between the television viewing motives and coping strategies.

Table 15: Summary of television viewing motives and coping strategies in 5 different countries.

	America	Hungary	Israel	Norway	Switzerland
Positive links – Ritualistic &	**13**	**6**	**6**	**3**	**-**
Avoidant coping	3	4	1	1	-
Emotion-focused	3	1	-	1	-
Problem-focused	7	-	2	1	-
Negative links – Ritualistic &	**10**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**2**
Avoidant coping	4	-	-	-	1
Emotion-focused	5	-	-	-	1
Problem-focused	1	-	-	-	-
Positive links – Instrumental &	**2**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
Avoidant coping	2	-	-	-	-
Emotion-focused	-	1	3	-	-
Problem-focused	-	-	-	-	-
Negative links – Instrumental &	**3**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
Avoidant coping	-	-	-	-	-
Emotion-focused	2	-	-	-	-
Problem-focused	1	-	-	-	-

As can be seen in the table 15 above, the American students had 15 positive and 13 negative associations. Within the positive associations, the majority of American students applied ritualistic viewing motives and problem-focused coping strategies, whereas for the negative links, they made use of emotion-focused coping and ritualistic viewing motives. The findings showed that a *negative* and *significantly strong* association was found for the *Americans* between behavioral disengagement strategy and relaxation viewing motive ($\beta = -0.539$, $p < 0.001$). Further, a negative and *significantly moderate* association was found for the Americans between denial strategy and relaxation viewing motive ($\beta = -0.450$, $p < 0.001$). TV-viewing is relaxing and people can withdraw from stressful activities such as work in order to get

a break (Ling & Thrane, 2002). Relaxing in front of the telly is part of the enjoyment of TV (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Television viewing is the easiest thing to do and it is a way of doing nothing whatsoever. People might find it hard to find another leisure activity, if there was no TV. Zillmann (1991b) pointed out that TV viewing is sometimes serving as a relaxer. People prefer to choose TV content that will diminish their noxious states of hyper-arousal (Kubey, 1986, 1996). In the case of students who want to relax then TV-viewing may not serve their behavioral disengagement strategy since a significant negative relationship was found. Television use is often chosen by people who wish to escape from negative feelings (Kubey, 1986) but disengaging behaviorally through television viewing while a student wishes to relax seems not to work well in this sample.

On the other hand, a positive association was found for the *American* students between problem-focused coping of instrumental support and habit viewing motive ($\beta = 0.339$, $p < 0.001$). Individuals are not necessarily cognitively aware of the meaningfulness of television use as an aspect of their everyday life, yet watching TV is clearly an aspect of their practical consciousness. It is the basis of a nexus of routines that are habitual, generally unspoken, and evidently powerful (Boyns & Stephenson, 2003). Television viewing is very often done when people report that they have nothing else to do (Kubey, 1984; 1986; Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b) and it is seen as being most helpful for killing time (Perse & Courtright, 1993). It seems to be a habit of American students to watch TV in order to look for information and maybe to solve their problems by finding an answer in the shows. This is an interesting link and it is leading to a bigger picture in which one may say that people rely on TV for receiving useful information during personal crisis such as daily obstacles (Gibson, 2007) as well as during national crisis (Nabi et al., 2006). As societies turn out to be more complex so do people nowadays depend more on the media to obtain information about the society (Ball-Rokeach, 1998). In this sense, TV is a good source for information about daily life (Perse & Courtright, 1993) and these informational sources may be searched and used to help coping with emotional states (Zillmann, 2000 in Roloff, 2000). People tend to rely more and more upon the mass media for coping strategies, instead of relying on traditional support systems such as family, friends, and church (Ball-Rokeach, 1998; Turck, 2004).

The Hungarian students had only 6 positive associations and used mainly avoidant coping strategies and ritualistic viewing motives. The results showed a positive association for the ***Hungarian*** students between the avoidant coping strategy of self-distraction and pass-time viewing motive ($\beta = 0.177$, $p < 0.001$), and between venting strategy and relaxation viewing motive ($\beta = 0.166$, $p < 0.001$). Pass time and relaxation are salient viewing motives for many types of viewers (Rubin, 1983). Kubey (1986) suggested that TV can provide distraction when people are feeling low and ponder about their problems or have nothing to do. By the age of 18 most human beings have spent more time watching TV than doing anything else, except sleeping (Bryant & Bryant, 2001; UCLA, 2003). The strongest links in the Hungarian sample can be found between avoidant coping strategies and ritualistic viewing motives. Consequently, Hungarians seems to cope for a short-period of time by relaxing or passing time in front of the telly. Most studies conceptualize passive coping as the cognitive and behavioral attempts to deny threats and to avoid any confrontation with the problem (Lengua & Sandler, 1996). People need to recover from the intensity of work and they prefer to do this by watching television, which is a low-intensity and free-time activity characterized by relaxation (Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre, 1989). TV-viewing can render "*therapeutic services*" and receiving a happy pill after a hard day is occasionally all what people may want because TV compensates for the world's burdens (Fowles, 1992: p.7).

The ***Israeli*** students had only 6 positive associations and used mainly emotion-focused coping strategies and instrumental viewing motives. The highest positive association was found for the *Israeli* students between the problem-focused coping strategy of instrumental support and arousal viewing motive ($\beta = 0.209$, $p < 0.001$), while the main associations for the Israeli students were found between the emotion-focused coping strategy of acceptance strategy and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = 0.204$, $p < 0.001$), and between use of emotional support strategy and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = 0.196$, $p < 0.001$), as well as between positive reframing strategy and social interaction viewing motive ($\beta = 0.188$, $p < 0.001$). Most studies define active, emotion-focused coping as changes of thoughts and behaviors of people in order to manage distress in the context of a specific stressful situation (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). The instrumental viewing motives were proposed by Rubin (1983, 2002) and explain the amount and type of media use as

well as the attitude and expectations of a person (Bryant & Zillmann, 2002). Most important, the instrumental viewing dimension is based on human needs, which produce motives that lead to behavior in order to gratify those needs (Rosengren, 1974). What viewers want and get from television viewing is very nicely described by Fowles (1992: 33-38) in his book "Why viewers watch" in which he described TV-viewing to be a "*personal* and *private activity*. It is something that the viewer does alone, even when surrounded by family members while viewing. It is an *enjoyable activity*. According to Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi (1990), Americans find more pleasure in TV-viewing than from sex, food hobbies, religion, marriage, money, or sports. It is a *needed activity*. People do not like to give up their TV set as confirmed by the findings in this dissertation. It is a *casual activity*. Low involvement, disagree as shown in the results part. It is mostly an *evening activity*." Viewers may express the opinion that watching TV is a questionable activity while at the same time it is definitely something that they like to do. Living in Israel, which is a region that is surrounded by threats and danger of war is not always easy and dealing effectively with their emotions by looking for information and social support on TV seems to be expected. Many viewers are given something to think about when watching TV and this at no emotional risk to themselves (Fowles, 1992).

The *Norwegian* students had only 3 positive associations and all coping strategies were related to ritualistic viewing motives. The highest positive association was found for the Norwegian students between acceptance strategy and arousal viewing motive ($\beta = 0.203$, $p < 0.001$). Other links were found between active coping strategy and entertainment viewing motive ($\beta = 0.201$, $p < 0.001$) and between mental disengagement strategy and habit viewing motive ($\beta = 0.182$, $p < 0.001$). Ling and Thrane (2002) made an Oslo-based study with 15 in-home family interviews and found that television viewing in particular has a changing role in leisure activities. Norwegians and Swiss are among those countries watching the least television (Mediametrie, 2007). The Norwegian sample seems to prefer to cope more actively by watching for entertainment reasons. So searching for entertainment is the consequence of the leisure time left after survival needs have been satisfied and experiencing entertainment can be an *emotional roller-coaster ride* (Zillmann, 2003). Television use is omnipresent these days and media psychologists keep disagreeing about the reasons why television entertainment is so popular. Thus, the cognitive and affective reaction to past viewing behavior that was associated with enjoyment tends to predict

later viewing (Knobloch & Zillmann, 2002). People do not have to and unfortunately do not go out in order to find entertainment as often as they used to because it is easier to stay at home in front of the tube (Fowles, 1992). Most people consume entertainment in order to relax, to lessen the strains of reality, to escape into another world, and to have things to talk about (Vorderer, 2001).

The *Swiss* students had only 2 negative associations and the coping strategies were related to ritualistic viewing motives. Negative associations were found for the Swiss students between instrumental support strategy and voyeurism viewing motive (β = -0.199, p < 0.001) as well as between emotional support strategy and voyeurism viewing motive (β = -0.212, p < 0.001). Voyeurism is a very specific motive in which people prefer to view or observe others and it is often related to sexual arousal (Kim & Rubin, 1997). Observing others and gathering information is important and usually done for fun. However, the findings showed that Swiss students are less likely to cope with a situation by watching voyeuristic shows. Another term that can be relates to this is infotainment. This is a new term that has been coined and widely used in the Internet language. It indicates a merging of information and entertainment. Walker and Ferguson (1998) pointed out that television has changed dramatically since it became part of the home media environment in the 1950's. Nowadays, television offers information and entertainment at the same time from around the world. Individuals from different ages and social backgrounds agree that television has a very important function, namely to make the world accessible and to bring it into the home (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). TV-viewing entails both staying at home and visiting places (Moores, 1995). This is not particularly surprising, if we take into account that the television industries are profit-oriented and built upon creating entertainment and escape (Kubey, 2003). Consequently, the Swiss students in this sample do not seem to rely on television for entertainment, information or voyeurism reasons in order to cope with any situation. Prior studies have confirmed that Swiss people in general watch the least television (Frey, Benesch & Stutzer, 2006; Mediametrie, 2007).

In sum, the newest trend in research is to investigate possible links between coping and media uses (Gordon et al., 2007; Greenwood, 2008; Minnebo, 2006; Shklovski, Kraut & Cummings, 2006). Television viewing is frequently used as a coping strategy by children and adults (Chen & Kennedy, 2005; Kennedy, Strzempko, Danford &

Kools, 2002; Ryan, 1989; Ryan-Wenger & Copeland, 1994; Sharrer & Ryan-Wenger, 1995). Thus, TV-viewing motives "may be generally understood to be indicative of coping strategies (Kubey, 1986: p.110). The present study shows that first, television viewing motives and coping strategies are related to each other, and second, ***there are nation-based differences between this link according to the data from the current study.*** The students in Hungary, Israel, Norway Switzerland and United States of America differed on the motives for television viewing and at the same time these different motives were related to coping strategies. This cross-cultural finding implies that television viewing may be understood as a coping effort in different nations. Television use may be an enriching experience for people to cope with life around the globe as shown by the promising empirical evidence of this study. Proofing such a relationship is important but at the same time, a very difficult task because the media and television landscape is continually changing. Yet, the movies and shows that are broadcasted around the globe are many times the same and the only difference may be the time of broadcasting. From this follows that the knowledge about why and how television is fascinating viewers may give the person as well as the health practitioners a better understanding how to deal with life more effectively. Future research should continue exploring this link because mass media will certainly be used more and more.

Hypothesis 6

The first part of the hypothesis 6 was not confirmed while the second part was supported. This means that life satisfaction was not related to entertainment or to relaxation viewing motive, but a significantly moderate and negative association was found between life satisfaction levels and escape viewing motive ($\beta = -0.227$; $p < 0.001$). This refers to the fact that low levels of life satisfaction are more likely to predict higher levels of escape viewing motive. The literature on this topic is supporting both standpoints so far though they may be a tendency that people with lower life satisfaction may be more likely to view more TV (Frey, Benesch & Stutzer, 2005) and especially for escape reasons among women (Minnebo, 2000). I personally favored the first part of the hypothesis and it would have been nice to agree with other authors that people who are satisfied with their lives watch more TV because it is an inexpensive way to relax (Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982a). However, the statistical analysis

yielded different results in this study. The findings in this study provided evidence for the viewpoint that reduced life satisfaction contributes to escapist television viewing (Barbato & Perse, 1992; Conway & Rubin, 1991; Minnebo, 2004; Rubin, 1984; Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982a). While at the same time, the results of this study showed that escape viewing motive was related to avoidant coping strategies. Prior research has confirmed that avoidant coping strategies are related to less life satisfaction (Chun, Moos & Cronkite, 2006). In general, life satisfaction refers to the enjoyment of a person's life altogether and it is a predictor for quality of life (Veenhoven, 2003). TV-viewing provides people with enjoyment and even TV opponents cannot deny this fact (Frey, Benesch & Stutzer, 2005). Television viewers can witness a lot of different feelings through the TV set such as for instance the agony of injured people, the despair of victims, and the furor of murderers (Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). Both, children and adults are immensely exposed to such acute emotional experiences (Zillmann, 1998; Zillmann & Vorderer, 2000; Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). It has been reported that watching local news for obtaining information about what is going on in the world has been linked to angry feelings, while watching news for the reason to be excited or entertained has been linked to happy feeling (Perse, 1990, 1998). Viewers empathize with the hope and worries of celebrities as displayed on the TV screen, especially when they like the TV figure. In such a situation, the viewer shares the positive and negative feelings as broadcasted by the TV figure. Television can represent a variety of things to different people. It can be a source of entertainment, companionship and information (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Rogge and Jensen (1988) proposed that television can become part of the family structure in which viewers can rely upon to always be there as a means to make them laugh or cry and television can provide feeling of *security* in times of change. Familiarity on TV can mean that having seen it on TV is sufficient for social cohesion (Fowles, 1992). In today's world, TV-viewing is often referred to be *the* dominant leisure activity of today (Frey, Benesch & Stutzer, 2005) and it affects our lives from birth to death. The chase of entertainment is a central topic of contemporary culture and entertainment research is one of the most important challenges at present (Vorderer, Klimmt & Ritterfeld, 2004). Viewers derive personal satisfaction from the private world created by television shows (Rubin & Perse, 1987a) and "the amount and importance of TV-viewing steadily increases with age" (Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982b: p.288). People with lower life satisfaction levels tend to possess fewer inner resources with which to maintain

emotional control or balance. In this situation, television is providing structure for those who may be less able to supply structure on their own (Lull, 1980; Kubey, 1986; Moskalenko & Heine, 2003). Similarly, unhappy people who want to avoid a discussion with their spouse may turn to TV in order to stay away from quarrels (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). For some people, TV is a great distraction while for other it provides structure in life and above all during leisure time (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990b). Particularly, heavy and ritualized TV viewers report lower levels of life satisfaction (Espe & Seiwert, 1987; Frey, Benesch & Stutzer, 2005), especially within the United States (Gerbner et al., 2002 in Bryant & Zillmann, 2002). Heavy TV-viewing may lead to heavier viewing (Kubey, 1986) and having more TV channels available is not increasing but rather decreasing life satisfaction (Benesch, Frey & Stutzer, 2006). Up to now, escape, companionship, and pass-time viewing motives have been negatively associated with life satisfaction (Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982a; Vas & Gombor, 2008a) and the findings within this study supports this. It seems that students in America, Hungary, Israel, Norway and Switzerland are collapsing in front of the TV set in order to escape their unwanted thoughts but this is not bringing the anticipated satisfaction (Schreier, 2006 in Bryant & Vorderer, 2006). The students may be too tired from their studies or work and do not seek other leisure experiences than to watch TV (Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre, 1989). Yet, as Kubey (1986) has already shown are less satisfied students viewing more TV and any negative experiences at the University would lead them watch more when they return home. In times of emotional stress, television can be used as a distraction (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999), which allows freedom from what is painful (Dahlquist, Söderberg & Norberg, 2008). International studies of representative samples from multiple countries indicate that life satisfaction does not decline with age (Inglehart, 1990; Veenhoven, 1984). Even so, fulfilling one's needs is essential for well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and television use seems to be a part of our lifestyle. Any changes in life satisfaction can affect the use of media consumption (Barbato & Perse, 1992; Vas & Gombor, 2008a). Thus, life satisfaction is an indicator of media use. This important relationship should be further explored because changes in life satisfaction and media use may in the long run alter a society's character and such a significant development of social change has to be tracked.

Hypothesis 7

Probably more attention has been given in the literature to the identification of various social strains and pressures than to the behaviors employed to deal with pressures (Pearlin, 1959). According to prior research, stress is connected to television use (Anderson et al., 1996; Zillmann, 1988) while both stress and coping strategies are related to personality (Suls et al., 1996), whilst personality has been related to television use (Babocsay, 2002; Kósa & Vajda, 1998; McIlwraith, 1998; Weaver, 2003). So far, previous research has mainly supported that stressed people prefer to watch relaxing programs (Zillmann, 1988; Zillmann & Bryant, 1985) and that they favor entertainment (Anderson, Collins, Schmitt & Jacobvitz, 1996; Brosius, Rossmann & Elnain, 1999). Prior research (Pearlin, 1995) has only hinted at the possibility that stressed people may use television viewing as means of escaping from the reality. This research project provides support for the last assumption because perceived stress level were positively and significantly related to the escape TV-viewing motive ($\beta = 0.240$, $p < 0.01$). This means that adult students with higher stress levels are more likely to watch television for escape purposes. Further, watching television for escape reasons is in connection with avoidant coping strategies as seen in hypothesis 4, and cross-cultural studies have confirmed that students with high stress levels display more avoidant coping strategies (Oláh, 1995). The College and University life is stressful for most of the students (Whitman, 1985). Ten years later, Beck (1995) found that students will most likely experience burnout during and after mid-term exams and at the end of the semester. It is exactly during these times that students have multiple assignments and examinations and all this in the same week. Students in the Beck study (op.cit.) stated that their perceived stress levels would sometimes seem unbearable. They lamented that there were not enough hours in the day to accomplish what they needed to accomplish. They also expressed that they could not engage in activities to relieve their stress, such as socializing or exercising, because they did not have enough time. There are some gender differences in viewing choices when people are under stress. Males under stress preferred to watch action programs while stressed women preferred to view game shows and many other programs (Anderson, Collins, Schmitt & Jacobvitz, 1996). Television viewing offers an indispensable break from the stresses of everyday life (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). TV entertainment is often referred to as the *antidote* for reality (Fowles,

1992). Even, if this social withdrawal is lasting for a short period of time, it can help a person to relax and to forget about stressful events that are happening to him or her during a day or over days and weeks. The short-term withdrawal from reality can give a person new energy in order to be able to return as well as to continue his or her real life. Television is used in times of emotional crisis in order to alleviate stress (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). Changes in life are without doubt unavoidable and as they occur, so will people's media usage continually change too. Patterns of television viewing tend to alter and television use can block people's negative thoughts and feelings that lead to stress and this may suggest that watching television is a coping strategy that people use to help them to go through stressful situations (Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). This is in line with mood management theory (Zillmann, 1988) and I also agree with the statement above since the findings of this study provided empirical evidence for the association that stress levels are related to the escape viewing motive, which likewise was related to avoidant coping strategies. As a 39-year-old female lecturer and diarist wrote in the Gauntlett & Hill's study (1999: p.104) "Recovering! TV is a life saver! It's accessible, and if selective can be funny, informative, educative, stimulating etc. It is a great relaxant and takes your mind off stresses and strains". Television viewing can have a great psychological value for certain people.

Strengths & Limitations

Great minds discuss ideas,
Average minds discuss events,
And small minds discuss people.

- Eleanor Roosevelt (1884 - 1962)

The knowledge about how to conduct Internet surveys will continue to get better with more research and practice (Reips, 2002). Please find the summary about the advantages and disadvantages of this study and about conducting an Internet data collection described below:

❖ Inexpensive data collection and recruitment of participants

❖ Low-cost use of materials

❖ Faster filling out of the online questionnaire and error-prone typing in of data is excluded

❖ Researcher can bring the experiment to the participant (worldwide)

❖ No time constraint is given and participants from different countries and different Greenwich time zones are able to fill out the online survey around the clock.

❖ Possibility to conduct international or cross-cultural studies

❖ Authenticity of the data collected may be suspect. However, several confirmatory procedures were applied in this study to reduce erroneous data. One procedure did not allow the participant to fill out the questionnaire again after submitting the survey and this provided some evidence that the incoming data arrived from different and independent participants. Further, only students who had received the survey link (URL) via their professor or institution could access and fill out the online survey.

❖ Administering the online survey to selected Universities may lead to a lack of randomization, which is compensated by the rather large number of 1432 participants in the sample gathered and therefore this may be enough to accept the validity of the current sample.

❖ Convenience sampling was applied since the study took place at Universities and by this generalizability to other populations is affected. The uses and gratifications model has a long history of using self-selection sampling of participants (Smith, 1997).

While it may not be possible to generalize the results of this study to the larger population, the findings support that the sample is indeed representative.

❖ No control group such as non-users was included in the study, which is ruling out to determine a causal relationship. Although media researchers often claim that there is no such thing as a control group in media studies (Livingstone, 1998).

❖ Temporal validity is limited because the study took place at one point in time and thus the findings cannot be generalized to other time periods. This can be improved by making a longitudinal study.

❖ Correlational design was applied and although this research paper showed associations between TV-viewing motivation variables and coping strategies, the direction of causality is not clear. The use of longitudinal designs would enhance the strength of the findings.

❖ Privacy and confidentiality was granted because no names were asked and the IP address was deleted after closing the online survey.

❖ Public control of ethical standards

I would like to add a personal comment about how interesting is was to see on a daily basis that the numbers of participants increased and sometimes even when I was online. This was very fascinating.

Implications

It is hard enough to remember my opinions,
without also remembering my reasons for them!
- Friedrich W. Nietzsche (1844 – 1900)

Television viewing and acquiring information about programs and favorite celebrities is much more accessible and popular nowadays (Mediametrie, 2007). This study confirmed previous findings (O'Keefe & Spetnagel, 1973; Vincent & Basil, 1997) that college students are lighter television viewers than the general population, or even other young adults. The majority of students in this sample was watching TV for 1 to 2 hours daily and hence is spending some time with this activity. TV-viewing is the dominant American leisure activity and it is the third most common human activity besides sleep and work (Putnam, 2000; Boyns & Stephenson, 2003). Many studies focus on the negative aspects of television viewing such as TV addiction (McIlwraith, 1998). Nevertheless, I do believe that all modern technology is useful and has a positive effect on our daily lives and therefore more research should focus on the positive associations between media uses, personality and psychosocial variables. It is important to identify the positive aspects of television viewing, which broadens our understanding and deepens our perceptions about feeling and cognitions. Every person has feelings and this is the only thing in life that nobody can switch off. So we have to live with our emotions and learning how to handle them the best is crucial for a person's well-being and healthy lifestyle. People have certain needs that may influence media use (Roe & Minnebo, 2007) and researchers should continue to examine the relationship between people's motives for using the mass media and psychosocial factors. Television is able to satisfy the psychosocial needs of people (Katz et al., 1974). The current study was inspired by this line of research and has attempted to expand the available published research in the field of television use and psychosocial variables. So how can people benefit from the knowledge about the link between television use and psychosocial variables?

Television viewing can reduce negative feelings as prior research (e.g. Anderson et al., 1996; Zillmann & Bryant, 1985) has shown. An important aspect in reducing

stress is the perceived control as indicated by researches in health psychology (Brannon & Fiest, 2007). Thus, self-selected TV-viewing may be effective in reducing stress because the person is in charge and has control over his or her life and the consequence is relaxation. Previous research has also shown that TV-viewing motivation is an important variable for predicting gratifications (Lin, 1993a) and active TV viewers experience more gratifications as well as tend to be more affected by television (Levy & Windahl, 1984). People have stable patterns of motivation, which in turn have significant implications for stress and coping (Chun, Moos & Cronkite, 2006). The extreme use of television viewing as with heavy viewers or even the self-labeled TV addicts can be explained by theories such as escapism (person withdraws from stressful real world) and stress reduction or mood management (stressful thoughts are replaced with TV content). So why not turn this negative perspective into a positive one and try to find explanations for TV-viewing as a problem-solving mechanism. Theories should be broadened in order to provide new insights into the complexity of mass media uses and this can be achieved by integrating many theories with each others so that a more accurate theoretical viewpoint will be established. The contribution of theories in the current study including television viewing motives, life satisfaction, stress and coping strategies may be useful in bridging the theoretical gaps between these academic research topics.

Another implication can be made about television use by relating it to life satisfaction and coping strategies. A recent study has shown that changes in psychological well-being can lead to changes in routine Internet uses indicating an Internet-based coping strategy (Shklovski, Kraut & Cummings, 2006). So can this also be applied to television uses? For instance, is it possible to say that changes in life satisfaction can lead to changes in routine TV uses indicating a TV-based coping strategy? The findings of this present study clearly support this standpoint, especially between lower life satisfaction and escape viewing motive as well as between escape viewing motive and avoidant coping strategy. The relationship between the other viewing motives and active coping strategy showed statistically significant but sometimes weak to moderate associations and therefore further investigations are necessary. A trend has been observed between viewing motives and active coping strategies and I hope that other researchers besides me will care about this line of research in order to pursue it

as well. Understanding how adults cope with stress and factors related to better coping is essential in promoting healthy lifestyle and well-being (Chen & Kennedy, 2005). Any changes in lifestyle and life satisfaction may sooner or later lead to modification of society's nature and therefore this trend of social change has to be followed. Recently, gerontological research has begun to address the presence of television as a part of the social context in geriatric care and the every day lives of old people. Television is used within the geriatric care as a part of daily activities (Sharrer & Ryan-Wenger, (1995). Especially older people, who were not satisfied with their lives, were using TV to escape their problems (Barbato & Perse, 1992; Rubin & R. Rubin, 1982a), which indicates that older viewers tend to turn to television for coping with their loneliness (Kubey, 1986). Working adults, unemployed, retired persons and housewives may use television in somewhat different ways (Kubey, 1996).

The television industry can benefit from the understanding of the associations discussed in this research paper for their program interpretation. Television industry can target its viewers much more easily through Internet surveying and therefore they should carefully explore as well as focus more on employing these online research possibilities. This is the ultimate way to figure out what audiences want from their favorite programs and this in return will enhance television involvement so that it may truly represents a symbiotic relationship in which both parties are winners. If television networks and other media professionals can identify what satisfies their customer's needs then this is a strong tool for exchanging influential messages with success. This study of viewers' motivations and coping preferences may provide a missing link when looking for causal relations between programs and behavior. It may reveal what viewers find important, helpful, and meaningful.

Similarly, applying the uses and gratifications approach has potentially significant benefits for psychologists, health practitioners and other medical services who can make use of the mass media as a new therapeutical tool in order to help and educate their patients about the possible uses and rewards of putting different treatment programs into service. Patients who like to watch TV and who are willing to include television use within their treatment program, for instance, a psychologist can suggest watching certain movies in order to reduce stress or the psychologist may employ a movie/show for a discussion group. These clients may benefit from such a combined application of traditional and new treatment method. Already Zillmann (1988)

confirmed that TV can provide people with information on how to act. By exploring the role of TV as a *therapist* it may help viewers to understand how they cope with personal problems. On the other hand, current media theory that has yet to fully benefit from the insights available from the research on specific motivational and emotional experiences. Bandura's social cognitive theory (1986, 2002) revolves primarily around the functions and processes of observational learning. By observing others' behaviors, including media figures, a person may develop rules to guide his or her own subsequent actions, or be prompted to engage in previously learned behavior, or both. Although this theory is not explicitly one of a mindful audience, it focuses on issues of how viewers pay and maintain attention suggesting that an engaged viewer is aware, though not all the time, of their goals. Further, positive and negative reinforcement of behaviors performed by media characters not only may increase or decrease the likelihood of imitation, but may also increase the likelihood of a viewer to enjoy the media presentation. Thus, we can imagine how media enjoyment can serve as a potential moderator of modeling behavior in which enjoyment and even anticipated enjoyment is associated with closer attention and greater maintenance of modeled behaviors. In addition, and perhaps most central to the social learning process, enjoyment may be taken as an internal cue of positive reinforcement for the modeled behavior. Conversely, the lack of enjoyment may be read as a negative cue, and thus minimizing the likelihood of modeling taking place. In this way, we would expect an association between the degree of enjoyment and the likelihood of modeled behaviors. This was not a task of this paper, nevertheless, if this were found then enjoyment as an experience may serve as a useful predictor of messages likely to promote modeling (Bandura, 1991, 1992; Nabi & Krcmar, 2004). As McLuhan (1967) famously argued "the medium is the message" and one of the most important roles of television is not to relay messages through its content, but rather to shape the context of the TV-viewing experience itself (Boyns & Stephenson, 2003). The awareness of TV use may be useful in identifying students who feel that TV-viewing is the only place to turn to for with a stressful situation (Gordon, 2007). Further, an awareness of TV-viewing motives may help the students recognize that they are not alone in turning towards TV for coping purposes. So using TV-viewing in a practical setting may be useful for University staff or any other institutional staff to better comprehend and maintain the mental health of their students or clients. This point of view is expanding the research literature by illustrating a more positive view of television uses.

__Future research__

How can future researchers improve my study?

Future researchers may improve this study by investigating only evening TV use rather than asking what a person is doing on a typical day, week or weekend. Prior research has shown that the evening schedule is the most important time for TV-viewing (Silverstone, 1994; Gauntlett & Hill, 1999).

Furthermore, focusing on Internet television is in my opinion the next generation of research line and future research should therefore target Internet TV viewers at home. The findings of this empirical study have shown that media usage has implications on the living experiences of individuals and society. Thus, future research should pay close attention to home entertainment through Internet television.

What would I do differently?

Because of the length of the survey, my advice for processing a similar future research is to keep the questionnaire short and within a time frame of 10 minutes for filling out the questionnaire, be that paper-pencil or online survey. My survey took approximately 25 minutes for completing and that was unfortunately too long as some remarks showed within the comment's section.

The target population in this study was adult students and in another study, I would try to include more diverse participants by posting the survey link in a forum.

Alternative directions for doing future research:

The present study has found a way to empirically test and relate television viewing motives to psychological variables. This study has contributed new insights to the theoretical framework of mass media and psychosocial functioning that can be adapted to future studies. An alternative way to study television viewing and especially TV involvement may be to examine TV use when the person is actually watching TV. For instance, a camera could be put into the television room for recording what kind of program is being watched and what the viewer is doing. In

another step, the person could be put under stress by having to solve a difficult puzzle or quiz and then his or her behavior may be recorded. But the interpretations of both situations may be difficult and the viewer may act differently because he or she is being watched.

Another alternative direction for a future research outlook may be to investigate Internet television, which represents the newest trend in watching. Such a survey would be similar to cable TV-viewing. The main advantages of Internet TV include that most stations are internationally available. At present, over 150 countries have Internet access (Wikipedia, 2007) so the possibility is present to access Internet TV in your own country or in another country. Anyone with an Internet connection can watch and Internet TV does not require additional hardware. Internet TV can be cheaper or even freely available. New channels are added all the time and big companies such as Google is already developing Google TV while AOL is launching IN-2-TV, which will show many programs from Warner Brothers. Last but not least, Internet TV gives the possibility to personalize TV experience by allowing watching the program whenever someone wants to.

Further on, future research may also concentrate on and explore the relationship between favorite TV-programs and life satisfaction or coping behavior. It would be interesting to see whether the anticipation to watch a favorite show is increasing life satisfaction levels or not.

And last but not least, future research should continue to explore the potential similarities and differences between different nation-based television viewers.

Conclusion

The future belongs to those who believe in the beauty of their dreams.
- Eleanor Roosevelt (1884 - 1962)

This doctoral dissertation began as an attempt to discover the associations between television viewing motivations and psychosocial factors. The major aim of the present study was to find out whether the coping strategies, life satisfaction and stress levels of students are significant predictors of television viewing motives. The number of studies looking at the relationship between motives for mass media use and coping behavior is rather scarce, although there is reason to believe that coping efforts shape media use (Minnebo, 2004). While it is clear that television viewing motives are influenced by as well as are influencing coping styles, the direction of this link is not clear yet and the current study represents merely a modest beginning so far. My point of view is that this theoretical link is worth investigating and future research may apply and improve the findings from traditional TV use to Internet television viewing.

Referring to TV can have a positive or negative connotation such as calling it a magic window or plug-in-drug (Turck, 2004). In general, television usage has been criticized as a possible contributor to aggressive behavior, academic underachievement, racial and sexual stereotyping, leading to problems in interpersonal relationships, and materialism. Yet, it is practically impossible to generate solid empirical evidence that television use is cultivating sexism, racism, and other prejudices (Gauntlett, 1995, Gauntlett & Hill, 1999). TV has also its positive potential on consumers. It can teach people generally spoken academic skills, social skills, self-help skills, vocational skills, affective development, imaginative processes, and sexual learning (Abelman, Atkin & Rand, 1997). It is often said that the main purpose of television is to relax and this serves children and adults in the same way (Fowles, 1992). Since television is classless, it can reach *everyone* (Fröhlich, 1995). Especially, adolescents and young adults are using the TV as a cultural resource (Giles, 2003). The perspective of a mass media audience is rejected by the uses & gratification researchers (Ruggiero, 2000) and they rather believe in a person's particular personality characteristics, in which the differential needs that spring from these factors are influencing how people use and respond to the media

(Conway & Rubin, 1991). The U & G model assumes that people use TV to accomplish a goal, to receive a reward, or to modulate a psychological state (Haridakis & Rubin, 2003). One major criticism to this approach is that the uses and gratification thinking fails to capture the dynamics of the immediate mass media experience (Kubey & Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). According to Zillmann & Bryant (1986) gratification, or entertainment experiences, are effects! As the authors (op.cit.) argue, the entertainment experience is the effect of entertainment consumption and it is the primary effect that is sought out and pursued for the benefits that it entails!

This doctoral dissertation discussed two major typologies for viewing motivations, which are characterized by two distinctive dimensions such as the ritualized and instrumental television viewing dimensions (Rubin, 1983) or the social-compensation and mood-management dimensions (Finn & Gorr, 1988; Zillmann & Bryant, 1985), while both typologies are based on human needs (Kim & Rubin, 1997). The media use of a person is shaped by the social and psychological origins, which is a basic assumption of the uses and gratifications model (Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch, 1974 in Blumler & Katz, 1974; McQuail, 1997). However, only a few available studies have tested this assumption empirically (Palmgreen, Wenner & Rosengren, 1985 in Rosengren, Wenner & Palmgreen, 1985). Previous research has verified links between the concepts of television use and psychological predictors (Conway & Rubin, 1991), life satisfaction (Bruni & Stanca, 2006; Benesch, Frey & Stutzer, 2006; Espe & Seiwert, 1987), stress (Anderson, Collins, Smith & Jacobvitz, 1996; Greenwood, 2008) social isolation and loneliness (Rubin, Perse & Powell, 1985; Finn & Gorr, 1988; Canary & Spitzberg, 1993), and personality traits (Babocsay, 2002; Cole & Leets, 1999; Finn, 1997; Kósa & Vajda, 1998; Weaver, 2003). The present study wants to add coping styles to this list. The associations between TV use and coping strategies have until now only been hinted at within the coping and mass media literature (Dahlquist, Söderberg & Norberg, 2008, Greenwood, 2008; Minnebo, 2004, 2006). Several arguments justify such a research effort. First, the way a person is dealing with stress comprises a psychological concept that has its origins in certain needs and habits, which in return are likely to influence TV use. Studies have shown that stress is altering television use (Anderson, Collins, Schmitt & Jacobvitz, 1996; Zillmann, 1988). Second, coping strategies are linked to a person's personality (Suls et al., 1996) while personality has been related to TV use previously (McIlwraith, 1998; Weaver, 2003). So there is a

possible link between coping strategies and television use that has not yet been fully explored. Third, the concepts of TV use and coping research have not been differentiated empirically but rather confused and used as a synonym. For instance, the brief COPE scale (Carver, 1997) contains one item that refers to television use specifically. This item is considered to measure an avoidant coping strategy that keeps a person from thinking about the problem. Previous research implied that avoidant coping styles are related to negative mood states. A theory linking mood states to media use is the theory of mood management by Zillmann & Bryant (1985). The authors (op.cit) found that people are regulating their media use in order to minimize negative feelings and thoughts. This predicts that stressed people use TV for lowering their arousal level or as a distraction from negative affect. The link between coping strategies and television use and the above mentioned assumption has to be clarified because TV-viewing may also be indicative of a problem-focused coping strategy, where a stressed person is watching TV in order to gratify his/her information-seeking need how to handle the problem. All this warranted the empirical investigation for developing this doctoral research project.

The methodology chapter dealt with the sampling method and gave a detailed account of how the online survey was conducted, which items and scales were included in the survey, and the issues related to the administration of the survey instrument. The chapter concluded with a discussion of measurement and scaling issues. Only the most widely used measures were included in the survey such as the television viewing motives scale (Conway & Rubin; 1991; Greenberg, 1974; Rubin, 1981, 1983), TV consumption, and media involvement including TV affinity (Abelman, 1987; Greenberg, 1974; Rubin, 1981; Perse, 1994 in R. Rubin, Palmgreen & Sypher, 1994, parasocial interaction (Rubin & Perse, 1987a), and post-viewing cognition (Rubin & Perse, 1987b), the life satisfaction scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin (1985), the perceived stress scale (Cohen, Kamarck & Mermelstein (1983), and the brief coping orientations to problems experienced (B-COPE) scale (Carver, 1997).

The results chapter offered some hypothesized and unhypothesized findings. The TV-viewing motives were considered as dependent variables and the other psychological variables were regarded as independent variables. In my opinion, it is more likely that coping strategies will influence motives for TV-viewing than vice versa, although to

some degree this may be plausible as well. The findings offered modest support for the relationship between active coping strategies and instrumental as well as ritualistic television viewing motives. At the same time, the results provided strong support for the links between first, instrumental viewing motive and media involvement variables, second, between lower life satisfaction and escape viewing motive, third, between higher stress levels and escape viewing motive, fourth between avoidant coping strategies (such as mental and behavioral disengagement) and escape viewing motive, and fifth, that different nations use different TV-viewing motives and that these motives are associated with copings behavior. This implies that coping strategies can be predictive of TV-viewing motives in different nations. The study has confirmed that TV-viewing as a coping strategy is situation-dependent and short-termed (Schmitz et al., 1993), but a coping strategy that has been useful for a person will be used again in another similar situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). The results in this study confirmed prior research as well as added new data to the existing literature.

The discussion chapter presented some a-ha insights and articulated views about the insights into this whole research that is leading to a few new puzzles as addressed by future research as well as what consequences can be gained from this present study for future research. People are not affected in the same way by television uses, but even TV-antagonists agree that TV use is entertaining, relaxing and it can act as an emotional crutch especially during illness, loneliness and stress. It is nice, if a movie has a meaning and people can say that the movie has been great. Yet, I believe that even a good biff-bang-boom movie can be useful if it is entertaining and if that's exactly what a person may have looked for because there is nothing wrong with wanting to be entertained. We live in a consumer world that is fast-pacing and stressful, so people need to switch off for a few hours in order to forget about their problems. Further, the viewer still needs to relate to the male or female hero in this kind of movies because otherwise the best suspense will not have its effect when the viewer does not feel a kind of involvement towards the media figure. Afterwards, the person may return to his normal life with a better guts feeling, new energy and maybe to have coped in some way for facing real life again. We need to manage our emotions in order to deal better with our surrounding and using the telly for this purpose has its benefit. Understanding the theoretical links between TV-viewing motives and coping strategies is important for media and health psychologists because the knowledge about how coping strategies may

change TV uses and vice versa can be useful for television networks to ensure a better program satisfaction or it may lead to new treatment methods as indicated in the implications section. This research project explored the association between TV-viewing motives, life satisfaction, stress and coping strategies in a cross-cultural setting. Again, I would like to emphasize that *the focus in the research paper was on TV uses and not TV content*. While the results of this study were supported or partially supported, they are encouraging and represent only a starting point for exploring the fairly new phenomenon of television use and coping behavior. To date, very little research attention has been given to the study of TV use and coping strategies. Minnebo (1999, 2004, 2006) found associations between the escape viewing motive and avoidant coping strategies. The results in the present study went one step further by highlighting that there are cross-cultural differences in TV-viewing motives. The findings supported that adult students from different nations use these motives as a coping efforts. Though, I agree with other researchers (e.g. Greenwood, 2007) that more research is needed in the field of media use in general, television use in particular, and psychological variables such as stress, subjective well-being and coping strategies because let's face it, television use has a *powerful* impact on our lives and in modern society it is present *everywhere*. Television use widens the perspective of knowledge for *everyone* because TV-viewing has a *universal appeal* (Charlton & O'Bey, 1997) and it has become the true melting pot of many individuals in many countries around the globe (Gerbner et al., 2002). The number of hours spent in front of the telly is increasing every year by a few minutes around the globe (Mediametrie, 2007). In my opinion, the general use of TV-viewing can be valuable. Every person may have different motives for viewing and certainly differs on choices of broadcast content, which was not a focus of this study and thus, content-specific viewing is certainly debatable and open for further research. Yet, I may say a big *hurray for television!* Thank you for its invention and different uses and its potential positive effects on the viewers. I believe that the findings of this study contribute to the academic research field of affective, health and media psychology and that this survey may have uncovered some implications that have been overlooked until now. At last, I hope the reader has enjoyed this journey and I would like to *thank you* for taking some time and effort for reading my doctoral dissertation. With these final words, the journey has come to an end and I may say in English, German, and Hungarian "goodbye, auf Wiedersehen, and viszontlátásra".

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Appendices

Appendix A

Please **circle <u>one</u>** answer; *except* when written "check all that apply" **!**

Age: _____ years.

Gender: □ Male   □ Female

Nationality: □ American   □ Hungarian   □ Israeli   □ Norwegian   □ Swiss

In which **country** are you living right now: □ CH   □ Hungary   □ Israel   □ Norway   □ USA

Are you a **student**? □ Yes   □ No
If yes, then which University are you attending:_____
Are you **working** besides your studies?   No □   Yes, part-time □   Yes, full-time □

Marital Status: □ Single   □ With Partner   □ Married   □ Divorced   □ Other

With whom are you **living** together?
□ Alone   □ at home with parents or sibling   □ with friends   □ with my partner
□ with husband/wife and child(ren)   □ with other person(s)

Please indicate the highest level of **education completed**.
□ Primary, Middle School   □ High School   □ College Graduate (B.A)
□ Master Degree (M.A.)   □ Doctoral Degree (Ph.D.)

How many TV sets are in your home? □ None   □ 1   □ 2   □ 3   □ 4   □ 5   □ more than 5
Do you have a TV in your own bedroom?   □ Yes   □ No

Whit whom are you usually watching TV: □ Alone   □ Friends   □ Family   □ Animal   □ Other

How do you receive TV channels at home? (check all that apply)
□ Satellite access   □ Cable access   □ Room aerial

How do you usually find out what programs are in the TV on a particular day? (check all that apply)
□ Nowhere   □ TV guide   □ Daily Newspaper   □ Internet   □ Teletext   □ Other

When did you have your **last exam**(s)?
□ Today   □ few days ago   □ 1 week ago   □ 2 weeks ago   □ 3 weeks ago
□ 1 month ago   □ few months ago

Approximately **how many hours <u>daily</u>** do you usually **watch TV**?
□ Less than 1 hour   □ 1 - 2 hours   □ 3 - 4 hours   □ 5 - 6 hours
□ More than 7 hours

Approximately **how many hours** do you usually **watch television** on a **<u>weekend</u>**?
□ Less than 1 hour   □ 1 - 2 hours   □ 3 - 4 hours   □ 5 - 6 hours
□ More than 7 hours

When do you **usually** watch TV?   (Please put an X to all times that apply)

	6.00 – 9.00	9.00 – 12.00	12.00 – 15.00	15.00 – 17.00	17.00 – 20.00	20.00 – 23.00	23.00 – 1.00	1.00 – 6.00
Typical Week**day**								
Typical Week**end**								

1	2	3	4	5
strongly <u>disagree</u>	disagree	neither	agree	strongly agree

Please complete the sentence: **"I watch TV......."**

RELAXATION						
1.	because it relaxes me	1	2	3	4	5
2.	because it allows me to unwind	1	2	3	4	5
3.	because it's a pleasant rest	1	2	3	4	5
COMPANIONSHIP						
4.	because there was no one else to talk or be with	1	2	3	4	5
5.	because it makes me feel less lonely	1	2	3	4	5
6.	so I won't have to be alone	1	2	3	4	5
HABIT						
7.	just because it's on	1	2	3	4	5
8.	because it's a habit, something I do each day	1	2	3	4	5
9.	because I just like to watch	1	2	3	4	5
PASS TIME						
10.	because I had nothing better to do	1	2	3	4	5
11.	because it passes the time away, particularly when I'm bored	1	2	3	4	5
12.	because it gives me something to occupy my time	1	2	3	4	5
ENTERTAINMENT						
13.	because it entertains me	1	2	3	4	5
14.	because it's enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5
15.	because it amuses me	1	2	3	4	5
SOCIAL INTERACTION						
16.	so I can talk with friends about what's on the TV	1	2	3	4	5
17.	because it's something to do when friends come over	1	2	3	4	5
18.	so I can be with my family or friends who are watching	1	2	3	4	5
INFORMATION-SEEKING						
19.	because it helps me learn things about myself and others	1	2	3	4	5
20.	so I can learn what could happen to me	1	2	3	4	5
21.	so I can learn how to do things that I haven't done before	1	2	3	4	5
AROUSAL						
22.	because it's thrilling	1	2	3	4	5
23.	because it's exciting	1	2	3	4	5
24.	because it peps me up	1	2	3	4	5
ESCAPE						
25.	so I could get away from the family or others	1	2	3	4	5
26.	so I can get away from what I'm doing	1	2	3	4	5
27.	so I can forget about school, work, or other things	1	2	3	4	5
VOYEURISM						
28.	because of the sex appeal in the program	1	2	3	4	5
29.	because I find it sexually arousing	1	2	3	4	5
30.	because the characters are sexually attractive	1	2	3	4	5

Television Viewing Motives Scale

Please circle one number in each statement that applies to you according to following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither	agree	strongly agree

1. Watching TV is one of the more important things I do each day.	1 2 3 4 5
2. If my TV set wasn't working, I would really miss watching TV.	1 2 3 4 5
3. Watching TV is very important in my life.	1 2 3 4 5
4. I could easily do without watching TV for several weeks.	1 2 3 4 5
5. I would feel lost without watching TV.	1 2 3 4 5

TV-viewing Affinity Scale

"When I watch my favorite TV show…"	
1. I feel sorry for my favorite TV character when he or she makes a mistake.	1 2 3 4 5
2. My favorite TV program makes me feel comfortable, as if I am with friends.	1 2 3 4 5
3. I see my favorite TV character as a natural, down-to-earth person.	1 2 3 4 5
4. I look forward to watching my favorite TV character on this week's episode.	1 2 3 4 5
5. If my favorite TV character appeared on another TV program, I would watch that program.	1 2 3 4 5
6. I miss seeing my favorite TV character when they are not on TV.	1 2 3 4 5
7. My favorite TV character seems to understand the kinds of things I want to know.	1 2 3 4 5
8. I would like to meet my favorite TV character in person.	1 2 3 4 5
9. I find my favorite TV character to be attractive.	1 2 3 4 5
10. If there were a story about my favorite TV character in a newspaper/magazine, I would read it.	1 2 3 4 5

Parasocial Interaction Scale

"After viewing my favorite TV program, …."	
1. I spend a lot of time thinking about what happened in the story.	1 2 3 4 5
2. I spend a lot of time thinking about what I saw or heard.	1 2 3 4 5
3. I spend a lot of time thinking about what will happen in the next episode.	1 2 3 4 5
4. I spend a lot of time thinking about the characters.	1 2 3 4 5

Post-Viewing Cognition Scale

Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Indicate your agreement with each item by using the 1 - 7 scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I am satisfied with my life.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Life Satisfaction Scale

The questions in this scale ask you about your **feelings and thoughts during the last month**. In each case, please indicate with a check how often you felt or thought a certain way according to this scale:

1 = never	2 = almost never	3 = sometimes	4 = fairly often	5 = very often

Please complete the sentence: **" In the last month, how often have you…"**	
1. been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?	1 2 3 4 5
2. felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?	1 2 3 4 5
3. felt nervous and "stressed"?	1 2 3 4 5
4. felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems?	1 2 3 4 5
5. felt that things were going your way?	1 2 3 4 5
6. found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?	1 2 3 4 5
7. been able to control irritations in your life?	1 2 3 4 5
8. felt that you were on top of things?	1 2 3 4 5
9. been angered because of things that were outside of your control?	1 2 3 4 5
10. felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?	1 2 3 4 5

Perceived Stress Scale

These items deal with ways you've been coping with stress in your life. There are many ways to try to deal with problems. **Indicate what YOU usually do when YOU experience a stressful event** according to this scale:

1 = I do <u>not</u> do this <u>at all</u>	2 = I do this a <u>little</u> bit	3 = I do this a <u>lot</u>	4 = I do this <u>all the time</u>

1. I turn to work or other activities to take my mind off things.	1 2 3 4
2. I concentrate my efforts on doing something about the situation I'm in.	1 2 3 4
3. I say to myself "this isn't real".	1 2 3 4
4. I use alcohol or other drugs to make myself feel better.	1 2 3 4
5. I get emotional support from others.	1 2 3 4
6. I give up trying to deal with it.	1 2 3 4
7. I take action to try to make the situation better.	1 2 3 4
8. I refuse to believe that it has happened.	1 2 3 4
9. I say things to let my unpleasant feelings escape.	1 2 3 4
10. I get help and advice from other people.	1 2 3 4
11. I use alcohol or other drugs to help me get through it.	1 2 3 4
12. I try to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.	1 2 3 4
13. I criticize myself.	1 2 3 4
14. I try to come up with a strategy about what to do.	1 2 3 4
15. I get comfort and understanding from someone.	1 2 3 4
16. I give up the attempt to cope.	1 2 3 4
17. I look for something good in what is happening.	1 2 3 4
18. I make jokes about it.	1 2 3 4
19. I do something to think about it less, such as going to movies, watching TV, reading, daydreaming, sleeping, or shopping.	1 2 3 4
20. I accept the reality of the fact that it has happened.	1 2 3 4
21. I express my negative feelings.	1 2 3 4
22. I try to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs.	1 2 3 4
23. I try to get advice or help from other people about what to do.	1 2 3 4
24. I learn to live with it.	1 2 3 4
25. I think hard about what steps to take.	1 2 3 4
26. I blame myself for things that happened.	1 2 3 4
27. I pray or meditating.	1 2 3 4
28. I make fun of the situation.	1 2 3 4

Brief COPE Inventory

Appendix B

<u>E-mail invitation forwarded to students by professors and Department secretaries:</u>

Dear students,

Please fill out the survey for my Ph.D. dissertation about TV-viewing habits and psychosocial variables. All answers are kept anonymous and the survey is easy, fun and taking approx. 20 min!

This survey is launched in the USA, Hungary, Israel, Norway and Switzerland.

Link to the survey:

Many thanks for your help and participation!

<u>E-mail cover letter invitation sent to professors and Department secretaries in order to ask them to forward the survey link to their students:</u>

My name is Liliana Vas from Switzerland and I am a Ph.D. student of Psychology at the University of Eötvös Lorand, Department of Health and Personality Psychology in Budapest, Hungary.

The online survey mentioned above is part of my Ph.D. dissertation regarding TV-viewing habits and the positive or negative affects of TV-viewing on well-being, stress and coping behavior. It is an empirical and cross-cultural research about the relationship between media and health psychology. The questionnaire is in English and contains well-known standardized scales.

The study is going to be launched early Spring for 6 weeks on the website of <u>www.surveymonkey.com</u> in several countries such as in America, Hungary, Israel, Sweden, Switzerland and Norway. The survey takes approximately 20 min. to complete and all answers will be kept anonymous and confidential.

The research plan is to invite undergraduate and graduate University students from different Departments such as from psychology, medicine, nursing, literature, mathematics and law to fill out the survey. In the end, it would be great to have a sample of at least 150 students per country.

I would kindly like to ask whether it would be possible to forward the link to the survey to your students at your University?

I would like to say thank you very much for your help and for taking the time out of your busy schedule in order to read this e-mail. I hope to establish a good cooperation between our two Universities.

If you have any questions then please feel free to e-mail me at: <u>vaslilia@aol.com</u> or contact my reference and doctoral dissertation advisor, Prof. Dr. Habil. Eva Kosa at: <u>kosa.eva@ppk.elte.hu</u>

I am looking forward to hearing from you and remain until then,

With kindest regards,

Liliana Vas
Ph.D. student of Psychology

Appendix C

Table X: Summary of age and hours of watching TV among 5 samples

Report

NATION	GENDER		AGE	WATCHING
Hu	Males	Mean	23.22	2.03
		N	122	119
		Std. Deviation	3.95	1.16
	Females	Mean	23.08	2.29
		N	529	529
		Std. Deviation	4.86	1.17
	Total	Mean	23.10	2.24
		N	651	648
		Std. Deviation	4.70	1.17
US	Males	Mean	29.30	1.55
		N	10	11
		Std. Deviation	14.35	.52
	Females	Mean	27.40	1.30
		N	43	43
		Std. Deviation	9.70	.46
	Total	Mean	27.75	1.35
		N	53	54
		Std. Deviation	10.59	.48
IL	Males	Mean	26.09	1.70
		N	56	56
		Std. Deviation	6.07	.46
	Females	Mean	24.79	1.54
		N	202	207
		Std. Deviation	3.62	.50
	Total	Mean	25.07	1.57
		N	258	263
		Std. Deviation	4.29	.50
No	Males	Mean	27.95	1.48
		N	22	23
		Std. Deviation	6.43	.51
	Females	Mean	25.81	1.67
		N	162	163
		Std. Deviation	6.47	.47
	Total	Mean	26.07	1.65
		N	184	186
		Std. Deviation	6.49	.48
CH	Males	Mean	26.39	1.69
		N	97	99
		Std. Deviation	6.21	.47
	Females	Mean	23.35	1.81
		N	164	163
		Std. Deviation	5.04	.39
	Total	Mean	24.48	1.76
		N	261	262
		Std. Deviation	5.69	.43
Total	Males	Mean	25.28	1.80
		N	307	308
		Std. Deviation	6.08	.83
	Females	Mean	24.00	1.95
		N	1100	1105
		Std. Deviation	5.36	.94
	Total	Mean	24.28	1.92
		N	1407	1413
		Std. Deviation	5.55	.92

Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients:

TV-viewing Motives Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 1387, N of Items = 30, Alpha = .8452

Relaxation Motive Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 1421, N of Items = 3, Alpha = .5949

Companionship Motive Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 1420, N of Items = 3, Alpha = .8104

Habit Motive Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases =   1423, N of Items = 3, Alpha = .5893

Pass time Motive Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 1417, N of Items = 3, Alpha = .6827

Entertainment Motive Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 1419, N of Items = 3, Alpha = .7722

Arousal Motive Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 1420, N of Items = 3, Alpha = .6739

Social interaction Motive Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 1419, N of Items = 3, Alpha = .8206

Information-seeking Motive Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 1422, N of Items = 3, Alpha = .6574

Escape Motive Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 1420, N of Items = 3, Alpha = .5043

Voyeurism Motive Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 1423, N of Items = 3, Alpha = .7156

TV-affinity Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 983, N of Items = 5, Alpha = .6118

Post-viewing cognition Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 965, N of Items = 4, Alpha = .6951

Parasocial interaction Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 954, N of Items = 10, Alpha = .8137

Perceived Stress Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 956, N of Items = 10, Alpha = .7612

Life Satisfaction Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 1419, N of Items = 5, Alpha = .7293

B-COPE Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 968, N of Items = 28, Alpha = .7800

Active coping Strategy Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 984, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .7239

Planning Strategy Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 977, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .5976

Use of instrumental support Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 980, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .7216

Denial Strategy Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 984, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .6751

Use of emotional support Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 983, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .5569

Acceptance Strategy Reliability Coefficients N of Cases = 981, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .5044

Positive reframing Strategy Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 982, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .7835

Religion Strategy Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 976, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .7934

Behavioral disengagement Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 982, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .7994

Mental disengagement Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 980, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .5922

Humor Strategy Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 980, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .6852

Self-blame Strategy Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 981, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .7623

Substance use Strategy Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 984, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .5501

Venting Strategy Reliability Coefficients, N of Cases = 981, N of Items = 2, Alpha = .5789

Factor analysis of the television viewing motives scale

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.754	22.514	22.514	6.754	22.514	22.514	6.236	20.785	20.785
2	4.971	16.569	39.084	4.971	16.569	39.084	2.721	9.071	29.856
3	2.054	6.847	45.931	2.054	6.847	45.931	2.475	8.249	38.105
4	1.529	5.097	51.028	1.529	5.097	51.028	2.399	7.995	46.100
5	1.201	4.002	55.029	1.201	4.002	55.029	2.209	7.365	53.465
6	1.112	3.707	58.736	1.112	3.707	58.736	1.581	5.271	58.736
7	.981	3.271	62.007						
8	.885	2.949	64.956						
9	.804	2.679	67.635						
10	.774	2.580	70.215						
11	.754	2.513	72.728						
12	.717	2.389	75.117						
13	.651	2.170	77.287						
14	.564	1.879	79.166						
15	.553	1.843	81.009						
16	.536	1.787	82.795						
17	.502	1.673	84.468						
18	.482	1.608	86.076						
19	.480	1.601	87.677						
20	.450	1.500	89.177						
21	.428	1.426	90.602						
22	.404	1.346	91.948						
23	.400	1.334	93.282						
24	.356	1.185	94.467						
25	.342	1.139	95.606						
26	.331	1.104	96.710						
27	.288	.959	97.669						
28	.272	.907	98.577						
29	.262	.874	99.450						
30	.165	.550	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Factor Loadings for the television viewing motives scale

	Component					
	1 Arousal & Entertainment	2 Habit & Pass time	3 Info-seeking & Social interaction	4 Voyeurism	5 Escape & Relaxation	6 Companionship
MOT15	,794					
MOT5	,744					
MOT25	,718					
MOT18	,659					
MOT8	,637					
MOT28	,363					
MOT14		,729				
MOT24		,712				
MOT4		,690				
MOT3		,578				
MOT13		,552				
Mot 23		,493				
MOT27			,732			
MOT17			,710			
MOT7			,666			
MOT6			,545			
MOT16			,535			
MOT26			,519			

Item								
MOT20						,821		
MOT10						,809		
MOT30						,774		
MOT9							,410	
MOT29							,717	
MOT19							,636	
MOT21							,617	
MOT11							,614	
MOT1							,599	
MOT12								,695
MOT22								,664
MOT2								,612

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotated Component Matrix (a) - Rotation converged in 11 iterations.

Factor analysis of the B-COPE scale

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4,971	17,753	17,753	4,971	17,753	17,753	3,243	11,583	11,583
2	3,332	11,900	29,652	3,332	11,900	29,652	3,210	11,464	23,047
3	2,430	8,679	38,331	2,430	8,679	38,331	2,374	8,480	31,527
4	1,863	6,652	44,983	1,863	6,652	44,983	1,956	6,985	38,512
5	1,678	5,992	50,975	1,678	5,992	50,975	1,941	6,934	45,446
6	1,652	5,900	56,875	1,652	5,900	56,875	1,906	6,806	52,251
7	1,385	4,946	61,821	1,385	4,946	61,821	1,830	6,535	58,786
8	1,222	4,366	66,187	1,222	4,366	66,187	1,683	6,009	64,796
9	1,080	3,857	70,044	1,080	3,857	70,044	1,469	5,248	70,044
10	,951	3,398	73,442						
11	,819	2,925	76,367						
12	,740	2,641	79,008						
13	,658	2,351	81,359						
14	,642	2,291	83,650						
15	,558	1,991	85,642						
16	,481	1,717	87,359						
17	,430	1,536	88,894						
18	,402	1,437	90,332						
19	,395	1,410	91,742						
20	,370	1,323	93,065						
21	,362	1,292	94,357						
22	,347	1,238	95,595						
23	,287	1,024	96,619						
24	,228	,815	97,434						
25	,222	,792	98,226						
26	,200	,713	98,939						
27	,172	,614	99,553						
28	,125	,447	100,000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Factor loadings for the Brief COPE scale

	Component								
	1 Instr.supp.& Emot.supp	2 Active coping & Planning	3 Denial & Beh.Dis	4 Humor	5 Subst.use	6 Self-blame	7 Religion	8 Self-distr & Pos.refr.& Venting	9 Accept
COPE23	,868								
COPE10	,832								
COPE15	,855								
COPE5	,852								
COPE2		,791							
COPE7		,783							
COPE14		,745							
COPE25		,743							
COPE8			,797						
COPE3			,748						
COPE16			,651						
COPE6			,627						
COPE28				,922					
COPE18				,915					
COPE4					,947				
COPE11					,945				
COPE26						,908			
COPE13						,904			
COPE22							,929		
COPE27							,928		
COPE1								,702	
COPE19								,597	
COPE12								,522	
COPE17								,465	
COPE9								,422	
COPE21								,410	
COPE24									,755
COPE20									,706

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotated Component Matrix (a) - Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Table 6: Pearson correlation for instrumental viewing motives and TV involvement variables

		SOCINTER	INFOSEEK	AFFINITY	PARASOC	POSTVIEW
SOCINTER	Pearson Correlation	1	,391(**)	,219(**)	,320(**)	,293(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	1422	1418	979	954	973
INFOSEEK	Pearson Correlation	,391(**)	1	,239(**)	,217(**)	,268(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	.	,000	,000	,000
	N	1418	1420	978	953	972
AFFINITY	Pearson Correlation	,219(**)	,239(**)	1	,298(**)	,203(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	.	,000	,000
	N	979	978	983	953	972
PARASOC	Pearson Correlation	,320(**)	,217(**)	,298(**)	1	,530(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	.	,000

		N	954	953	953	957	953
POSTVIEW	Pearson Correlation		,293(**)	,268(**)	,203(**)	,530(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,000	,000	.
	N		973	972	972	953	976

** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

Table 7: Summary of instrumental TV-viewing motives and problem-focused coping strategies.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,053	,122		16,769	,000
	INSTRSUP	,082	,040	,068	2,079	,038
2	(Constant)	1,411	,321		4,390	,000
	INSTRSUP	,096	,040	,080	2,393	,017
	AGE	,020	,007	,115	2,992	,003
	GENDER	-,027	,080	-,012	-,345	,730
	Dichotomized working	-,104	,067	-,054	-1,558	,120
	Dichotomized marital status	-,058	,071	-,029	-,816	,414
	Dichotomized educational status	-,055	,081	-,026	-,682	,495
	DAILYD	,268	,070	,126	3,849	,000
	Dichotomied living	,076	,105	,024	,725	,468

Dependent Variable: INFOSEEK

Table 7: Summary of instrumental TV-viewing motives and problem-focused coping strategies.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,482	,119		20,905	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,119	,038	-,103	-3,157	,002
2	(Constant)	2,202	,274		8,036	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,113	,038	-,098	-2,936	,003
	AGE	-,006	,005	-,042	-1,101	,271
	GENDER	,027	,064	,014	,422	,673
	Dichotomized working	-,012	,055	-,008	-,217	,828
	Dichotomized marital status	-,086	,058	-,053	-1,470	,142
	Dichotomized educational status	-,013	,066	-,008	-,204	,839
	DAILYD	,169	,058	,097	2,929	,003
	Dichotomied living	,155	,086	,060	1,804	,072

Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION

Table 7: Summary of instrumental TV-viewing motives and problem-focused coping strategies.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,391	,121		19,829	,000
	PLANNING	-,088	,038	-,076	-2,332	,020
2	(Constant)	2,143	,278		7,714	,000
	PLANNING	-,087	,038	-,076	-2,264	,024
	AGE	-,006	,005	-,041	-1,056	,291
	GENDER	,016	,064	,008	,244	,808
	Dichotomized working	-,008	,056	-,005	-,144	,886
	Dichotomized marital status	-,094	,059	-,057	-1,597	,111
	Dichotomized educational status	-,019	,066	-,011	-,283	,777

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	DAILYD	,177	,058	,101	3,074	,002
	Dichotomied living	,155	,086	,060	1,799	,072

Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION

Table 8: Summary of instrumental and ritualistic TV-viewing motives and emotion-focused coping strategies.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,862	,097		19,198	,000
	EMOTSUP	,086	,032	,089	2,716	,007
2	(Constant)	1,700	,258		6,598	,000
	EMOTSUP	,084	,033	,087	2,581	,010
	AGE	-,006	,005	-,039	-1,022	,307
	GENDER	-,030	,065	-,016	-,463	,643
	Dichotomized working	,011	,055	,007	,195	,846
	Dichotomized marital status	-,093	,059	-,057	-1,590	,112
	Dichotomized educational status	-,017	,066	-,010	-,250	,802
	DAILYD	,194	,057	,111	3,394	,001
	Dichotomied living	,126	,086	,049	1,464	,143

Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION

Table 8: Summary of instrumental and ritualistic TV-viewing motives and emotion-focused coping strategies.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,136	,074		29,045	,000
	DENIAL	,097	,040	,080	2,434	,015
2	(Constant)	1,512	,311		4,870	,000
	DENIAL	,098	,040	,081	2,441	,015
	AGE	,019	,007	,110	2,847	,005
	GENDER	-,003	,078	-,001	-,035	,972
	Dichotomized working	-,100	,067	-,052	-1,492	,136
	Dichotomized marital status	-,039	,072	-,019	-,542	,588
	Dichotomized educational status	-,053	,081	-,025	-,655	,512
	DAILYD	,266	,070	,125	3,813	,000
	Dichotomied living	,059	,105	,019	,561	,575

Dependent Variable: INFOSEEK

Table 8: Summary of instrumental and ritualistic TV-viewing motives and emotion-focused coping strategies.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,966	,060		32,665	,000
	DENIAL	,089	,033	,089	2,717	,007
2	(Constant)	1,734	,255		6,795	,000
	DENIAL	,083	,033	,083	2,503	,012
	AGE	-,007	,005	-,048	-1,231	,218
	GENDER	,003	,064	,002	,048	,962
	Dichotomized working	,020	,055	,012	,354	,723
	Dichotomized marital status	-,068	,059	-,042	-1,163	,245
	Dichotomized educational status	-,015	,067	-,009	-,229	,819
	DAILYD	,196	,057	,112	3,423	,001
	Dichotomied living	,121	,086	,047	1,405	,160

Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION

Table 8: Summary of instrumental and ritualistic TV-viewing motives and emotion-focused coping strategies.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,993	,072		27,677	,000
	DENIAL	,090	,039	,076	2,319	,021
2	(Constant)	2,827	,297		9,528	,000
	DENIAL	,106	,038	,089	2,754	,006
	AGE	-,007	,006	-,043	-1,151	,250
	GENDER	,062	,075	,027	,830	,407
	Dichotomized working	,047	,064	,025	,728	,467
	Dichotomized marital status	-,090	,068	-,046	-1,323	,186
	Dichotomized educational status	-,076	,077	-,037	-,990	,323
	DAILYD	,372	,067	,178	5,598	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,592	,100	-,193	-5,920	,000

Dependent Variable: COMPANY

Table 9: Summary of ritualistic TV-viewing motives and avoidant coping strategies.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,441	,116		21,064	,000
	MENTDIS	,060	,044	,045	1,367	,172
2	(Constant)	1,545	,303		5,096	,000
	MENTDIS	,095	,042	,071	2,280	,023
	AGE	-,011	,006	-,067	-1,829	,068
	GENDER	,078	,072	,034	1,086	,278
	Dichotomized working	,096	,061	,051	1,568	,117
	Dichotomized marital status	,201	,066	,104	3,060	,002
	Dichotomized educational status	-,027	,074	-,013	-,367	,713
	DAILYD	,699	,064	,338	10,948	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,182	,096	-,059	-1,884	,060

Dependent Variable: HABIT

Table 9: Summary of ritualistic TV-viewing motives and avoidant coping strategies.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,914	,106		27,539	,000
	MENTDIS	,217	,040	,176	5,448	,000
2	(Constant)	1,834	,292		6,285	,000
	MENTDIS	,220	,040	,179	5,484	,000
	AGE	,005	,006	,032	,846	,398
	GENDER	,165	,069	,077	2,378	,018
	Dichotomized working	-,078	,059	-,045	-1,311	,190
	Dichotomized marital status	-,012	,063	-,007	-,187	,851
	Dichotomized educational status	,022	,071	,011	,303	,762
	DAILYD	,240	,062	,126	3,898	,000
	Dichotomied living	,243	,093	,086	2,621	,009

Dependent Variable: RELAX

Table 9: Summary of ritualistic TV-viewing motives and avoidant coping strategies.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,059	,103		19,964	,000
	MENTDIS	,192	,039	,160	4,947	,000
2	(Constant)	1,491	,284		5,241	,000
	MENTDIS	,194	,039	,161	4,949	,000
	AGE	-,007	,006	-,047	-1,228	,220
	GENDER	,157	,068	,075	2,325	,020
	Dichotomized working	,093	,058	,055	1,611	,107
	Dichotomized marital status	,056	,062	,032	,910	,363
	Dichotomized educational status	-,083	,070	-,045	-1,195	,232
	DAILYD	,259	,060	,139	4,328	,000
	Dichotomied living	,002	,090	,001	,018	,986

Dependent Variable: ESCAPE

Table 9: Summary of ritualistic TV-viewing motives and avoidant coping strategies.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,309	,072		31,977	,000
	BEHDIS	,157	,043	,118	3,636	,000
2	(Constant)	1,780	,273		6,516	,000
	BEHDIS	,158	,043	,119	3,676	,000
	AGE	-,007	,006	-,049	-1,280	,201
	GENDER	,197	,067	,095	2,930	,003
	Dichotomized working	,097	,058	,057	1,674	,095
	Dichotomized marital status	,040	,062	,023	,651	,515
	Dichotomized educational status	-,082	,070	-,044	-1,169	,243
	DAILYD	,237	,060	,128	3,945	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,031	,091	-,011	-,339	,734

Dependent Variable: ESCAPE

Table 10: Summary of multiple linear regression analyses regarding TV-viewing motives and coping strategies according to countries ❶

Independent variable (coping strategies) – Dependent variable (TV-viewing motives)	American students		Hungarian students		Israeli students		Norwegian students		Swiss students	
	β coeff *	p value	β coeff *	p value	β coeff *	p value	β coeff *	p value	β coeff *	p value
Acceptance – habit motive					0.201	0.000				
Acceptance – pass time motive					-0.183	0.001	-0.166	0.000		
Acceptance – companionship motive	0.202	0.000								
Acceptance – relaxation motive	0.289	0.000					0.162	0.001	-0.202	0.000
Acceptance – entertainment motive	0.169	0.000					0.208	0.000		
Acceptance – arousal motive							0.203	0.000		
Acceptance – social interaction motive					0.204	0.000				

	V1	p1	V2	p2	V3	p3	V4	p4	V5	p5
Acceptance – voyeurism motive	0.154	0.000								
Active coping – habit motive	-0.162	0.001							-0.267	0.000
Active coping – pass time motive	-0.418	0.000					-0.304	0.000	-0.280	0.000
Active coping – companionship motive	-0.260	0.000					-0.199	0.000	-0.223	0.000
Active coping – entertainment motive							0.201	0.000		
Active coping – escape motive	-0.330	0.000			-0.235	0.000				
Active coping – voyeurism motive	0.198	0.000								
Behavioral disengag – habit motive	-0.309	0.000					0.166	0.000		
Behavioral disengag – pass time motive			0.162	0.000	0.207	0.000	0.213	0.000		
Behavioral disengag – companionship motive			0.156	0.001	0.153	0.001	0.299	0.000		
Behavioral disengag – relaxation motive	-0.529	0.000								
Behavioral disengag – entertainment motive	-0.161	0.000								
Behavioral disengag – escape motive			0.214	0.000			0.181	0.000		
Behavioral disengag – social interaction motive			0.159	0.001					0.204	0.000
Behavioral disengag – info-seeking motive	-0.438	0.000					-0.174	0.000		
Behavioral disengag – voyeurism motive	-0.161	0.000								
Denial – habit motive	-0.276	0.000							0.189	0.000
Denial – pass time motive			0.246	0.000	0.191	0.000	0.149	0.001		
Denial – companionship motive			0.184	0.000			0.214	0.000		
Denial – relaxation motive	-0.450	0.000								
Denial – escape motive			0.168	0.000						
Denial – social interaction motive	0.346	0.000	0.203	0.000					0.229	0.000
Denial – info-seeking motive	-0.292	0.000								
Denial – voyeurism motive	-0.184	0.000								
Emotional support – habit motive	-0.192	0.000							-0.182	0.001
Emotional support –	0.324	0.000					-0.204	0.000		

	1		2		3		4		5	
companionship motive										
Emotional support – relaxation motive					0.167	0.001	0.166	0.001		
Emotional support – entertainment motive	-0.199	0.000			0.161	0.001				
Emotional support – arousal motive	-0.196	0.000			0.229	0.000				
Emotional support – social interaction motive					0.196	0.000				
Emotional support – info-seeking motive	-0.433	0.000								
Emotional support – voyeurism motive									-0.212	0.000
Instrumental support – habit motive	0.339	0.000								
Instrumental support – pass time motive	0.215	0.000								
Instrumental support – companionship motive	0.301	0.000								
Instrumental support – relaxation motive	0.250	0.000			0.252	0.000	0.184	0.000		
Instrumental support – entertainment motive					0.181	0.000				
Instrumental support – arousal motive					0.209	0.000				
Instrumental support – escape motive	0.287	0.000								
Instrumental support – social interaction motive	-0.336	0.000			0.200	0.000				
Instrumental support – info-seeking motive	-0.327	0.000								
Instrumental support – voyeurism motive									-0.199	0.000
Mental disengagement – habit motive							0.182	0.000		
Mental disengagement – pass time motive			0.177	0.000						
Mental disengagement – companionship motive			0.157	0.001						
Mental disengagement – relaxation motive			0.222	0.000	0.191	0.000	0.284	0.000		
Mental disengagement – entertainment motive	0.182	0.001					0.174	0.001		
Mental disengagement – escape motive	-0.186	0.000	0.200	0.000	0.251	0.000				
Mental disengagement – social interaction motive			0.185	0.000	0.169	0.000			0.190	0.001
Mental disengagement – info-seeking motive	0.308	0.000								
Mental disengagement – voyeurism motive	0.196	0.000								
Planning –	0.257	0.000								

	A		B		C		D		E	
habit motive										
Planning – pass time motive	-0.303	0.000					-0.176	0.000		
Planning – companionship motive	-0.351	0.000								
Planning – relaxation motive	0.272	0.000					0.184	0.000		
Planning – entertainment motive	0.312	0.000					0.206	0.000		
Planning – voyeurism motive	0.214	0.000								
Positive reframing – pass time motive	-0.151	0.000								
Positive reframing – companionship motive	-0.236	0.000								
Positive reframing – relaxation motive			0.145	0.001			0.182	0.000		
Positive reframing – arousal motive	0.196	0.000								
Positive reframing – escape motive	-0.334	0.000								
Positive reframing – social interaction motive					0.188	0.000				
Positive reframing – info-seeking motive			0.148	0.001						
Substance use – habit motive			0.162	0.000						
Substance use – pass time motive	0.133	0.001	0.179	0.000	0.250	0.000			0.213	0.000
Substance use – companionship motive	0.226	0.000	0.187	0.000			0.174	0.000	0.219	0.000
Substance use – entertainment motive	-0.239	0.000								
Substance use – social interaction motive	0.232	0.000								
Venting – habit motive	0.218	0.000								
Venting – companionship motive	-0.205	0.000	0.156	0.001						
Venting – relaxation motive			0.166	0.000						
Venting – entertainment motive	0.329	0.000								
Venting – escape motive	0.208	0.000	0.177	0.000						
Venting – social interaction motive	0.193	0.000			0.207	0.000				
Venting – info-seeking motive					0.179	0.000				

❶ Only statistically significant associations at the p ≤ 0.001 level are presented.
* Adjustment was made for age, gender, work, marital status and living condition.

Table 10 (SPSS output)

Coefficients(a,b)

Model	Coefficients(a,b)	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,484	,230		6,465	,000
	ACCEPT	,317	,079	,186	4,007	,000
2	(Constant)	2,317	,444		5,218	,000
	ACCEPT	,344	,071	,202	4,880	,000
	AGE	-,020	,005	-,213	-4,052	,000
	GENDER	,377	,103	,160	3,670	,000
	Dichotomized working	,083	,089	,041	,926	,355
	Dichotomized marital status	-,557	,090	-,296	-6,226	,000
	Dichotomized educational status	,280	,095	,149	2,956	,003
	DAILYD	,298	,084	,160	3,526	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,663	,139	-,196	-4,771	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,009	,166		18,154	,000
	ACCEPT	,186	,062	,146	2,990	,003
2	(Constant)	3,168	,421		7,523	,000
	ACCEPT	,206	,062	,162	3,330	,001
	AGE	-,002	,006	-,013	-,248	,804
	GENDER	-,043	,118	-,019	-,365	,715
	Dichotomized working	-,268	,092	-,146	-2,920	,004
	Dichotomized marital status	,009	,081	,006	,115	,908
	Dichotomized educational status	,231	,079	,152	2,925	,004
	DAILYD	,335	,077	,217	4,367	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,218	,116	-,094	-1,883	,060

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,940	,165		17,794	,000
	ACCEPT	,280	,057	,227	4,922	,000
2	(Constant)	2,876	,357		8,048	,000
	ACCEPT	,357	,057	,289	6,287	,000
	AGE	-,009	,004	-,134	-2,307	,022
	GENDER	-,371	,083	-,216	-4,488	,000
	Dichotomized working	,049	,072	,033	,680	,497
	Dichotomized marital status	-,218	,072	-,159	-3,023	,003
	Dichotomized educational status	,339	,076	,248	4,446	,000
	DAILYD	,152	,068	,112	2,231	,026
	Dichotomied living	,122	,112	,050	1,094	,275

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,434	,153		15,896	,000
	ACCEPT	,203	,056	,176	3,660	,000
2	(Constant)	1,487	,497		2,991	,003

	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
ACCEPT	,232	,052	,201	4,438	,000
AGE	-,016	,010	-,087	-1,602	,110
GENDER	,102	,095	,049	1,070	,285
Dichotomized working	,096	,081	,054	1,182	,238
Dichotomized marital status	-,068	,076	-,042	-,895	,371
Dichotomized educational status	-,107	,091	-,063	-1,181	,238
DAILYD	,679	,073	,410	9,331	,000
Dichotomied living	,120	,129	,044	,930	,353

a Dependent Variable: HABIT   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,281	,135		24,278	,000
	ACCEPT	,189	,051	,181	3,735	,000
2	(Constant)	3,471	,347		10,015	,000
	ACCEPT	,218	,051	,208	4,277	,000
	AGE	-,021	,005	-,211	-4,038	,000
	GENDER	-,059	,097	-,031	-,604	,546
	Dichotomized working	-,170	,076	-,113	-2,249	,025
	Dichotomized marital status	-,001	,066	-,001	-,021	,984
	Dichotomized educational status	,116	,065	,093	1,785	,075
	DAILYD	,131	,063	,103	2,074	,039
	Dichotomied living	,187	,095	,098	1,961	,051

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAINMENT   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,264	,147		22,158	,000
	ACCEPT	,185	,051	,170	3,654	,000
2	(Constant)	3,283	,320		10,264	,000
	ACCEPT	,184	,051	,169	3,628	,000
	AGE	,003	,004	,057	,961	,337
	GENDER	-,206	,074	-,136	-2,780	,006
	Dichotomized working	-,009	,064	-,007	-,138	,890
	Dichotomized marital status	-,025	,064	-,020	-,382	,703
	Dichotomized educational status	-,185	,068	-,153	-2,702	,007
	DAILYD	-,037	,061	-,032	-,617	,538
	Dichotomied living	,344	,100	,159	3,438	,001

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAINMENT   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,443	,144		16,960	,000
	ACCEPT	,197	,054	,177	3,647	,000
2	(Constant)	3,023	,374		8,076	,000
	ACCEPT	,227	,055	,203	4,120	,000
	AGE	-,016	,006	-,156	-2,953	,003
	GENDER	-,011	,105	-,005	-,102	,918
	Dichotomized working	-,179	,082	-,112	-2,189	,029
	Dichotomized marital status	-,036	,072	-,026	-,508	,612
	Dichotomized educational status	,141	,070	,107	2,016	,044
	DAILYD	,075	,068	,056	1,102	,271
	Dichotomied living	-,069	,103	-,034	-,673	,501

a Dependent Variable: AROUSAL   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,260	,217		5,814	,000
	ACCEPT	,190	,075	,119	2,544	,011
2	(Constant)	2,689	,412		6,527	,000
	ACCEPT	,246	,065	,154	3,756	,000
	AGE	-,003	,005	-,029	-,566	,572
	GENDER	,381	,095	,173	3,998	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,601	,083	-,318	-7,259	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	-,365	,083	-,207	-4,394	,000
	Dichotomized educational status	,464	,088	,264	5,278	,000
	DAILYD	,369	,078	,213	4,712	,000
	Dichotomied living	-1,015	,129	-,320	-7,877	,000

a Dependent Variable: VOYEUR   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,601	,153		10,439	,000
	ACCEPT	,249	,056	,212	4,472	,000
2	(Constant)	1,286	,531		2,422	,016
	ACCEPT	,240	,057	,204	4,215	,000
	AGE	-,018	,010	-,106	-1,872	,062
	GENDER	-,214	,104	-,102	-2,065	,040
	Dichotomized working	,201	,088	,112	2,287	,023
	Dichotomized marital status	,021	,083	,013	,257	,797
	Dichotomized educational status	-,089	,095	-,051	-,931	,353
	DAILYD	,217	,078	,130	2,782	,006
	Dichotomied living	,333	,137	,123	2,437	,015

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,631	,109		14,906	,000
	DENIAL	,198	,051	,176	3,886	,000
2	(Constant)	2,852	,435		6,552	,000
	DENIAL	,206	,050	,184	4,106	,000
	AGE	-,010	,012	-,052	-,886	,376
	GENDER	,027	,111	,011	,242	,809
	Dichotomized working	,050	,094	,025	,530	,596
	Dichotomized marital status	-,047	,122	-,019	-,382	,703
	Dichotomized educational status	-,208	,142	-,081	-1,467	,143
	DAILYD	,316	,105	,135	3,016	,003
	Dichotomied living	-,627	,161	-,176	-3,895	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,850	,124		14,968	,000
	DENIAL	,330	,083	,191	3,960	,000
2	(Constant)	3,477	,437		7,952	,000

Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
	DENIAL	,370	,077	,214	4,797	,000
	AGE	-,019	,007	-,137	-2,825	,005
	GENDER	,131	,127	,049	1,032	,303
	Dichotomized working	-,020	,100	-,010	-,204	,839
	Dichotomized marital status	-,108	,087	-,059	-1,249	,213
	Dichotomized educational status	-,069	,086	-,039	-,809	,419
	DAILYD	,271	,083	,151	3,249	,001
	Dichotomied living	-,789	,126	-,294	-6,276	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,341	,131		17,934	,000
	DENIAL	,260	,083	,174	3,125	,002
2	(Constant)	2,649	,453		5,843	,000
	DENIAL	,281	,078	,189	3,608	,000
	AGE	-,011	,009	-,069	-1,184	,237
	GENDER	-,174	,106	-,091	-1,645	,101
	Dichotomized working	-,289	,109	-,144	-2,657	,008
	Dichotomized marital status	,288	,098	,156	2,939	,004
	Dichotomized educational status	-,282	,102	-,153	-2,757	,006
	DAILYD	,801	,110	,373	7,275	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,178	,128	-,075	-1,390	,166

a Dependent Variable: HABIT   b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,807	,122		14,828	,000
	DENIAL	,304	,057	,239	5,351	,000
2	(Constant)	3,419	,477		7,173	,000
	DENIAL	,313	,055	,246	5,684	,000
	AGE	-,045	,013	-,201	-3,520	,000
	GENDER	,074	,121	,026	,610	,542
	Dichotomized working	-,106	,103	-,048	-1,029	,304
	Dichotomized marital status	,157	,133	,058	1,177	,240
	Dichotomized educational status	-,145	,155	-,050	-,934	,351
	DAILYD	,399	,115	,151	3,483	,001
	Dichotomied living	-,562	,176	-,140	-3,191	,002

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,857	,128		22,249	,000
	DENIAL	,266	,092	,139	2,875	,004
2	(Constant)	4,978	,572		8,697	,000
	DENIAL	,367	,089	,191	4,138	,000
	AGE	-,050	,012	-,234	-4,163	,000
	GENDER	-,169	,122	-,067	-1,382	,168
	Dichotomized working	-,158	,104	-,073	-1,527	,127
	Dichotomized marital status	-,197	,098	-,098	-2,003	,046
	Dichotomized educational status	-,095	,117	-,044	-,812	,417
	DAILYD	,281	,094	,137	2,974	,003
	Dichotomied living	-,210	,164	-,064	-1,274	,203

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,752	,121		22,668	,000
	DENIAL	,206	,082	,123	2,511	,012
2	(Constant)	4,413	,439		10,064	,000
	DENIAL	,249	,077	,149	3,226	,001
	AGE	-,038	,007	-,286	-5,697	,000
	GENDER	,010	,128	,004	,081	,936
	Dichotomized working	-,043	,100	-,021	-,428	,669
	Dichotomized marital status	-,134	,087	-,075	-1,538	,125
	Dichotomized educational status	-,043	,086	-,025	-,498	,619
	DAILYD	,161	,084	,092	1,920	,056
	Dichotomied living	-,313	,126	-,120	-2,484	,013

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,085	,092		22,637	,000
	DENIAL	,168	,043	,178	3,925	,000
2	(Constant)	1,745	,376		4,644	,000
	DENIAL	,159	,043	,168	3,658	,000
	AGE	-,001	,010	-,007	-,110	,913
	GENDER	,145	,096	,070	1,519	,130
	Dichotomized working	-,022	,081	-,013	-,269	,788
	Dichotomized marital status	-,029	,105	-,014	-,274	,784
	Dichotomized educational status	,014	,123	,006	,113	,910
	DAILYD	,137	,090	,069	1,514	,131
	Dichotomied living	,002	,139	,001	,016	,987

a Dependent Variable: ESCAPE   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,584	,111		14,328	,000
	DENIAL	,326	,071	,253	4,619	,000
2	(Constant)	,952	,408		2,333	,020
	DENIAL	,294	,070	,229	4,192	,000
	AGE	,003	,008	,023	,369	,713
	GENDER	,254	,095	,154	2,668	,008
	Dichotomized working	-,235	,098	-,135	-2,399	,017
	Dichotomized marital status	-,206	,088	-,130	-2,340	,020
	Dichotomized educational status	-,049	,092	-,031	-,536	,592
	DAILYD	,295	,099	,159	2,980	,003
	Dichotomied living	,337	,115	,166	2,926	,004

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,657	,080		20,743	,000
	DENIAL	,169	,037	,204	4,533	,000
2	(Constant)	2,136	,324		6,602	,000

		,168	,037	,203	4,495	,000
	DENIAL	,168	,037	,203	4,495	,000
	AGE	,002	,009	,012	,196	,845
	GENDER	-,029	,082	-,016	-,355	,723
	Dichotomized working	-,150	,070	-,105	-2,155	,032
	Dichotomized marital status	-,103	,091	-,059	-1,140	,255
	Dichotomized educational status	-,079	,106	-,042	-,748	,455
	DAILYD	,058	,078	,034	,746	,456
	Dichotomied living	-,053	,120	-,020	-,446	,656

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,990	,103		19,234	,000
	DENIAL	,701	,072	,420	9,797	,000
2	(Constant)	1,868	,451		4,140	,000
	DENIAL	,577	,078	,346	7,383	,000
	AGE	-,008	,005	-,080	-1,443	,150
	GENDER	,388	,105	,167	3,678	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,028	,091	-,014	-,305	,760
	Dichotomized marital status	,052	,091	,028	,579	,563
	Dichotomized educational status	-,218	,095	-,118	-2,302	,022
	DAILYD	-,285	,087	-,156	-3,270	,001
	Dichotomied living	,277	,141	,083	1,968	,050

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,128	,131		23,846	,000
	INSTRSUP	,195	,044	,211	4,413	,000
2	(Constant)	3,256	,425		7,669	,000
	INSTRSUP	,233	,045	,252	5,159	,000
	AGE	,008	,008	,052	,913	,362
	GENDER	-,018	,088	-,010	-,209	,835
	Dichotomized working	-,108	,076	-,071	-1,429	,154
	Dichotomized marital status	,012	,072	,009	,172	,863
	Dichotomized educational status	-,051	,083	-,034	-,612	,541
	DAILYD	,260	,069	,181	3,739	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,273	,119	-,119	-2,302	,022

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,906	,155		18,746	,000
	INSTRSUP	,206	,053	,188	3,896	,000
2	(Constant)	3,347	,399		8,383	,000
	INSTRSUP	,201	,054	,184	3,743	,000
	AGE	,000	,006	,002	,036	,972
	GENDER	-,146	,118	-,063	-1,246	,214
	Dichotomized working	-,298	,092	-,162	-3,235	,001
	Dichotomized marital status	,035	,080	,022	,442	,659
	Dichotomized educational status	,177	,080	,117	2,226	,027
	DAILYD	,317	,076	,205	4,148	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,194	,116	-,084	-1,683	,093

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

221

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,427	,121		28,347	,000
	INSTRSUP	,109	,041	,125	2,669	,008
2	(Constant)	3,996	,314		12,739	,000
	INSTRSUP	,218	,048	,250	4,524	,000
	AGE	-,003	,004	-,040	-,668	,505
	GENDER	-,499	,092	-,291	-5,420	,000
	Dichotomized working	,118	,073	,080	1,605	,109
	Dichotomized marital status	-,184	,073	-,135	-2,514	,012
	Dichotomized educational status	,150	,079	,110	1,911	,057
	DAILYD	,115	,069	,086	1,677	,094
	Dichotomied living	-,129	,121	-,052	-1,068	,286

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,525	,162		9,391	,000
	INSTRSUP	,302	,055	,252	5,497	,000
2	(Constant)	3,379	,376		8,990	,000
	INSTRSUP	,361	,058	,301	6,250	,000
	AGE	-,012	,005	-,120	-2,292	,022
	GENDER	,136	,110	,058	1,234	,218
	Dichotomized working	,172	,088	,085	1,958	,051
	Dichotomized marital status	-,524	,088	-,278	-5,968	,000
	Dichotomized educational status	,037	,094	,020	,397	,691
	DAILYD	,287	,082	,155	3,480	,001
	Dichotomied living	-1,035	,145	-,305	-7,142	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,323	,156		14,874	,000
	INSTRSUP	,285	,053	,247	5,382	,000
2	(Constant)	1,171	,334		3,504	,001
	INSTRSUP	,391	,051	,339	7,610	,000
	AGE	-,028	,004	-,301	-6,209	,000
	GENDER	-,295	,098	-,130	-3,003	,003
	Dichotomized working	,625	,078	,321	7,986	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	,212	,078	,117	2,716	,007
	Dichotomized educational status	-,315	,084	-,174	-3,770	,000
	DAILYD	,616	,073	,345	8,402	,000
	Dichotomied living	,201	,129	,062	1,563	,119

a Dependent Variable: HABIT   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,951	,188		10,384	,000
	INSTRSUP	,384	,064	,274	6,030	,000
2	(Constant)	3,358	,377		8,910	,000

		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
	INSTRSUP	,301	,058	,215	5,196	,000
	AGE	-,017	,005	-,148	-3,287	,001
	GENDER	,840	,111	,306	7,595	,000
	Dichotomized working	,161	,088	,068	1,823	,069
	Dichotomized marital status	-,136	,088	-,062	-1,544	,123
	Dichotomized educational status	-,918	,094	-,419	-9,735	,000
	DAILYD	-,033	,083	-,015	-,402	,688
	Dichotomied living	-,421	,145	-,107	-2,897	,004

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,645	,126		28,940	,000
	INSTRSUP	,120	,042	,137	2,856	,005
2	(Constant)	4,069	,395		10,296	,000
	INSTRSUP	,158	,043	,181	3,702	,000
	AGE	-,008	,008	-,062	-1,069	,286
	GENDER	-,087	,083	-,052	-1,050	,294
	Dichotomized working	-,117	,071	-,082	-1,659	,098
	Dichotomized marital status	-,007	,067	-,005	-,108	,914
	Dichotomized educational status	,051	,078	,037	,646	,519
	DAILYD	,259	,064	,194	4,026	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,195	,111	-,091	-1,754	,080

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAINMENT   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,313	,165		14,042	,000
	INSTRSUP	,183	,055	,159	3,324	,001
2	(Constant)	3,201	,520		6,160	,000
	INSTRSUP	,241	,055	,209	4,346	,000
	AGE	,003	,010	,014	,253	,801
	GENDER	-,134	,108	-,060	-1,235	,218
	Dichotomized working	-,394	,092	-,207	-4,267	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	-,192	,088	-,109	-2,187	,029
	Dichotomized educational status	-,065	,104	-,035	-,625	,532
	DAILYD	,291	,085	,163	3,438	,001
	Dichotomied living	-,129	,147	-,045	-,882	,378

a Dependent Variable: AROUSAL   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,884	,168		11,243	,000
	INSTRSUP	,325	,057	,261	5,726	,000
2	(Constant)	3,604	,397		9,075	,000
	INSTRSUP	,357	,061	,287	5,838	,000
	AGE	-,030	,005	-,306	-5,729	,000
	GENDER	-,011	,117	-,005	-,097	,923
	Dichotomized working	,250	,093	,119	2,689	,007
	Dichotomized marital status	-,186	,093	-,095	-2,004	,046
	Dichotomized educational status	-,133	,099	-,068	-1,333	,183
	DAILYD	,273	,087	,142	3,134	,002
	Dichotomied living	-,680	,153	-,194	-4,440	,000

a Dependent Variable: ESCAPE   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,808	,153		11,803	,000
	INSTRSUP	,162	,051	,151	3,154	,002
2	(Constant)	1,777	,485		3,668	,000
	INSTRSUP	,215	,052	,200	4,159	,000
	AGE	-,022	,010	-,130	-2,302	,022
	GENDER	-,398	,101	-,192	-3,924	,000
	Dichotomized working	,151	,087	,084	1,744	,082
	Dichotomized marital status	-,015	,082	-,009	-,187	,851
	Dichotomized educational status	-,030	,096	-,017	-,315	,753
	DAILYD	,240	,079	,144	3,039	,003
	Dichotomied living	,333	,137	,123	2,440	,015

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,890	,160		18,079	,000
	PLANNING	,226	,058	,187	3,869	,000
2	(Constant)	3,220	,408		7,887	,000
	PLANNING	,222	,059	,184	3,781	,000
	AGE	-,004	,006	-,030	-,581	,561
	GENDER	-,068	,117	-,030	-,586	,558
	Dichotomized working	-,283	,092	-,154	-3,087	,002
	Dichotomized marital status	,046	,079	,029	,579	,563
	Dichotomized educational status	,191	,079	,126	2,415	,016
	DAILYD	,320	,076	,207	4,192	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,198	,115	-,085	-1,715	,087

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,363	,166		20,309	,000
	PLANNING	,122	,053	,109	2,312	,021
2	(Constant)	3,083	,375		8,222	,000
	PLANNING	,305	,067	,272	4,571	,000
	AGE	-,008	,004	-,109	-1,853	,065
	GENDER	-,342	,084	-,199	-4,063	,000
	Dichotomized working	,258	,082	,175	3,132	,002
	Dichotomized marital status	-,255	,075	-,186	-3,402	,001
	Dichotomized educational status	,302	,077	,221	3,902	,000
	DAILYD	,173	,071	,128	2,427	,016
	Dichotomied living	-,141	,122	-,057	-1,161	,246

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,268	,220		14,839	,000
	PLANNING	-,043	,070	-,029	-,615	,539
2	(Constant)	,043	,413		,103	,918

		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
	PLANNING	,382	,074	,257	5,197	,000
	AGE	-,036	,005	-,388	-7,900	,000
	GENDER	-,006	,093	-,002	-,061	,951
	Dichotomized working	,782	,091	,402	8,633	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	,124	,082	,068	1,501	,134
	Dichotomized educational status	-,078	,085	-,043	-,916	,360
	DAILYD	,669	,078	,375	8,529	,000
	Dichotomied living	,288	,134	,088	2,148	,032

a Dependent Variable: HABIT   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,990	,142		21,114	,000
	PLANNING	,261	,045	,264	5,777	,000
2	(Constant)	2,926	,323		9,045	,000
	PLANNING	,308	,058	,312	5,347	,000
	AGE	,004	,004	,062	1,079	,281
	GENDER	-,197	,073	-,130	-2,710	,007
	Dichotomized working	,184	,071	,142	2,597	,010
	Dichotomized marital status	-,078	,065	-,064	-1,204	,229
	Dichotomized educational status	-,172	,067	-,143	-2,578	,010
	DAILYD	,019	,061	,016	,311	,756
	Dichotomied living	,109	,105	,050	1,042	,298

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAINMENT   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,547	,214		7,230	,000
	PLANNING	,083	,068	,057	1,211	,227
2	(Constant)	2,527	,422		5,982	,000
	PLANNING	,309	,075	,214	4,107	,000
	AGE	-,002	,005	-,020	-,391	,696
	GENDER	,397	,095	,180	4,193	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,401	,093	-,212	-4,327	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	-,413	,084	-,234	-4,894	,000
	Dichotomized educational status	,460	,087	,261	5,271	,000
	DAILYD	,414	,080	,238	5,152	,000
	Dichotomied living	-1,261	,137	-,398	-9,200	,000

a Dependent Variable: VOYEUR   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,683	,103		16,271	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,277	,068	,225	4,071	,000
2	(Constant)	1,984	,431		4,598	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,270	,067	,219	4,016	,000
	AGE	,013	,009	,090	1,438	,151
	GENDER	-,052	,100	-,030	-,516	,606
	Dichotomized working	-,080	,102	-,045	-,785	,433
	Dichotomized marital status	-,174	,092	-,106	-1,879	,061
	Dichotomized educational status	-,127	,097	-,077	-1,318	,189
	DAILYD	,387	,104	,202	3,712	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,226	,120	-,108	-1,879	,061

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,666	,095		17,575	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,247	,059	,190	4,214	,000
2	(Constant)	2,690	,441		6,100	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,242	,058	,187	4,190	,000
	AGE	-,007	,012	-,037	-,629	,529
	GENDER	,103	,110	,041	,931	,352
	Dichotomized working	,004	,094	,002	,047	,962
	Dichotomized marital status	-,061	,122	-,026	-,504	,615
	Dichotomized educational status	-,204	,142	-,080	-1,438	,151
	DAILYD	,310	,105	,133	2,966	,003
	Dichotomied living	-,576	,160	-,162	-3,589	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,037	,111		18,362	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,223	,084	,130	2,666	,008
2	(Constant)	3,480	,450		7,729	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,298	,079	,174	3,752	,000
	AGE	-,016	,007	-,116	-2,349	,019
	GENDER	,224	,131	,083	1,713	,087
	Dichotomized working	-,070	,101	-,033	-,696	,487
	Dichotomized marital status	-,071	,088	-,039	-,813	,417
	Dichotomized educational status	-,056	,087	-,032	-,646	,519
	DAILYD	,277	,084	,154	3,282	,001
	Dichotomied living	-,845	,128	-,315	-6,603	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,903	,099		19,145	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,355	,066	,247	5,386	,000
2	(Constant)	2,619	,413		6,338	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,325	,064	,226	5,047	,000
	AGE	-,009	,005	-,092	-1,676	,094
	GENDER	,586	,108	,248	5,447	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,023	,093	-,011	-,248	,804
	Dichotomized marital status	-,527	,089	-,279	-5,907	,000
	Dichotomized educational status	,151	,093	,080	1,632	,103
	DAILYD	,240	,083	,130	2,893	,004
	Dichotomied living	-,680	,138	-,201	-4,911	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,994	,087		22,931	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,187	,054	,158	3,480	,001
2	(Constant)	1,740	,397		4,382	,000

		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
	SUBSTUSE	,192	,052	,162	3,690	,000
	AGE	-,002	,010	-,011	-,189	,850
	GENDER	,226	,099	,100	2,272	,024
	Dichotomized working	-,113	,085	-,064	-1,336	,182
	Dichotomized marital status	,027	,110	,012	,244	,808
	Dichotomized educational status	-,065	,128	-,028	-,508	,612
	DAILYD	,535	,094	,251	5,681	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,293	,144	-,090	-2,030	,043

a Dependent Variable: HABIT   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,567	,130		19,676	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,303	,086	,196	3,530	,000
2	(Constant)	3,892	,517		7,531	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,328	,081	,213	4,077	,000
	AGE	-,031	,011	-,173	-2,899	,004
	GENDER	-,106	,120	-,050	-,887	,376
	Dichotomized working	-,239	,122	-,106	-1,956	,051
	Dichotomized marital status	-,041	,111	-,020	-,375	,708
	Dichotomized educational status	-,339	,116	-,164	-2,930	,004
	DAILYD	,741	,125	,309	5,935	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,217	,144	-,082	-1,505	,133

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,041	,107		19,002	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,253	,066	,173	3,817	,000
2	(Constant)	3,336	,491		6,794	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,261	,064	,179	4,063	,000
	AGE	-,041	,013	-,181	-3,137	,002
	GENDER	,176	,123	,063	1,437	,151
	Dichotomized working	-,157	,105	-,071	-1,501	,134
	Dichotomized marital status	,132	,136	,049	,977	,329
	Dichotomized educational status	-,144	,158	-,050	-,909	,364
	DAILYD	,398	,116	,151	3,415	,001
	Dichotomied living	-,488	,179	-,121	-2,733	,007

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,837	,103		27,650	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,260	,065	,192	4,023	,000
2	(Constant)	4,461	,579		7,708	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,340	,064	,250	5,309	,000
	AGE	-,046	,012	-,213	-3,897	,000
	GENDER	-,068	,122	-,027	-,558	,577
	Dichotomized working	-,133	,103	-,061	-1,295	,196
	Dichotomized marital status	-,184	,096	-,092	-1,907	,057
	Dichotomized educational status	-,164	,115	-,077	-1,428	,154
	DAILYD	,346	,093	,170	3,718	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,124	,162	-,038	-,763	,446

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,713	,118		22,962	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,243	,078	,145	3,104	,002
2	(Constant)	2,845	,415		6,853	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,222	,065	,133	3,432	,001
	AGE	-,016	,005	-,140	-2,947	,003
	GENDER	1,190	,108	,433	11,012	,000
	Dichotomized working	,019	,093	,008	,204	,838
	Dichotomized marital status	-,138	,090	-,063	-1,538	,125
	Dichotomized educational status	-,819	,093	-,373	-8,788	,000
	DAILYD	-,074	,084	-,034	-,881	,379
	Dichotomied living	-,131	,139	-,033	-,946	,345

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,485	,098		25,279	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,325	,065	,229	4,981	,000
2	(Constant)	2,767	,433		6,389	,000
	SUBSTUSE	,329	,067	,232	4,879	,000
	AGE	-,008	,006	-,087	-1,490	,137
	GENDER	,421	,113	,181	3,735	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,104	,098	-,052	-1,063	,289
	Dichotomized marital status	,043	,093	,023	,464	,643
	Dichotomized educational status	-,343	,097	-,185	-3,526	,000
	DAILYD	-,437	,087	-,239	-5,011	,000
	Dichotomied living	,248	,145	,074	1,710	,088

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,348	,131		25,503	,000
	ACTCOPE	,152	,046	,162	3,327	,001
2	(Constant)	3,720	,330		11,261	,000
	ACTCOPE	,190	,047	,201	4,051	,000
	AGE	-,022	,005	-,221	-4,202	,000
	GENDER	-,116	,097	-,061	-1,201	,230
	Dichotomized working	-,200	,076	-,133	-2,617	,009
	Dichotomized marital status	,037	,066	,029	,568	,571
	Dichotomized educational status	,067	,066	,054	1,010	,313
	DAILYD	,098	,063	,077	1,541	,124
	Dichotomied living	,201	,096	,106	2,101	,036

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAI   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,042	,197		5,290	,000
	ACTCOPE	,247	,063	,183	3,939	,000
2	(Constant)	2,697	,403		6,689	,000

		,267	,066	,198	4,021	,000
ACTCOPE		,267	,066	,198	4,021	,000
AGE		-4,703E-05	,005	-,001	-,010	,992
GENDER		,299	,099	,136	3,031	,003
Dichotomized working		-,427	,090	-,226	-4,728	,000
Dichotomized marital status		-,288	,084	-,164	-3,441	,001
Dichotomized educational status		,427	,086	,242	4,952	,000
DAILYD		,364	,078	,210	4,678	,000
Dichotomied living		-1,219	,134	-,385	-9,092	,000

a Dependent Variable: VOYEUR   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,305	,132		25,032	,000
	EMOTSUP	,135	,044	,147	3,046	,002
2	(Constant)	3,594	,422		8,517	,000
	EMOTSUP	,156	,045	,169	3,425	,001
	AGE	,002	,009	,015	,263	,793
	GENDER	,017	,089	,010	,190	,850
	Dichotomized working	-,122	,078	-,079	-1,573	,117
	Dichotomized marital status	,029	,074	,021	,397	,692
	Dichotomized educational status	-,011	,086	-,007	-,123	,902
	DAILYD	,203	,070	,141	2,912	,004
	Dichotomied living	-,280	,121	-,121	-2,306	,022

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,052	,159		19,199	,000
	EMOTSUP	,153	,054	,139	2,854	,005
2	(Constant)	3,513	,394		8,924	,000
	EMOTSUP	,183	,056	,166	3,249	,001
	AGE	,001	,006	,009	,170	,865
	GENDER	-,164	,119	-,071	-1,375	,170
	Dichotomized working	-,303	,093	-,165	-3,262	,001
	Dichotomized marital status	-,017	,082	-,011	-,202	,840
	Dichotomized educational status	,237	,079	,156	2,996	,003
	DAILYD	,311	,077	,201	4,058	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,243	,116	-,105	-2,095	,037

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,214	,188		6,452	,000
	EMOTSUP	,400	,063	,290	6,397	,000
2	(Constant)	3,008	,375		8,031	,000
	EMOTSUP	,448	,061	,324	7,312	,000
	AGE	-,009	,005	-,091	-1,754	,080
	GENDER	,260	,102	,110	2,560	,011
	Dichotomized working	,044	,087	,022	,512	,609
	Dichotomized marital status	-,520	,087	-,276	-6,001	,000
	Dichotomized educational status	,012	,093	,006	,126	,900
	DAILYD	,306	,081	,165	3,758	,000
	Dichotomied living	-1,029	,140	-,304	-7,325	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,701	,124		29,935	,000
	EMOTSUP	,101	,041	,118	2,465	,014
2	(Constant)	4,247	,385		11,039	,000
	EMOTSUP	,138	,042	,161	3,287	,001
	AGE	-,012	,008	-,090	-1,557	,120
	GENDER	-,076	,083	-,045	-,913	,362
	Dichotomized working	-,131	,071	-,092	-1,845	,066
	Dichotomized marital status	-,009	,067	-,007	-,142	,887
	Dichotomized educational status	,083	,079	,060	1,051	,294
	DAILYD	,229	,064	,172	3,599	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,202	,112	-,094	-1,813	,071

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAINMENT   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,274	,162		14,025	,000
	EMOTSUP	,197	,054	,174	3,642	,000
2	(Constant)	3,364	,504		6,679	,000
	EMOTSUP	,260	,054	,229	4,811	,000
	AGE	-,004	,010	-,023	-,406	,685
	GENDER	-,129	,108	-,058	-1,200	,231
	Dichotomized working	-,421	,092	-,220	-4,565	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	-,199	,088	-,113	-2,265	,024
	Dichotomized educational status	,002	,104	,001	,021	,984
	DAILYD	,250	,083	,140	3,013	,003
	Dichotomied living	-,145	,146	-,050	-,994	,321

a Dependent Variable: AROUSAL   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,770	,152		11,640	,000
	EMOTSUP	,172	,051	,162	3,395	,001
2	(Constant)	2,021	,472		4,285	,000
	EMOTSUP	,209	,051	,196	4,114	,000
	AGE	-,026	,010	-,154	-2,740	,006
	GENDER	-,390	,101	-,188	-3,854	,000
	Dichotomized working	,126	,087	,070	1,447	,149
	Dichotomized marital status	-,040	,082	-,025	-,492	,623
	Dichotomized educational status	-,012	,096	-,007	-,127	,899
	DAILYD	,212	,078	,127	2,735	,007
	Dichotomied living	,307	,137	,114	2,250	,025

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,639	,114		14,334	,000
	BEHDIS	,236	,065	,164	3,614	,000
2	(Constant)	2,710	,446		6,075	,000

		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
	BEHDIS	,225	,065	,156	3,473	,001
	AGE	-,008	,012	-,043	-,725	,469
	GENDER	,074	,111	,030	,672	,502
	Dichotomized working	,052	,094	,027	,557	,578
	Dichotomized marital status	-,020	,123	-,008	-,163	,871
	Dichotomized educational status	-,206	,143	-,080	-1,442	,150
	DAILYD	,304	,105	,130	2,891	,004
	Dichotomied living	-,611	,161	-,171	-3,782	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,069	,114		18,132	,000
	BEHDIS	,211	,072	,139	2,927	,004
2	(Constant)	4,607	,504		9,143	,000
	BEHDIS	,231	,068	,153	3,409	,001
	AGE	-,023	,010	-,119	-2,220	,027
	GENDER	,175	,108	,075	1,627	,104
	Dichotomized working	-,292	,093	-,145	-3,135	,002
	Dichotomized marital status	-,203	,087	-,110	-2,321	,021
	Dichotomized educational status	-,106	,103	-,055	-1,028	,305
	DAILYD	,199	,083	,106	2,388	,017
	Dichotomied living	-,866	,147	-,285	-5,884	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,620	,122		13,248	,000
	BEHDIS	,474	,079	,283	5,989	,000
2	(Constant)	2,968	,442		6,721	,000
	BEHDIS	,500	,075	,299	6,645	,000
	AGE	-,008	,007	-,057	-1,166	,244
	GENDER	,169	,124	,063	1,359	,175
	Dichotomized working	-,003	,098	-,001	-,027	,978
	Dichotomized marital status	-,070	,085	-,038	-,830	,407
	Dichotomized educational status	-,054	,084	-,031	-,647	,518
	DAILYD	,276	,081	,154	3,395	,001
	Dichotomied living	-,892	,124	-,332	-7,206	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,643	,108		24,588	,000
	BEHDIS	,295	,069	,204	4,238	,000
2	(Constant)	3,179	,368		8,639	,000
	BEHDIS	,239	,063	,166	3,806	,000
	AGE	-,026	,006	-,215	-4,560	,000
	GENDER	,447	,104	,193	4,319	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,147	,081	-,080	-1,799	,073
	Dichotomized marital status	-,152	,071	-,097	-2,158	,031
	Dichotomized educational status	-,028	,070	-,019	-,407	,685
	DAILYD	,427	,068	,277	6,300	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,347	,103	-,150	-3,366	,001

a Dependent Variable: HABIT   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,947	,129		15,100	,000
	BEHDIS	,284	,074	,175	3,853	,000
2	(Constant)	3,326	,496		6,711	,000
	BEHDIS	,264	,072	,162	3,661	,000
	AGE	-,042	,013	-,187	-3,227	,001
	GENDER	,146	,123	,052	1,187	,236
	Dichotomized working	-,105	,105	-,047	-1,000	,318
	Dichotomized marital status	,181	,137	,067	1,325	,186
	Dichotomized educational status	-,145	,159	-,050	-,913	,362
	DAILYD	,390	,117	,148	3,330	,001
	Dichotomied living	-,529	,179	-,131	-2,947	,003

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,734	,123		22,219	,000
	BEHDIS	,321	,077	,197	4,144	,000
2	(Constant)	4,895	,568		8,622	,000
	BEHDIS	,338	,075	,207	4,508	,000
	AGE	-,048	,012	-,223	-4,046	,000
	GENDER	-,148	,119	-,059	-1,239	,216
	Dichotomized working	-,160	,103	-,074	-1,554	,121
	Dichotomized marital status	-,139	,097	-,070	-1,435	,152
	Dichotomized educational status	-,115	,114	-,055	-1,009	,314
	DAILYD	,246	,093	,121	2,647	,008
	Dichotomied living	-,229	,163	-,070	-1,399	,163

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,442	,120		20,366	,000
	BEHDIS	,410	,078	,252	5,288	,000
2	(Constant)	4,051	,448		9,036	,000
	BEHDIS	,347	,076	,213	4,537	,000
	AGE	-,031	,007	-,229	-4,501	,000
	GENDER	,036	,126	,014	,288	,773
	Dichotomized working	-,030	,099	-,014	-,301	,763
	Dichotomized marital status	-,108	,086	-,061	-1,257	,210
	Dichotomized educational status	-,032	,085	-,019	-,377	,706
	DAILYD	,164	,083	,094	1,991	,047
	Dichotomied living	-,385	,126	-,147	-3,061	,002

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,993	,095		20,909	,000
	BEHDIS	,262	,054	,216	4,816	,000
2	(Constant)	1,502	,380		3,954	,000

Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
	BEHDIS	,259	,055	,214	4,692	,000
	AGE	,000	,010	,001	,010	,992
	GENDER	,182	,094	,087	1,931	,054
	Dichotomized working	-,016	,080	-,010	-,202	,840
	Dichotomized marital status	,009	,105	,005	,088	,930
	Dichotomized educational status	,019	,121	,009	,160	,873
	DAILYD	,120	,090	,061	1,338	,182
	Dichotomied living	,004	,138	,001	,029	,977

a Dependent Variable: ESCAPE   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,242	,101		22,195	,000
	BEHDIS	,274	,065	,202	4,194	,000
2	(Constant)	2,382	,390		6,111	,000
	BEHDIS	,246	,066	,181	3,695	,000
	AGE	-,007	,006	-,060	-1,132	,258
	GENDER	,268	,110	,124	2,445	,015
	Dichotomized working	,105	,086	,061	1,219	,223
	Dichotomized marital status	,066	,075	,044	,877	,381
	Dichotomized educational status	-,247	,074	-,173	-3,333	,001
	DAILYD	,007	,072	,005	,091	,927
	Dichotomied living	-,205	,109	-,094	-1,874	,062

a Dependent Variable: ESCAPE   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,579	,120		13,154	,000
	BEHDIS	,302	,071	,234	4,245	,000
2	(Constant)	,921	,414		2,223	,027
	BEHDIS	,264	,070	,204	3,745	,000
	AGE	,003	,009	,023	,372	,710
	GENDER	,248	,096	,151	2,597	,010
	Dichotomized working	-,189	,097	-,109	-1,943	,053
	Dichotomized marital status	-,213	,089	-,134	-2,402	,017
	Dichotomized educational status	-,075	,092	-,047	-,809	,419
	DAILYD	,328	,100	,177	3,290	,001
	Dichotomied living	,324	,117	,159	2,780	,006

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,691	,084		20,181	,000
	BEHDIS	,184	,048	,174	3,848	,000
2	(Constant)	2,045	,333		6,143	,000
	BEHDIS	,168	,048	,159	3,481	,001
	AGE	,003	,009	,022	,370	,712
	GENDER	,010	,083	,005	,115	,908
	Dichotomized working	-,148	,070	-,104	-2,113	,035
	Dichotomized marital status	-,085	,092	-,048	-,923	,356
	Dichotomized educational status	-,078	,106	-,041	-,728	,467
	DAILYD	,050	,079	,029	,641	,522
	Dichotomied living	-,039	,120	-,015	-,321	,748

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL IINTERACTION   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,670	,153		17,450	,000
	MENTDIS	,282	,055	,229	5,121	,000
2	(Constant)	1,370	,428		3,203	,001
	MENTDIS	,273	,056	,222	4,910	,000
	AGE	-,006	,011	-,031	-,526	,599
	GENDER	,256	,105	,109	2,435	,015
	Dichotomized working	-,106	,088	-,058	-1,214	,225
	Dichotomized marital status	-,104	,114	-,046	-,912	,362
	Dichotomized educational status	,094	,133	,039	,707	,480
	DAILYD	,255	,098	,116	2,592	,010
	Dichotomied living	,443	,150	,132	2,946	,003

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,236	,122		26,568	,000
	MENTDIS	,190	,048	,188	3,924	,000
2	(Constant)	3,409	,446		7,640	,000
	MENTDIS	,193	,049	,191	3,942	,000
	AGE	,011	,009	,071	1,217	,224
	GENDER	,067	,089	,037	,749	,454
	Dichotomized working	-,095	,077	-,062	-1,233	,218
	Dichotomized marital status	,075	,073	,053	1,028	,304
	Dichotomized educational status	-,095	,085	-,064	-1,111	,267
	DAILYD	,148	,070	,103	2,126	,034
	Dichotomied living	-,307	,125	-,129	-2,461	,014

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,873	,146		19,737	,000
	MENTDIS	,261	,059	,212	4,398	,000
2	(Constant)	2,487	,433		5,748	,000
	MENTDIS	,350	,060	,284	5,828	,000
	AGE	,004	,006	,030	,592	,554
	GENDER	-,108	,114	-,046	-,944	,346
	Dichotomized working	-,279	,089	-,152	-3,126	,002
	Dichotomized marital status	,108	,078	,068	1,376	,170
	Dichotomized educational status	,323	,079	,213	4,116	,000
	DAILYD	,357	,075	,231	4,768	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,181	,113	-,078	-1,605	,109

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,512	,165		9,188	,000
	MENTDIS	,190	,059	,146	3,202	,001
2	(Constant)	2,551	,459		5,553	,000

		,205	,060	,157	3,428	,001
	MENTDIS	,205	,060	,157	3,428	,001
	AGE	-,007	,012	-,036	-,610	,542
	GENDER	-,001	,113	,000	-,006	,995
	Dichotomized working	,037	,094	,019	,394	,694
	Dichotomized marital status	-,034	,123	-,014	-,278	,781
	Dichotomized educational status	-,242	,143	-,095	-1,696	,091
	DAILYD	,365	,106	,156	3,448	,001
	Dichotomied living	-,565	,161	-,159	-3,499	,001

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,405	,145		16,638	,000
	MENTDIS	,281	,059	,228	4,764	,000
2	(Constant)	2,898	,392		7,398	,000
	MENTDIS	,224	,054	,182	4,112	,000
	AGE	-,028	,005	-,235	-5,116	,000
	GENDER	,420	,103	,182	4,067	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,189	,081	-,103	-2,333	,020
	Dichotomized marital status	-,122	,071	-,078	-1,725	,085
	Dichotomized educational status	,020	,071	,013	,283	,778
	DAILYD	,443	,068	,287	6,537	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,267	,102	-,116	-2,615	,009

a Dependent Variable: HABIT b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,763	,185		9,509	,000
	MENTDIS	,240	,067	,163	3,593	,000
2	(Constant)	3,087	,509		6,064	,000
	MENTDIS	,261	,066	,177	3,942	,000
	AGE	-,040	,013	-,180	-3,107	,002
	GENDER	,050	,125	,018	,403	,687
	Dichotomized working	-,123	,104	-,056	-1,181	,238
	Dichotomized marital status	,168	,136	,062	1,235	,217
	Dichotomized educational status	-,190	,158	-,066	-1,202	,230
	DAILYD	,464	,117	,176	3,960	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,473	,179	-,118	-2,644	,008

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,423	,121		28,334	,000
	MENTDIS	,147	,049	,146	2,990	,003
2	(Constant)	3,425	,369		9,294	,000
	MENTDIS	,176	,051	,174	3,449	,001
	AGE	-,017	,005	-,175	-3,321	,001
	GENDER	-,117	,097	-,062	-1,210	,227
	Dichotomized working	-,170	,076	-,113	-2,227	,027
	Dichotomized marital status	,071	,067	,055	1,066	,287
	Dichotomized educational status	,160	,067	,129	2,392	,017
	DAILYD	,134	,064	,106	2,099	,036
	Dichotomied living	,200	,096	,105	2,080	,038

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAINMENT b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,363	,138		24,342	,000
	MENTDIS	,166	,052	,148	3,174	,002
2	(Constant)	3,111	,362		8,583	,000
	MENTDIS	,203	,062	,182	3,251	,001
	AGE	,010	,004	,163	2,547	,011
	GENDER	-,103	,078	-,068	-1,312	,190
	Dichotomized working	-,013	,065	-,010	-,196	,845
	Dichotomized marital status	,038	,066	,032	,582	,561
	Dichotomized educational status	-,284	,068	-,236	-4,147	,000
	DAILYD	-,024	,062	-,020	-,379	,705
	Dichotomied living	,271	,101	,125	2,691	,007

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAINMENT   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,837	,137		13,372	,000
	MENTDIS	,217	,049	,198	4,379	,000
2	(Constant)	1,360	,392		3,465	,001
	MENTDIS	,219	,051	,200	4,298	,000
	AGE	,002	,010	,009	,158	,874
	GENDER	,101	,096	,049	1,053	,293
	Dichotomized working	-,033	,080	-,020	-,414	,679
	Dichotomized marital status	-,010	,105	-,005	-,091	,928
	Dichotomized educational status	-,021	,122	-,010	-,169	,866
	DAILYD	,186	,090	,095	2,060	,040
	Dichotomied living	,055	,138	,018	,401	,689

a Dependent Variable: ESCAPE   b COUNTRY = HUNAGRY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,019	,147		13,698	,000
	MENTDIS	,343	,059	,271	5,841	,000
2	(Constant)	1,335	,538		2,482	,013
	MENTDIS	,318	,059	,251	5,377	,000
	AGE	-,010	,010	-,053	-,942	,347
	GENDER	,203	,108	,090	1,874	,062
	Dichotomized working	,139	,093	,072	1,497	,135
	Dichotomized marital status	-,040	,088	-,023	-,455	,649
	Dichotomized educational status	-,092	,104	-,049	-,889	,374
	DAILYD	,277	,083	,154	3,316	,001
	Dichotomied living	,095	,151	,032	,629	,530

a Dependent Variable: ESCAPE   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,380	,203		6,797	,000
	MENTDIS	,163	,077	,100	2,120	,035
2	(Constant)	2,277	,465		4,901	,000

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	MENTDIS	,319	,080	,196	3,988	,000
	AGE	,007	,005	,081	1,446	,149
	GENDER	,538	,100	,244	5,375	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,611	,083	-,323	-7,381	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	-,270	,085	-,153	-3,186	,002
	Dichotomized educational status	,321	,088	,182	3,652	,000
	DAILYD	,400	,080	,230	5,020	,000
	Dichotomied living	-1,122	,129	-,354	-8,695	,000

a Dependent Variable: VOYEUR   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,222	,203		6,033	,000
	MENTDIS	,332	,079	,232	4,211	,000
2	(Constant)	,785	,429		1,832	,068
	MENTDIS	,272	,078	,190	3,479	,001
	AGE	,001	,009	,008	,134	,893
	GENDER	,173	,098	,105	1,763	,079
	Dichotomized working	-,170	,098	-,098	-1,743	,082
	Dichotomized marital status	-,226	,088	-,142	-2,559	,011
	Dichotomized educational status	-,092	,092	-,058	-,997	,319
	DAILYD	,289	,100	,156	2,890	,004
	Dichotomied living	,380	,115	,187	3,303	,001

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,548	,120		12,863	,000
	MENTDIS	,165	,043	,172	3,802	,000
2	(Constant)	1,867	,341		5,471	,000
	MENTDIS	,176	,044	,185	3,976	,000
	AGE	,004	,009	,030	,497	,620
	GENDER	-,055	,084	-,030	-,658	,511
	Dichotomized working	-,161	,070	-,112	-2,296	,022
	Dichotomized marital status	-,092	,091	-,052	-1,005	,316
	Dichotomized educational status	-,108	,106	-,058	-1,017	,309
	DAILYD	,100	,079	,058	1,270	,205
	Dichotomied living	-,002	,120	-,001	-,018	,985

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,728	,140		12,311	,000
	MENTDIS	,227	,056	,192	4,037	,000
2	(Constant)	1,896	,505		3,757	,000
	MENTDIS	,200	,056	,169	3,582	,000
	AGE	-,018	,010	-,102	-1,790	,074
	GENDER	-,315	,102	-,150	-3,100	,002
	Dichotomized working	,164	,087	,091	1,871	,062
	Dichotomized marital status	,022	,082	,013	,267	,789
	Dichotomized educational status	-,118	,097	-,068	-1,213	,226
	DAILYD	,149	,078	,089	1,902	,058
	Dichotomied living	,289	,142	,104	2,040	,042

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,071	,213		9,739	,000
	MENTDIS	,261	,080	,152	3,246	,001
2	(Constant)	,843	,547		1,541	,124
	MENTDIS	,529	,094	,308	5,606	,000
	AGE	,020	,006	,212	3,378	,001
	GENDER	,270	,118	,116	2,289	,023
	Dichotomized working	-,486	,098	-,243	-4,978	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	,433	,100	,233	4,343	,000
	Dichotomized educational status	-,205	,103	-,111	-1,986	,048
	DAILYD	,081	,094	,044	,864	,388
	Dichotomied living	-,042	,152	-,013	-,277	,782

a Dependent Variable: INFOSEEK   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,924	,153		19,071	,000
	POSREFRA	,176	,052	,154	3,389	,001
2	(Constant)	1,681	,426		3,941	,000
	POSREFRA	,166	,052	,145	3,216	,001
	AGE	-,008	,011	-,041	-,696	,487
	GENDER	,330	,105	,141	3,148	,002
	Dichotomized working	-,075	,089	-,041	-,838	,402
	Dichotomized marital status	-,164	,116	-,073	-1,418	,157
	Dichotomized educational status	,097	,135	,040	,721	,471
	DAILYD	,215	,099	,097	2,163	,031
	Dichotomied living	,407	,152	,121	2,672	,008

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,964	,136		21,794	,000
	POSREFRA	,209	,052	,195	4,038	,000
2	(Constant)	3,291	,402		8,177	,000
	POSREFRA	,194	,051	,182	3,799	,000
	AGE	-,003	,006	-,022	-,429	,668
	GENDER	-,072	,117	-,031	-,618	,537
	Dichotomized working	-,281	,092	-,153	-3,067	,002
	Dichotomized marital status	,064	,080	,040	,804	,422
	Dichotomized educational status	,210	,079	,139	2,676	,008
	DAILYD	,295	,077	,191	3,851	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,207	,115	-,089	-1,799	,073

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,320	,170		13,618	,000
	POSREFRA	,196	,057	,160	3,427	,001
2	(Constant)	2,998	,461		6,500	,000

	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
POSREFRA	,241	,058	,196	4,162	,000
AGE	-,030	,006	-,294	-5,187	,000
GENDER	-,559	,120	-,224	-4,669	,000
Dichotomized working	,088	,104	,041	,843	,399
Dichotomized marital status	,178	,102	,090	1,741	,082
Dichotomized educational status	-,052	,108	-,026	-,485	,628
DAILYD	,568	,096	,290	5,941	,000
Dichotomied living	-,064	,161	-,018	-,396	,693

a Dependent Variable: AROUSAL   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,641	,151		10,891	,000
	POSREFRA	,240	,055	,206	4,355	,000
2	(Constant)	2,066	,477		4,335	,000
	POSREFRA	,219	,054	,188	4,028	,000
	AGE	-,024	,010	-,143	-2,550	,011
	GENDER	-,363	,101	-,173	-3,594	,000
	Dichotomized working	,105	,088	,059	1,201	,230
	Dichotomized marital status	,017	,082	,011	,213	,831
	Dichotomized educational status	-,055	,095	-,032	-,580	,562
	DAILYD	,179	,077	,108	2,325	,021
	Dichotomied living	,280	,136	,104	2,053	,041

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,836	,166		11,042	,000
	POSREFRA	,172	,056	,140	3,061	,002
2	(Constant)	1,922	,467		4,113	,000
	POSREFRA	,183	,056	,148	3,235	,001
	AGE	,026	,012	,128	2,134	,033
	GENDER	-,230	,115	-,091	-2,006	,045
	Dichotomized working	-,091	,098	-,045	-,927	,355
	Dichotomized marital status	,024	,127	,010	,188	,851
	Dichotomized educational status	-,254	,148	-,097	-1,715	,087
	DAILYD	,266	,109	,112	2,446	,015
	Dichotomied living	-,115	,167	-,032	-,689	,491

a Dependent Variable: INFOSEEK   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,686	,180		14,964	,000
	VENTING	,261	,062	,191	4,229	,000
2	(Constant)	1,545	,432		3,579	,000
	VENTING	,226	,061	,166	3,687	,000
	AGE	-,006	,011	-,030	-,504	,614
	GENDER	,303	,105	,129	2,880	,004
	Dichotomized working	-,091	,089	-,049	-1,023	,307
	Dichotomized marital status	-,170	,115	-,075	-1,474	,141
	Dichotomized educational status	,126	,134	,052	,941	,347
	DAILYD	,193	,099	,087	1,950	,052
	Dichotomied living	,402	,152	,119	2,643	,009

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,396	,191		7,296	,000
	VENTING	,221	,066	,153	3,355	,001
2	(Constant)	2,555	,458		5,575	,000
	VENTING	,226	,065	,156	3,467	,001
	AGE	-,007	,012	-,034	-,573	,567
	GENDER	,021	,112	,009	,192	,848
	Dichotomized working	,051	,094	,026	,539	,590
	Dichotomized marital status	-,089	,123	-,037	-,727	,468
	Dichotomized educational status	-,219	,143	-,086	-1,535	,125
	DAILYD	,315	,105	,135	2,999	,003
	Dichotomied living	-,600	,161	-,168	-3,717	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,701	,207		13,029	,000
	VENTING	,195	,091	,101	2,138	,033
2	(Constant)	,056	,414		,136	,892
	VENTING	,421	,083	,218	5,098	,000
	AGE	-,029	,005	-,317	-6,295	,000
	GENDER	,086	,094	,038	,919	,358
	Dichotomized working	,607	,081	,312	7,502	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	,188	,081	,104	2,327	,020
	Dichotomized educational status	-,162	,084	-,089	-1,928	,055
	DAILYD	,656	,078	,368	8,420	,000
	Dichotomied living	,411	,128	,126	3,219	,001

a Dependent Variable: HABIT b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,908	,132		22,014	,000
	VENTING	,397	,058	,308	6,840	,000
2	(Constant)	2,704	,319		8,483	,000
	VENTING	,424	,064	,329	6,666	,000
	AGE	,010	,004	,166	2,848	,005
	GENDER	-,107	,072	-,071	-1,484	,139
	Dichotomized working	,052	,062	,040	,828	,408
	Dichotomized marital status	-,030	,062	-,025	-,484	,629
	Dichotomized educational status	-,240	,065	-,199	-3,719	,000
	DAILYD	,030	,060	,025	,496	,620
	Dichotomied living	,183	,098	,084	1,864	,063

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAINMENT b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,771	,160		11,061	,000
	VENTING	,228	,055	,187	4,140	,000
2	(Constant)	1,424	,393		3,623	,000

		,215	,056	,177	3,850	,000
	VENTING	,215	,056	,177	3,850	,000
	AGE	,002	,010	,011	,190	,849
	GENDER	,131	,096	,063	1,372	,171
	Dichotomized working	-,020	,081	-,012	-,242	,809
	Dichotomized marital status	-,066	,105	-,033	-,625	,532
	Dichotomized educational status	,005	,122	,002	,040	,968
	DAILYD	,135	,090	,068	1,492	,136
	Dichotomied living	,020	,138	,007	,143	,887

a Dependent Variable: ESCAPE   b COUNTRY = HUNGARY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,065	,222		9,321	,000
	VENTING	,334	,097	,160	3,437	,001
2	(Constant)	2,451	,483		5,076	,000
	VENTING	,433	,096	,208	4,496	,000
	AGE	-,031	,005	-,314	-5,752	,000
	GENDER	,345	,109	,141	3,151	,002
	Dichotomized working	,238	,094	,114	2,526	,012
	Dichotomized marital status	-,211	,094	-,108	-2,231	,026
	Dichotomized educational status	,007	,098	,004	,075	,940
	DAILYD	,322	,091	,168	3,541	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,504	,149	-,144	-3,386	,001

a Dependent Variable: ESCAPE   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,810	,147		12,330	,000
	VENTING	,192	,059	,156	3,258	,001
2	(Constant)	2,066	,501		4,123	,000
	VENTING	,255	,058	,207	4,389	,000
	AGE	-,036	,012	-,178	-3,102	,002
	GENDER	-,377	,101	-,179	-3,732	,000
	Dichotomized working	,206	,088	,114	2,331	,020
	Dichotomized marital status	,024	,082	,014	,290	,772
	Dichotomized educational status	-,023	,097	-,013	-,234	,815
	DAILYD	,197	,078	,118	2,541	,011
	Dichotomied living	,298	,139	,110	2,149	,032

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,704	,205		8,303	,000
	VENTING	,549	,090	,277	6,087	,000
2	(Constant)	2,527	,483		5,230	,000
	VENTING	,382	,096	,193	3,965	,000
	AGE	-,013	,005	-,132	-2,304	,022
	GENDER	,320	,110	,138	2,921	,004
	Dichotomized working	,076	,094	,038	,807	,420
	Dichotomized marital status	,024	,094	,013	,251	,802
	Dichotomized educational status	-,314	,098	-,169	-3,210	,001
	DAILYD	-,354	,091	-,194	-3,895	,000
	Dichotomied living	,087	,149	,026	,587	,558

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,631	,170		9,585	,000
	VENTING	,274	,068	,192	4,014	,000
2	(Constant)	,310	,594		,522	,602
	VENTING	,255	,069	,179	3,697	,000
	AGE	,001	,014	,006	,098	,922
	GENDER	,300	,122	,121	2,455	,014
	Dichotomized working	-,093	,104	-,045	-,895	,371
	Dichotomized marital status	-,258	,098	-,134	-2,643	,009
	Dichotomized educational status	,153	,117	,074	1,304	,193
	DAILYD	,194	,092	,100	2,100	,036
	Dichotomied living	,442	,165	,141	2,677	,008

a Dependent Variable: INFOSEEK   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Inverse Associations: **Coefficients(a,b)**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,159	,240		17,304	,000
	ACCEPT	-,325	,083	-,216	-3,895	,000
2	(Constant)	3,550	,522		6,801	,000
	ACCEPT	-,304	,084	-,202	-3,626	,000
	AGE	,000	,010	,001	,023	,982
	GENDER	-,009	,111	-,005	-,081	,935
	Dichotomized working	-,072	,114	-,037	-,635	,526
	Dichotomized marital status	,146	,102	,082	1,436	,152
	Dichotomized educational status	-,163	,108	-,091	-1,520	,130
	DAILYD	,072	,116	,034	,621	,535
	Dichotomied living	,333	,133	,146	2,502	,013

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,336	,189		12,347	,000
	ACCEPT	,325	,069	,224	4,736	,000
2	(Constant)	4,001	,652		6,138	,000
	ACCEPT	,269	,070	,185	3,870	,000
	AGE	-,039	,012	-,183	-3,266	,001
	GENDER	-,074	,125	-,029	-,590	,555
	Dichotomized working	-,111	,105	-,051	-1,054	,292
	Dichotomized marital status	-,144	,099	-,072	-1,462	,145
	Dichotomized educational status	-,079	,115	-,038	-,691	,490
	DAILYD	,315	,094	,155	3,355	,001
	Dichotomied living	-,173	,165	-,053	-1,050	,294

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,824	,184		20,749	,000
	ACCEPT	-,302	,069	-,210	-4,364	,000
2	(Constant)	5,396	,458		11,784	,000

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	ACCEPT	-,239	,067	-,166	-3,550	,000
	AGE	-,036	,007	-,265	-5,271	,000
	GENDER	-,043	,128	-,017	-,338	,736
	Dichotomized working	-,058	,100	-,028	-,579	,563
	Dichotomized marital status	-,070	,088	-,039	-,793	,428
	Dichotomized educational status	-,057	,086	-,034	-,668	,505
	DAILYD	,137	,083	,079	1,643	,101
	Dichotomied living	-,322	,126	-,123	-2,560	,011

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,293	,079		54,222	,000
	DENIAL	-,414	,055	-,337	-7,560	,000
2	(Constant)	5,670	,342		16,598	,000
	DENIAL	-,554	,059	-,450	-9,374	,000
	AGE	-,016	,004	-,227	-3,982	,000
	GENDER	-,461	,080	-,269	-5,779	,000
	Dichotomized working	,148	,069	,101	2,156	,032
	Dichotomized marital status	-,194	,069	-,142	-2,829	,005
	Dichotomized educational status	,148	,072	,108	2,061	,040
	DAILYD	-,076	,066	-,057	-1,156	,248
	Dichotomied living	-,013	,106	-,005	-,119	,905

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,583	,109		32,917	,000
	DENIAL	-,335	,075	-,206	-4,441	,000
2	(Constant)	2,554	,396		6,455	,000
	DENIAL	-,449	,068	-,276	-6,560	,000
	AGE	-,042	,005	-,455	-9,128	,000
	GENDER	-,097	,092	-,043	-1,049	,295
	Dichotomized working	,616	,079	,317	7,761	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	,204	,079	,112	2,566	,011
	Dichotomized educational status	-,231	,083	-,128	-2,785	,006
	DAILYD	,426	,076	,239	5,575	,000
	Dichotomied living	,480	,123	,147	3,896	,000

a Dependent Variable: HABIT   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,148	,107		20,123	,000
	DENIAL	-,259	,074	-,164	-3,505	,001
2	(Constant)	4,344	,412		10,545	,000
	DENIAL	-,291	,071	-,184	-4,085	,000
	AGE	-,006	,005	-,062	-1,164	,245
	GENDER	,341	,096	,154	3,539	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,543	,083	-,287	-6,567	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	-,347	,083	-,197	-4,201	,000
	Dichotomized educational status	,347	,087	,197	4,013	,000
	DAILYD	,238	,080	,137	2,985	,003
	Dichotomied living	-1,096	,128	-,346	-8,546	,000

a Dependent Variable: VOYEUR   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,316	,110		30,040	,000
	DENIAL	-,424	,076	-,254	-5,557	,000
2	(Constant)	4,283	,484		8,845	,000
	DENIAL	-,488	,084	-,292	-5,827	,000
	AGE	-,001	,006	-,014	-,234	,815
	GENDER	-,059	,113	-,025	-,519	,604
	Dichotomized working	-,372	,097	-,186	-3,826	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	,305	,097	,164	3,142	,002
	Dichotomized educational status	-,162	,102	-,087	-1,596	,111
	DAILYD	-,189	,094	-,103	-2,021	,044
	Dichotomied living	,000	,151	,000	-,002	,998

a Dependent Variable: INFOSEEK   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,315	,155		14,924	,000
	INSTRSUP	-,256	,055	-,257	-4,696	,000
2	(Constant)	2,607	,385		6,778	,000
	INSTRSUP	-,198	,055	-,199	-3,573	,000
	AGE	,020	,008	,155	2,577	,010
	GENDER	-,216	,093	-,140	-2,336	,020
	Dichotomized working	-,314	,090	-,192	-3,498	,001
	Dichotomized marital status	-,036	,081	-,024	-,438	,662
	Dichotomized educational status	-,207	,085	-,138	-2,436	,015
	DAILYD	-,104	,092	-,060	-1,134	,258
	Dichotomied living	,237	,106	,124	2,246	,025

a Dependent Variable: VOYEUR   b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,326	,164		20,272	,000
	INSTRSUP	-,140	,056	-,118	-2,514	,012
2	(Constant)	3,630	,391		9,274	,000
	INSTRSUP	-,397	,060	-,336	-6,601	,000
	AGE	-,024	,005	-,254	-4,583	,000
	GENDER	,560	,115	,241	4,872	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,022	,092	-,011	-,245	,806
	Dichotomized marital status	,042	,092	,023	,456	,648
	Dichotomized educational status	-,152	,098	-,082	-1,553	,121
	DAILYD	-,512	,086	-,280	-5,962	,000
	Dichotomied living	,544	,151	,163	3,606	,000

a Dependent Variable: SOCIAL INTERACTION   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,426	,162		21,149	,000
	INSTRSUP	-,238	,055	-,201	-4,339	,000
2	(Constant)	2,879	,414		6,954	,000

		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
	INSTRSUP	-,387	,064	-,327	-6,079	,000
	AGE	,000	,006	,003	,044	,965
	GENDER	,359	,122	,154	2,952	,003
	Dichotomized working	-,487	,097	-,244	-5,024	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	,310	,097	,167	3,208	,001
	Dichotomized educational status	,072	,104	,039	,693	,488
	DAILYD	-,113	,091	-,062	-1,244	,214
	Dichotomied living	,395	,160	,118	2,475	,014

a Dependent Variable: INFOSEEK   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,246	,211		20,101	,000
	PLANNING	-,603	,067	-,390	-8,962	,000
2	(Constant)	5,093	,446		11,421	,000
	PLANNING	-,543	,079	-,351	-6,828	,000
	AGE	-,016	,005	-,164	-3,211	,001
	GENDER	,440	,100	,186	4,394	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,191	,098	-,094	-1,949	,052
	Dichotomized marital status	-,403	,089	-,214	-4,530	,000
	Dichotomized educational status	,068	,092	,036	,735	,463
	DAILYD	,065	,085	,035	,762	,446
	Dichotomied living	-,370	,145	-,109	-2,553	,011

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,855	,178		21,610	,000
	PLANNING	-,306	,065	-,225	-4,694	,000
2	(Constant)	5,297	,445		11,907	,000
	PLANNING	-,239	,064	-,176	-3,741	,000
	AGE	-,033	,007	-,249	-4,917	,000
	GENDER	-,012	,127	-,005	-,096	,924
	Dichotomsized working	-,043	,100	-,021	-,428	,669
	Dichotomized marital status	-,112	,087	-,063	-1,299	,195
	Dichotomized educational status	-,014	,086	-,008	-,164	,870
	DAILYD	,155	,083	,089	1,859	,064
	Dichotomied living	-,343	,126	-,131	-2,723	,007

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,239	,261		16,251	,000
	PLANNING	-,387	,083	-,215	-4,661	,000
2	(Constant)	5,070	,441		11,504	,000
	PLANNING	-,544	,079	-,303	-6,932	,000
	AGE	-,020	,005	-,177	-4,076	,000
	GENDER	1,097	,099	,399	11,094	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,194	,097	-,082	-2,006	,046
	Dichotomized marital status	-,014	,088	-,006	-,161	,872
	Dichotomized educational status	-,913	,091	-,416	-10,032	,000
	DAILYD	-,246	,084	-,114	-2,941	,003
	Dichotomied living	,194	,143	,049	1,357	,176

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,019	,065		62,238	,000
	SUBSTUSE	-,165	,043	-,180	-3,868	,000
2	(Constant)	4,420	,295		14,986	,000
	SUBSTUSE	-,220	,046	-,239	-4,792	,000
	AGE	-,001	,004	-,017	-,271	,786
	GENDER	-,298	,077	-,197	-3,884	,000
	Dichotomized working	,104	,066	,081	1,573	,116
	Dichotomized marital status	-,008	,064	-,006	-,120	,904
	Dichotomized educational status	-,216	,066	-,179	-3,267	,001
	DAILYD	-,082	,059	-,069	-1,382	,168
	Dichotomied living	,281	,099	,129	2,842	,005

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAINMENT b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,115	,229		13,628	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,380	,081	-,257	-4,696	,000
2	(Constant)	3,161	,471		6,706	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,329	,087	-,223	-3,776	,000
	AGE	,013	,009	,089	1,428	,154
	GENDER	-,074	,100	-,044	-,738	,461
	Dichotomized working	-,031	,103	-,018	-,305	,761
	Dichotomized marital status	-,152	,094	-,092	-1,617	,107
	Dichotomized educational status	-,016	,099	-,010	-,158	,874
	DAILYD	,268	,109	,140	2,470	,014
	Dichotomied living	-,219	,121	-,104	-1,817	,070

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,045	,184		16,538	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,263	,064	-,198	-4,095	,000
2	(Constant)	4,456	,438		10,176	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,265	,062	-,199	-4,265	,000
	AGE	-,014	,007	-,099	-2,015	,045
	GENDER	,143	,128	,053	1,121	,263
	Dichotomized working	-,003	,101	-,002	-,033	,973
	Dichotomized marital status	-,077	,087	-,042	-,883	,378
	Dichotomized educational status	-,021	,087	-,012	-,239	,811
	DAILYD	,286	,084	,160	3,409	,001
	Dichotomied living	-,820	,127	-,305	-6,470	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,992	,212		14,086	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,196	,067	-,136	-2,909	,004
2	(Constant)	4,519	,434		10,411	,000

	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
ACTCOPE	-,375	,072	-,260	-5,244	,000
AGE	-,019	,005	-,194	-3,727	,000
GENDER	,573	,106	,243	5,393	,000
Dichotomized working	-,093	,097	-,046	-,953	,341
Dichotomized marital status	-,603	,090	-,320	-6,686	,000
Dichotomized educational status	,137	,093	,073	1,474	,141
DAILYD	,167	,084	,090	1,996	,047
Dichotomied living	-,500	,144	-,148	-3,466	,001

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,274	,250		17,106	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,562	,088	-,339	-6,361	,000
2	(Constant)	4,043	,488		8,289	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,443	,090	-,267	-4,908	,000
	AGE	-,012	,009	-,075	-1,305	,193
	GENDER	-,183	,104	-,096	-1,763	,079
	Dichotomized working	-,157	,107	-,078	-1,467	,143
	Dichotomized marital status	,328	,097	,178	3,382	,001
	Dichotomized educational status	-,201	,103	-,109	-1,958	,051
	DAILYD	,670	,112	,312	5,967	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,158	,125	-,067	-1,265	,207

a Dependent Variable: HABIT   b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,890	,203		19,193	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,245	,064	-,177	-3,805	,000
2	(Constant)	1,873	,400		4,678	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,224	,066	-,162	-3,393	,001
	AGE	-,035	,005	-,379	-7,595	,000
	GENDER	,103	,098	,045	1,047	,295
	Dichotomized working	,440	,090	,226	4,905	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	,165	,083	,091	1,980	,048
	Dichotomized educational status	-,186	,086	-,103	-2,172	,030
	DAILYD	,516	,077	,290	6,683	,000
	Dichotomied living	,672	,133	,206	5,045	,000

a Dependent Variable: HABIT   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,867	,276		17,650	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,680	,098	-,367	-6,971	,000
2	(Constant)	5,607	,555		10,095	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,518	,103	-,280	-5,040	,000
	AGE	-,031	,011	-,174	-2,961	,003
	GENDER	-,133	,118	-,062	-1,126	,261
	Dichotomized working	-,160	,122	-,071	-1,318	,188
	Dichotomized marital status	,011	,110	,005	,095	,924
	Dichotomized educational status	-,173	,117	-,084	-1,473	,142
	DAILYD	,558	,128	,233	4,361	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,221	,142	-,084	-1,553	,122

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

247

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,206	,173		24,359	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,418	,060	-,323	-6,940	,000
2	(Constant)	5,434	,420		12,933	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,394	,060	-,304	-6,605	,000
	AGE	-,032	,007	-,236	-4,849	,000
	GENDER	,026	,123	,010	,216	,829
	Dichotomized working	,016	,097	,008	,161	,872
	Dichotomized marital status	-,107	,084	-,060	-1,281	,201
	Dichotomized educational status	,040	,084	,023	,478	,633
	DAILYD	,191	,081	,110	2,372	,018
	Dichotomied living	-,361	,122	-,138	-2,971	,003

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,476	,249		13,974	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,140	,079	-,083	-1,771	,077
2	(Constant)	5,444	,394		13,833	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,702	,065	-,418	-10,819	,000
	AGE	-,023	,005	-,209	-5,172	,000
	GENDER	1,366	,096	,497	14,176	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,277	,088	-,118	-3,147	,002
	Dichotomized marital status	-,281	,082	-,128	-3,432	,001
	Dichotomized educational status	-,883	,084	-,402	-10,498	,000
	DAILYD	-,197	,076	-,091	-2,596	,010
	Dichotomied living	,258	,131	,065	1,969	,050

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,902	,193		20,170	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,371	,067	-,259	-5,571	,000
2	(Constant)	3,242	,530		6,116	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,337	,070	-,235	-4,817	,000
	AGE	-,014	,010	-,074	-1,322	,187
	GENDER	,208	,108	,093	1,922	,055
	Dichotomized working	,071	,094	,037	,752	,452
	Dichotomized marital status	-,074	,088	-,042	-,843	,400
	Dichotomized educational status	-,044	,103	-,023	-,426	,670
	DAILYD	,199	,087	,111	2,297	,022
	Dichotomied living	,158	,149	,054	1,061	,289

a Dependent Variable: ESCAPE   b COUNTRY = ISRAEL

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,538	,219		16,150	,000
	ACTCOPE	-,236	,070	-,158	-3,389	,001
2	(Constant)	5,084	,448		11,342	,000

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	ACTCOPE	-,492	,074	-,330	-6,656	,000
	AGE	-,038	,005	-,380	-7,315	,000
	GENDER	,470	,110	,192	4,285	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,079	,100	-,038	-,790	,430
	Dichotomized marital status	-,288	,093	-,148	-3,095	,002
	Dichotomized educational status	-,049	,096	-,025	-,514	,607
	DAILYD	,135	,086	,070	1,557	,120
	Dichotomied living	-,079	,149	-,023	-,532	,595

a Dependent Variable: ESCAPE   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,011	,182		16,500	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,243	,062	-,190	-3,939	,000
2	(Constant)	4,285	,430		9,957	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,260	,061	-,204	-4,233	,000
	AGE	-,019	,007	-,137	-2,794	,005
	GENDER	,238	,130	,089	1,826	,069
	Dichotomized working	,004	,102	,002	,039	,969
	Dichotomied marital status	,012	,090	,006	,131	,896
	Dichotomized educational status	-,098	,086	-,056	-1,133	,258
	DAILYD	,275	,084	,153	3,272	,001
	Dichotomied living	-,764	,127	-,285	-6,036	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,211	,193		16,667	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,178	,067	-,149	-2,665	,008
2	(Constant)	3,284	,455		7,220	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,217	,065	-,182	-3,346	,001
	AGE	-,010	,009	-,064	-1,091	,276
	GENDER	-,081	,110	-,043	-,739	,460
	Dichotomized working	-,246	,108	-,122	-2,278	,023
	Dichotomized marital status	,305	,099	,165	3,069	,002
	Dichotomized educational status	-,319	,102	-,173	-3,124	,002
	DAILYD	,805	,110	,375	7,287	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,094	,127	-,040	-,737	,462

a Dependent Variable: HABIT   b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,459	,188		18,382	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,110	,063	-,083	-1,763	,079
2	(Constant)	1,455	,352		4,133	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,254	,058	-,192	-4,421	,000
	AGE	-,040	,005	-,428	-8,397	,000
	GENDER	,099	,095	,044	1,041	,299
	Dichotomized working	,606	,082	,312	7,433	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	,207	,081	,114	2,539	,011
	Dichotomized educational status	-,062	,087	-,034	-,709	,479
	DAILYD	,510	,076	,286	6,665	,000
	Dichotomied living	,711	,132	,218	5,386	,000

a Dependent Variable: HABIT   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,297	,123		34,827	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,172	,041	-,194	-4,192	,000
2	(Constant)	4,038	,278		14,541	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,176	,045	-,199	-3,878	,000
	AGE	,001	,004	,024	,390	,697
	GENDER	-,122	,075	-,081	-1,623	,105
	Dichotomized working	,038	,064	,029	,591	,555
	Dichotomized marital status	-,011	,064	-,009	-,164	,870
	Dichotomized educational status	-,170	,069	-,141	-2,472	,014
	DAILYD	-,104	,060	-,088	-1,731	,084
	Dichotomied living	,431	,104	,199	4,137	,000

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAINMENT   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,701	,203		18,206	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,279	,068	-,192	-4,128	,000
2	(Constant)	3,879	,443		8,760	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,285	,072	-,196	-3,943	,000
	AGE	-,035	,006	-,342	-5,839	,000
	GENDER	-,358	,120	-,144	-2,977	,003
	Dichotomized working	,044	,103	,021	,433	,665
	Dichotomized marital status	,152	,102	,077	1,489	,137
	Dichotomized educational status	-,021	,110	-,010	-,189	,851
	DAILYD	,485	,096	,248	5,038	,000
	Dichotomied living	,247	,166	,069	1,486	,138

a Dependent Variable: AROUSAL   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,307	,153		15,112	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,249	,053	-,258	-4,720	,000
2	(Constant)	2,527	,377		6,699	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,204	,054	-,212	-3,807	,000
	AGE	,020	,008	,156	2,598	,010
	GENDER	-,221	,091	-,143	-2,414	,016
	Dichotomized working	-,309	,090	-,189	-3,448	,001
	Dichotomized marital status	-,007	,082	-,004	-,079	,937
	Dichotomized educational status	-,192	,085	-,128	-2,266	,024
	DAILYD	-,117	,092	-,067	-1,275	,203
	Dichotomied living	,265	,105	,138	2,513	,012

a Dependent Variable: VOYEUR   b COUNTRY = SWITZERLAND

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,156	,181		22,927	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,480	,060	-,353	-7,970	,000
2	(Constant)	3,378	,401		8,430	,000

		-,589	,066	-,433	-8,998	,000
	EMOTSUP	-,589	,066	-,433	-8,998	,000
	AGE	-,005	,005	-,052	-,910	,363
	GENDER	,265	,109	,114	2,436	,015
	Dichotomized working	-,332	,093	-,167	-3,577	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	,304	,093	,164	3,278	,001
	Dichotomized educational status	,141	,099	,076	1,422	,156
	DAILYD	-,152	,087	-,083	-1,747	,081
	Dichotomied living	,463	,150	,139	3,082	,002

a Dependent Variable: INFOSEEK   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,673	,086		54,181	,000
	BEHDIS	-,705	,062	-,476	-11,446	,000
2	(Constant)	5,652	,309		18,306	,000
	BEHDIS	-,784	,065	-,529	-12,109	,000
	AGE	-,011	,004	-,164	-3,111	,002
	GENDER	-,270	,075	-,158	-3,618	,000
	Dichotomized working	,180	,065	,122	2,754	,006
	Dichotomized marital status	-,181	,065	-,132	-2,783	,006
	Dichotomized educational status	,060	,069	,044	,876	,382
	DAILYD	-,080	,062	-,060	-1,297	,195
	Dichotomied living	-,054	,101	-,022	-,530	,597

a Dependent Variable: RELAX   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,708	,127		29,305	,000
	BEHDIS	-,432	,090	-,221	-4,782	,000
2	(Constant)	2,475	,370		6,684	,000
	BEHDIS	-,605	,078	-,309	-7,783	,000
	AGE	-,038	,004	-,414	-8,685	,000
	GENDER	,055	,090	,024	,619	,536
	Dichotomized working	,638	,078	,328	8,162	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	,214	,078	,118	2,744	,006
	Dichotomized educational status	-,295	,083	-,163	-3,567	,000
	DAILYD	,429	,074	,241	5,772	,000
	Dichotomied living	,451	,121	,139	3,723	,000

a Dependent Variable: HABIT   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,114	,085		48,454	,000
	BEHDIS	-,243	,061	-,186	-4,002	,000
2	(Constant)	4,506	,302		14,902	,000
	BEHDIS	-,304	,063	-,233	-4,788	,000
	AGE	,003	,004	,050	,852	,395
	GENDER	-,161	,073	-,107	-2,205	,028
	Dichotomized working	,046	,064	,036	,726	,468
	Dichotomized marital status	-,006	,064	-,005	-,097	,923
	Dichotomized educational status	-,306	,068	-,254	-4,524	,000
	DAILYD	-,137	,061	-,115	-2,248	,025
	Dichotomied living	,268	,099	,123	2,704	,007

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAINMENT   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,142	,125		17,129	,000
	BEHDIS	-,257	,089	-,135	-2,876	,004
2	(Constant)	4,116	,394		10,456	,000
	BEHDIS	-,307	,083	-,161	-3,720	,000
	AGE	-,003	,005	-,029	-,558	,577
	GENDER	,433	,095	,196	4,547	,000
	Dichotomized working	-,539	,083	-,285	-6,484	,000
	Dichotomized marital status	-,341	,083	-,194	-4,113	,000
	Dichotomized educational status	,325	,088	,184	3,692	,000
	DAILYD	,257	,079	,148	3,250	,001
	Dichotomied living	-1,103	,129	-,348	-8,556	,000

a Dependent Variable: VOYEUR   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,775	,111		24,902	,000
	BEHDIS	-,284	,072	-,191	-3,941	,000
2	(Constant)	2,284	,431		5,296	,000
	BEHDIS	-,259	,074	-,174	-3,524	,000
	AGE	,005	,007	,037	,692	,489
	GENDER	,193	,121	,081	1,591	,112
	Dichotomized working	-,169	,095	-,089	-1,771	,077
	Dichotomized marital status	-,007	,083	-,004	-,079	,937
	Dichotomized educational status	,095	,082	,061	1,164	,245
	DAILYD	,288	,079	,181	3,625	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,129	,121	-,054	-1,071	,285

a Dependent Variable: INFOSEEK   b COUNTRY = NORWAY

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,816	,122		31,307	,000
	BEHDIS	-,807	,087	-,401	-9,267	,000
2	(Constant)	4,662	,435		10,718	,000
	BEHDIS	-,881	,091	-,438	-9,655	,000
	AGE	,001	,005	,014	,265	,791
	GENDER	,124	,105	,053	1,178	,239
	Dichotomized working	-,321	,092	-,161	-3,493	,001
	Dichotomized marital status	,318	,092	,171	3,469	,001
	Dichotomized educational status	-,282	,097	-,152	-2,903	,004
	DAILYD	-,232	,087	-,127	-2,652	,008
	Dichotomied living	-,063	,142	-,019	-,445	,656

a Dependent Variable: INFOSEEK   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,895	,226		12,818	,000
	MENTDIS	-,032	,085	-,018	-,380	,704
2	(Constant)	4,907	,534		9,196	,000

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	MENTDIS	-,335	,092	-,186	-3,638	,000
	AGE	-,045	,006	-,452	-7,737	,000
	GENDER	,132	,115	,054	1,147	,252
	Dichotomized working	,232	,095	,111	2,440	,015
	Dichotomized marital status	-,264	,097	-,136	-2,717	,007
	Dichotomized educational status	,088	,101	,045	,869	,385
	DAILYD	,132	,091	,069	1,447	,149
	Dichotomied living	-,307	,148	-,088	-2,073	,039

a Dependent Variable: ESCAPE   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,009	,161		18,697	,000
	POSREFRA	-,217	,054	-,186	-4,010	,000
2	(Constant)	4,128	,401		10,305	,000
	POSREFRA	-,275	,050	-,236	-5,483	,000
	AGE	-,017	,005	-,174	-3,356	,001
	GENDER	,533	,104	,225	5,127	,000
	Dichotomized working	,015	,090	,007	,161	,872
	Dichotomized marital status	-,551	,089	-,292	-6,200	,000
	Dichotomized educational status	,094	,093	,050	1,004	,316
	DAILYD	,190	,083	,102	2,288	,023
	Dichotomied living	-,591	,140	-,174	-4,237	,000

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,935	,191		15,398	,000
	POSREFRA	,038	,064	,028	,596	,551
2	(Constant)	3,918	,402		9,737	,000
	POSREFRA	-,205	,050	-,151	-4,053	,000
	AGE	-,021	,005	-,188	-4,194	,000
	GENDER	1,160	,104	,422	11,120	,000
	Dichotomized working	,039	,091	,016	,427	,670
	Dichotomized marital status	-,156	,089	-,071	-1,745	,082
	Dichotomized educational status	-,863	,094	-,394	-9,194	,000
	DAILYD	-,110	,083	-,051	-1,325	,186
	Dichotomied living	-,063	,140	-,016	-,451	,652

a Dependent Variable: PASSTIME   b COUNTRY = USA

Coefficients(a,b)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,664	,164		22,311	,000
	POSREFRA	-,298	,055	-,247	-5,391	,000
2	(Constant)	4,677	,407		11,479	,000
	POSREFRA	-,402	,051	-,334	-7,873	,000
	AGE	-,035	,005	-,353	-6,926	,000
	GENDER	,434	,106	,178	4,112	,000
	Dichotomized working	,046	,092	,022	,499	,618
	Dichotomized marital status	-,224	,090	-,115	-2,476	,014
	Dichotomized educational status	-,119	,095	-,061	-1,247	,213
	DAILYD	,159	,084	,083	1,879	,061
	Dichotomied living	-,179	,142	-,051	-1,261	,208

a Dependent Variable: ESCAPE   b COUNTRY = USA

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
Model						
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,377	,212		15,955	,000
	VENTING	-,444	,093	-,220	-4,772	,000
2	(Constant)	4,563	,459		9,932	,000
	VENTING	-,413	,092	-,205	-4,504	,000
	AGE	-,023	,005	-,237	-4,422	,000
	GENDER	,343	,104	,145	3,290	,001
	Dichotomized working	,076	,090	,038	,848	,397
	Dichotomized marital status	-,505	,090	-,268	-5,621	,000
	Dichotomized educational status	,185	,093	,098	1,989	,047
	DAILYD	,128	,087	,069	1,476	,141
	Dichotomied living	-,600	,142	-,177	-4,237	,000

Coefficients(a,b)

a Dependent Variable: COMPANY   b COUNTRY = USA

Table 11: Summary of life satisfaction and TV-viewing motives.

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
Model						
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,363	,094		35,685	,000
	LIFESAT	-,032	,004	-,226	-8,487	,000
2	(Constant)	2,815	,231		12,201	,000
	LIFESAT	-,032	,004	-,227	-8,363	,000
	AGE	-,010	,005	-,064	-2,074	,038
	GENDER	,174	,054	,086	3,231	,001
	Dichotomized working	,060	,047	,035	1,263	,207
	Dichotomized marital status	,051	,051	,029	,987	,324
	Dichotomized educational status	-,071	,057	-,038	-1,260	,208
	DAILYD	,193	,050	,103	3,884	,000
	Dichotomied living	,088	,073	,033	1,210	,226

Dependent Variable: ESCAPE

Table 11: Summary of life satisfaction and TV-viewing motives.

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
Model						
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,589	,091		39,280	,000
	LIFESAT	,001	,004	,010	,359	,719
2	(Constant)	3,151	,223		14,109	,000
	LIFESAT	,001	,004	,007	,247	,805
	AGE	-,005	,005	-,034	-1,062	,289
	GENDER	,060	,052	,032	1,157	,247
	Dichotomized working	-,037	,046	-,023	-,795	,427
	Dichotomized marital status	,095	,050	,058	1,921	,055
	Dichotomized educational status	-,047	,055	-,027	-,865	,387
	DAILYD	,246	,048	,139	5,099	,000
	Dichotomied living	,073	,070	,029	1,033	,302

a Dependent Variable: ENTERTAINMENT

Table 11: Summary of life satisfaction and TV-viewing motives.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,397	,097		34,929	,000
	LIFESAT	,001	,004	,010	,361	,718
2	(Constant)	2,533	,239		10,617	,000
	LIFESAT	,002	,004	,011	,400	,690
	AGE	,003	,005	,019	,593	,553
	GENDER	,187	,056	,092	3,354	,001
	Dichotomized working	-,039	,049	-,023	-,789	,430
	Dichotomized marital status	-,015	,053	-,009	-,287	,774
	Dichotomized educational status	-,034	,058	-,018	-,577	,564
	DAILYD	,228	,052	,121	4,415	,000
	Dichotomied living	,154	,075	,057	2,053	,040

a Dependent Variable: RELAX

Table 12: Summary of perceived stress and TV-viewing motives.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,615	,124		13,050	,000
	PSS	,034	,004	,248	7,728	,000
2	(Constant)	1,160	,288		4,030	,000
	PSS	,032	,004	,240	7,373	,000
	AGE	-,007	,006	-,045	-1,195	,232
	GENDER	,131	,067	,063	1,952	,051
	Dichotomized working	,109	,058	,064	1,878	,061
	Dichotomized marital status	,041	,062	,023	,661	,509
	Dichotomized educational status	-,038	,070	-,020	-,540	,590
	DAILYD	,240	,060	,129	4,025	,000
	Dichotomied living	-,035	,090	-,013	-,390	,697

Dependent Variable: ESCAPE

Table 13: Two-factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA), Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	38,523(a)	3	12,841	18,997	,000
Intercept	5799,523	1	5799,523	8579,814	,000
DPSS	32,536	1	32,536	48,134	,000
Error	639,448	946	,676		
Total	6846,000	950			
Corrected Total	677,971	949			

Dependent Variable: ESCAPE

NTILES of PSS

NTILES of PSS	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
below the median	2,370	,040	2,292	2,448
above the median	2,754	,038	2,678	2,829

Dependent Variable: ESCAPE