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ABSTRACT

Children of all ages are more likely to use electronic sources of information such as television and radio rather than print sources such as newspapers and magazines, according to a variety of studies. A study examined whether this tendency continued if the children were forced by their primary and secondary school teachers to use multiple news sources--of their own choices--to follow an election campaign. Respondents were 24,348 students participating in the Kids Voting USA civics education program operating in 20 states and the District of Columbia. Results indicated that even when seeking election campaign information in 1994, a non-presidential year when the emphasis was more on state and local races, students overwhelmingly preferred television and radio as sources of information. Newspaper usage trailed both electronic forms even when a child's family subscribed to a newspaper. Findings suggest how difficult it may be for the newspaper industry to attract the next generation of potential readers and subscribers. No evidence of a knowledge gap was found between White and non-White students in the choice and use of information sources. The large sample size also allowed for a detailed look of often neglected subgroups such as Native American children (n=1114) and Asian American children (n=768). (Contains 8 tables of data and 53 references.) (Author/NKA)

Selecting Their Sources:

Patterns of News Media Use Among Primary and Secondary School Students

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Abstract

Children of all ages are more likely to use electronic sources of information such as television and radio than print sources such as newspapers and magazines, according to a variety of studies. Does this tendency continue if the children are forced by their primary and secondary school teachers to use multiple news sources -- of their own choice -- to follow an election campaign?

This study, based on responses from an extraordinarily large sample of 24,348 students, focuses on media use by participants in the Kids Voting USA civics education program. The study found that even when seeking election campaign information in 1994, a non-presidential year when the emphasis is more on state and local races, students overwhelmingly preferred television and radio as sources of information. Newspaper usage trailed both electronic forms even when a child's family subscribed to a paper. The results underscore how difficult it may be for the newspaper industry to attract the next generation of potential readers and subscribers. The study found no evidence of a knowledge gap existing between White and non-White students in their choice and use of information sources. The large sample size also allowed for a detailed look of often neglected subgroups such as Native American children (N=1,114) and Asian American youngsters (N=768).

Selecting Their Sources: Patterns of News Media Use Among Primary and Secondary School Students

News and information about public affairs is more available now than ever before. Yet recent studies have found children and adolescents are using the news media less and showing less interest in politics when they reach adulthood than young adults did in the past. A 1990 Times Mirror study that found Americans between 18 and 30 "know less and care less about news and public affairs" than any generation of the last 50 years (Evard, 1994). The same study replicated a 1965 Gallup question, asking how many young respondents between ages 18 and 35 had read a newspaper and watched television news the previous day. Newspaper readership dropped from 67% to 30% and TV news viewership decreased from 52% to 41% over the 30-year period. A 1996 Pew Center study also found a greater drop-off in regular viewership of the network nightly news among young people (from 36% in March 1995 to 22% in April 1996) than in any other age group examined ("TV News Viewership," 1996).

Given the news media's role as a political socialization agent, researchers have examined the use of the news media by children to better understand their media usage patterns as adults and to understand the often negative feelings that they develop toward politics. Past efforts have suffered from small samples, preventing meaningful breakdown by such characteristics as race, or focused on a single medium such as the use of television or newspapers (Atkin, 1978; Cobb, 1986; Drew and Reeves, 1980; Pitzer, 1989).

An unusual opportunity to reexamine such questions was presented in 1994 by Kids Voting USA, an ongoing civic education program used by 2.3 million students in 1994 in 20 states. Its curriculum is based, in large part, on encouraging students in grades K-12 to use multiple media sources to learn about election campaigns and the voting process. This descriptive study, based on an extraordinarily large sample (N=24,348) of Kids Voting participants in 1994, focuses on how the students responded to an intervention: being encouraged over an eight-week period to use multiple news media sources to follow an election campaign. It also examines the impact of potential intervening variables, such as whether a family subscribes to a newspaper. Finally, based on the large sample size, it offers a detailed look at the relationship between students' grade level, race and sex and their media choice when asked to select their sources for campaign information.

The mass media and political socialization

Political socialization can be conceptualized as the process by which an individual learns "the political norms, values and behaviors acceptable to an ongoing political system" (Tan, 1985, p. 1). For more than 30 years, researchers have explored a variety of factors that may contribute to the process in which children develop the knowledge, attitudes and behaviors that shape their roles as future participants in a democracy. While family is often viewed as the primary agent of political socialization (Berger and Luckmann, 1967), several secondary agents also have been identified, including schools (Greenstein, 1965; Hess and

Torney, 1967), the political context of the times (Niemi, 1974) and the role of the individual as an independent factor in the process (Chaffee, Pan and McLeod, 1995; Haste and Torney-Purta, 1992; Jennings and Niemi, 1974; Niemi, 1974).

There has been increased attention paid to the role of the mass media in political socialization. Klapper's influential overview of media effects (1960) had discounted the media's role, arguing any effect would be minimized by selective exposure to information and would lead to reinforcement of already held values. A decade later, Chaffee, Ward and Tipton (1970) revisited the question and helped launch a new round of research into the issue. They argued that children have few political views that can be reinforced by the media; instead, children are in the process of developing political attitudes, a process that can be affected by media exposure.

Media exposure has been linked to stronger public affairs knowledge (Chaffee and Tims, 1982; Chaffee and Schleuder, 1986) and political attitudes and interest (Jackson-Beeck, 1979). The media, especially television, are seen as serving as a bridge for adolescents to learn about the political world at large (Chaffee and Yang, 1988). More recent work suggests media effects can vary due to how actively a youngster uses and processes campaign information (McLeod, Eveland and Horowitz, 1995). The news media also are seen as having the ability to scramble or introduce a "disequilibrium" in a youngster's attitudes toward politics, possibly strengthening political interest as equilibrium is regained (Chaffee, Moon and McDevitt, 1995).

Effects of different news sources

Significant differences have been found in the effects of electronic and print sources of news on audiences. Adult newspaper users tend to obtain and retain more information on political campaigns (Chaffee, Zhao and Leshner, 1994; Clarke and Fredin, 1978) and are able to better discriminate among issues (Choi and Becker, 1987; Wagner, 1983) than television users. Television users have been found to be less active politically (Volgy and Schwarz, 1980) and more likely to use candidate images and personal qualities more in making a voting choice (Graber, 1976; Keeter, 1987). Television can have a greater impact on current events knowledge, while print has more of an impact on fundamental political knowledge (Garramone and Atkin, 1986). Shaffer (1981) and Teixeira (1992, 1987) examined changes in the presidential electorate over multiple elections and found that reduced newspaper use by voters was associated with much of the decrease in turnout in presidential elections over the past 30 years. In summarizing the research on media effects and public knowledge, Chaffee, Zhao and Leshner (1994) estimate that "almost all studies attribute a substantial contribution to newspaper reading... but only about one half of studies testing the value of TV advertising on knowledge about candidate's issue positions detect any effect" (p. 309).

The apparent advantages of newspapers as an information source may have been lessened by the 200 daily newspapers that have ceased publication since

1972 (Editor & Publisher, 1996) and a steady decrease in readership when controlled for population (Stanley and Niemi, 1990). The United States is 15th in newspaper reading among 26 newspaper-rich countries, and 18th in circulation per capita (Stevenson, 1994). Beginning in 1964, television surpassed newspapers as a primary source of news in Roper's longitudinal survey and the gap has widened ever since ("America's Watching," 1994). By 1994, 72% of adult respondents selected television as the source from which they "usually get most of your news from," compared to 38% for newspapers, 18% for radio and 8% for magazines ("America's Watching," 1994). There has been no similar effort to track media use by pre-adults.

Use of the news media by children

From a uses and gratifications perspective, it's easy to see why the news media -- especially television -- are attractive to children. The news media can serve several roles: as a general information source, a warning device for youngsters about local problems like crime, and a civics function in supplying specific information on voting and government (Drew and Reeves, 1980; Evard, 1994). As a result, children attend to the news media in large numbers, although estimates on audience size vary widely due to different age groups examined, the media studied, the location of the survey and the time period examined.

Early estimates on student viewership of national TV newscasts ranged from as few as one-third of sixth graders studied (McLeod, Atkin and Chaffee, 1972) to as many as 60% of elementary school students (Atkin, 1978). A Nielsen Media

Research study in 1989 found 2.3 million children of ages 2 to 11, plus another 1.7 million children of ages 12 to 17, watched an evening national news program in a peak viewing week (Quigley, 1989). A more recent survey found 65% of 11- to 16-year-olds surveyed said they watched a national or local news program the day before (Fairbank, Maslin, Maullin and Associates, 1994).

Newspaper exposure levels have varied in much the same manner. Schramm, Lyle and Parker's seminal study (1960) found that newspapers do not become important to youngsters on a daily basis until about the eighth grade, even though other media are introduced as early as age 2. A more recent study of 1,355 11th and 12th graders (Cobb, 1986) found that teens spent an average of one to 15 minutes reading a newspaper or magazine per day, compared to one hour to two hours with television and over four hours with radio. A 1994 nationwide survey of 11- to 16-year-olds found only 11% said they spent at least 30 minutes reading a newspaper the day before, 33% spent less than a half hour and 57% did not read the newspaper (Fairbank et al., 1994). Cobb-Walgren (1990) suggested that teens perceive newspaper reading as requiring too much time and effort, discouraging use. Given the reduced interest among children, it is not surprising that a recent study of 18- to 34-year-olds found their readership of all sections of the paper, except classified ads, lagged behind older adults (Mennenga, 1994). One study based on 13 lengthy focus groups with elementary school students found television to be the primary source of campaign information for the 1992 election; not one student cited newspapers as a source of campaign information (Bronstein, 1993).

The newspaper industry has long used a Newspaper In Education program in hopes of encouraging students to get in the habit of reading and relying on a paper at an early age. Individual papers have increased such efforts, ranging from having teen-age film reviewers offer critiques of Hollywood movies in the Chicago Tribune to having a "Student Briefing Page" to explain a complex issue like the Gulf War to young readers of New York's Newsday (Reilly, 1991). While other newspapers also have tried to make design changes to attract younger readers (Wanta and Gao, 1994), some efforts to mimic television's more colorful and shorter coverage have failed (Stevenson, 1994).

Fewer studies have been conducted on children's use of radio and magazines as news sources. Fairbank et al. (1994) found 44% of teenagers said they listened to radio news the day before, while 43% reported reading a magazine (for news and other purposes).

Media use by children may follow a developmental sequence in which electronic media (radio, then television) precedes print media (newspapers, then magazines) (Chaffee and Tims, 1982). While students appear to have clear preferences that help determine their news media usage, usage also may be related to socio-economic patterns. The knowledge gap hypothesis (Tichenor, Donohue and Olien, 1970) suggests that children from higher SES groups and the dominant white culture have easier access to information and knowledge than those from lower SES groups and the minority culture.

Civics Education, Media Usage and Kids Voting USA

One organization that encourages students from kindergarten through grade 12 to use the news media is Kids Voting USA. The program, a civic education curriculum designed to increase turnout when students become voting age, began on a trial basis in six Arizona communities in 1988. In 1992, the program received a limited national run in 11 states. In 1994 it expanded to 20 states plus the District of Columbia, reaching 2.3 million students in kindergarten through grade 12 at a budgeted cost of $5 million in cash and in-kind contributions, all from private sources (Simon and Merrill, in print; Merrill, Simon and Adrian, 1994). The program's popularity comes despite studies that question the long-term impact of any school-based civics curriculum on the political attitudes of students (Beck, 1977; General Accounting Office, 1990; Litt, 1963).

The Kids Voting curriculum, individualized for grades K-12, stresses information gathering, especially from the news media (S.E. Golston, personal communication, March 30, 1996). Teachers generally use the program for six to 12 hours of classroom instruction in the fall prior to an election. On Election Day, students are encouraged to accompany adults to the polls and cast an unofficial ballot. The 1994 curriculum called on students to use multiple sources of information to learn about voting. One-third of the lessons required students to use the media and another third were enhanced by teachers using the media. A typical

lesson for primary grade students called for placing the outline of a television set on a blackboard; students then came up and wrote in the grid what they have learned about the election from TV. In high school, students analyzed campaign ads, created a collage of newspaper clippings, and held formal debates on national and local issues. Most lessons did not call for usage of a specific medium. (S.E. Golston, personal communication, March 30, 1996). Since there was no presidential election in 1994, the media focus was on state and local races, plus ballot questions in some states.

Various measures used to analyze the program in 1990, 1992 and 1994 found Kids Voting was associated with increases in adult turnout -- usually parents of the participating children -- of 1.7% to 3.9% (Simon and Merrill, in print; Merrill, Simon and Adrian, 1994). In 1994, a separate analysis of Kids Voting in the San Jose, California area found strong effects in terms of student communication behaviors, such as stimulating media usage, interpersonal discussions about politics and minimizing socio-economic differences (Chaffee, Pan and McLeod, 1995). The program was found to stimulate short-term behavior change, spurring interest in politics and use of the news media, rather than activating latent dispositions the student may have carried into the program.

Research Questions

This study uses the Kids Voting USA program as an opportunity to investigate how young news consumers reacted when asked by a teacher to use multiple sources of information to follow an election campaign. Kids Voting is

conceptualized as an independent variable, a potential stimulus that may affect the dependent variable of media use. This study focuses on three research questions:

RQ1. Will students, faced by the need to obtain campaign information from the news media, turn to electronic or print forms of communication?

Since the students were instructed by their teachers to rely on multiple sources to gain additional information, use of often-neglected print forms should be higher. The off-year nature of the 1994 campaign also could boost use of newspapers and magazines since students were searching for information on state and local races and ballot questions, and newspapers were often the only medium that covered local races in depth.

RQ2. Will students whose families subscribe to a newspaper be more likely to use it as an information source than those who have to seek out a copy on their own?

RQ3. Are there any differences in media usage patterns among students based on grade, sex and race?

Method

The present study was based on the expanded, national Kids Voting USA program that was used in 20 states and the District of Columbia in 1994. A sample of 24,348 students was selected from the states using the program in 1994. Participating schools were stratified by racial, political and demographic characteristics, then selected at random in a manner designed to yield approximately the same number of respondents in grades K-3, 4-6, and 7-12.

Individual classes in each school were then selected at random, and all students in a chosen class completed a questionnaire.

The student survey yielded 7,300 responses from students in grades kindergarten through three, 8,321 responses from grades four through six, and 8,727 responses from grades seven through 12. Slightly more female students completed a survey (52%). There was representation from a variety of ethnic groups (16% of students identified themselves as African American, 4% as Hispanic American or Latino, 5% as Native American, 4% as Asian American and 69% as White or Anglo).

Twelve questions were given to students in all three grade groups. They differed only in phrasing for the youngest children (e.g., the gender question asked whether students in K-3 were "a boy or a girl" instead of "male or a female"). Teachers often read the questions to students in grades K-3, and those youngsters were asked only about their use of newspapers and television and not radio or magazines (Q: "How often did you read things in the newspaper about voting" or "...watch things about voting on TV? Frequently, occasionally or never?"). Students in grades 4-12 also were asked about use of radio and magazines for voting information. Students were asked to record their grade, race and sex.

Contingency tables were used to analyze the results. Cramer's V, a Chi-Square based measure, was used to measure the level of association among the nominal and ordinal variables It can attain the value of 1 for tables of any dimension, thereby facilitating comparisons across studies. Due to the huge size of

the sample, virtually all relationships among the variables were statistically significant, so little was made of that fact in the findings section.

Findings

Table 1 shows the dominance of the electronic media as news sources for students. Overall, 76% of the students used television "frequently" or "occasionally" and 71% used radio, compared to 52% for newspapers and 31% for magazines.

There is an inherent difference between electronic and print sources: the former is immediately available in almost all homes in America, while the latter must usually be sought and purchased. What if the barrier of access to a newspaper is dropped? Does newspaper use go up dramatically if a student's family subscribes to a newspaper? Table 2 shows substantially higher usage of newspapers among students whose families do subscribe (61% say they use newspapers frequently or occasionally) than families who do not subscribe (43%). By grades 7-12, 66% of students from families that subscribe were using a newspaper to follow the campaign, compared to 50% of students in grades 7-12 from non-newspaper families. The difference in access to the medium does explain some of the usage patterns. Yet even among subscribing families, less than two-thirds of students from families that subscribe to a newspaper (61%) used a newspaper to complete their classroom assignments, compared to 76% of students using TV and 71% using radio.

A breakdown of media use by grade (Table 3) showed increased use of all four media as the students become older, although the association between grade

and medium (V=.09 to .15) was modest. Again, the electronic news sources were preferred by students, regardless of class year. In the first two years of school, 60% of students reported using television to follow the campaign, a percentage that rose to 82% by the end of high school. The rise was not uniform; TV use increased more rapidly in grades four through eight and then moderated, a non-linear trend that was not repeated with any of the three other information sources. Radio use showed a more steady increase, peaking at 81% usage in the final years of high school. The results served as a reminder of the continued importance of radio in the lives of young people.

Newspapers and magazines were used less, regardless of grade level. Little more than one-third (37%) of students in grades K-1 reported using newspapers as an information source. The percentage climbed steadily and peaked at 69% in grades 11-12. Magazines started at a lower usage level (25% in grade 4); even by grade 12, when multiple media use was at its highest, less than half (43%) of students used magazines to follow the campaign.

An analysis of the media usage patterns of boys and girls showed sex was a poor predictor (Table 4). Overall, female students were more likely to use television, newspapers and radio as an information source. The difference was striking only for radio, where 75% of females used it for campaign information versus 65% of the males. Magazine use was equally low for both sexes (31%). For both males and females, usage of each of the four media steadily increased with grade level, peaking in grades 7-12.

An examination of media use by students from different racial groups found remarkable uniformity of media use and little evidence of differences that could suggest a knowledge gap (Table 5). There was virtually no association between race (Whites vs. Non-whites) and use of each of the four information sources (V = .01 to .05). The overall association between television use and race (V=.01) was so weak that it was one of the few associations in the study that was not statistically significant, despite the huge number of participants.

The analysis of media use within each racial or ethnic group also found uniform usage patterns and very weak associations (V=.03 to .04). Television was used frequently or occasionally by 74% to 80% of students in each racial subgroup. Radio was used by 61% to 72% of students in all five racial subgroups, newspapers by 47% to 59% of all groups, and magazines by 30% to 36% of students. Asian Americans were the most likely students to have used television, newspapers and magazines to follow the campaign, while White students used radio more than any other racial subgroup. Table 5 also examined media choice and racial differences on the basis of grade level and found increased usage in higher grades. Here, the associations were generally stronger, suggesting that grade level had a greater impact on media usage patterns than did race.

In a final effort to examine differences in media usage based on sex and race, the study looked at how many of the four types of information sources each student said they had used in the course of the election campaign (Table 6).

Overall, 78% of the students did follow the mandate of the Kids Voting curriculum and used more than one type of news media to follow the campaign. Almost half of the students (47%) used three or four of the media. In terms of sex, male students were twice as likely as female students (8% to 4%) to ignore their teachers' directions and not use the news media at all to follow the campaign. Women students also were more likely to use multiple types of information sources to follow the campaign than men (81% vs. 74%).

In contrast, there was a weaker association between race and multiple media usage. Between 5% and 6% of students from all racial groups reported not using any news media, while between 16% and 19% reported using all four. Again, the race of the student was not a good predictor of their media use pattern.

Therefore, in revisiting the Research Questions we find:

RQ1. Students in grades K-12 were far more likely to use electronic forms of news than print forms to follow the 1994 election campaign, even when encouraged to use multiple information sources. The finding came in an off-year election campaign when newspapers traditionally play a more prominent role.

RQ2. Students whose families subscribe to a newspaper were more likely to use it as an information source than those who have to seek out a copy on their own. However, even among students whose families subscribe to a newspaper, usage of that medium was less than that of television or radio.

RQ3. The largest differences in media usage patterns was based on grade level, with usage of all four media increasing in the higher grades. There was little difference based on the sex or race of the student.

Discussion

The news media -- electronic and print -- spend most of their time attracting an adult audience because those are the consumers who build ratings, buy newspapers and magazines, and patronize advertisers. Yet many students do pay attention to the news media and are influenced by the role of the media in their political socialization. Like adults, many gravitate toward television and radio as their primary sources of information .

The results of this study parallel those of the Roper longitudinal survey of adult media patterns, which has found television is the most cited information source and that newspapers lag behind ("America's Watching," 1994). One difference here, however, from the Roper study is the far greater use of radio as an information source by children. The findings of this study also are consistent with Chaffee and Tims (1982), who found media use by children follows a developmental sequence in which electronic media (radio, then television) which require no reading skills are used before print media (newspapers, then magazines).

Given the lack of a pretest in this study, it is unclear whether the level of newspaper use represent in the Kids Voting program represents an increase in print use from pre-KV levels. The separate 1994 study of Kids Voting in San Jose,

CA (Chaffee, Moon and McDevitt, 1995) used a scale to measure frequency of newspaper usage, rather than simple exposure to the medium, and did find greater newspaper usage among KV participants than within the control group.

One of the central findings of this study is the striking similarity between White and non-White students in their media usage patterns. Kids Voting appears to be associated with minimal socio-economic differences in terms of media use. The finding is consistent with Chaffee, Pan and McLeod (1995), who found Kids Voting closed the information gap among socio-economic groups of students studied in San Jose, CA in 1994. As computerized forms of campaign information become more popular in 1996 and beyond and home computers provide greater access to such information, this area deserves further scrutiny. But in 1994, this study finds little evidence of a knowledge gap (Tichenor, Donohue and Olien, 1970) based on White students having greater access to campaign information than non-Whites as they pursued their Kids Voting assignments. The sex of the students also played an insignificant role in media usage, while higher grade levels were associated with greater usage of all four media.

The study suggests several avenues for further research. Even though the 1994 survey was the fourth time KV had collected information from young children in kindergarten and elementary school, validity and reliability concerns remain. Any measurement error that resulted in this study would have presumably cut across the four media examined, but researchers may want to reexamine the proces of having elementary school teachers read the questions to the young

students. Kids Voting USA also did not collect pre-test data on media use that could have been used to evaluate the program in a quasi-experimental framework. Instead, the program just collected data after the election, making it impossible to isolate changes in individual or collective attitudes and behavior that may be due to the stimulus of Kids Voting USA.

The long-suffering newspaper industry can take little satisfaction from the finding here that the students were more likely to seek out electronic forms of information. In the 1994 Kids Voting curriculum, newspapers should have been aided by the fact that students often needed information on local races and statewide ballot questions that are usually covered more closely by newspapers than by electronic sources. There also were a small number of specific Kids Voting activities that should have forced all students to use print sources, such as their having to bring in newspaper and magazine campaign stories that could be assembled into in a collage of campaign coverage. The preference for TV and radio can't be explained here by their more universal availability. Even students living in homes that receive a newspaper were more likely to use the electronic media. While newspaper use did increase with grade level, the overall results echo studies of adult media use that find television news to be the dominant information source ("America's Watching," 1994).

Three decades ago, Schramm, Lyle and Parker (1960) found that newspapers did not become important to youngsters on a daily basis until the eighth grade. Based on the results here, it's fair to ask whether they ever become

important to a majority of these students on a daily basis, and whether that pattern will change when the students reach adulthood. Teens are correct in perceiving newspaper reading as taking more time and effort than in gaining information from television or radio (Cobb-Walgren, 1990). Without that increased effort, the reported advantages of newspaper reading in terms of increased cognition and interest in politics and public affairs discussed earlier may go unrealized.

Table 1

Frequency of News Media Usage by Students, by Medium

	TV	Newspapers	Radio*	Magazines*
Frequently	28%	16%	31%	7%
Occasionally	48%	36%	40%	24%
Never	25%	48%	30%	69%
TOTAL	101%	100%	101%	100%
n	24,348	24,017	16,975	16,922

Note. Percentages may not add up to 100% due to rounding

*Radio and magazine usage not collected in grades K-3

Table 2

Frequency of newspaper usage by students, by whether family subscribes to newspaper, and controlling for grade

	Overall		Grades 4-6		Grades 7-12	
	Sub.	Not Sub.	Sub.	Not Sub.	Sub	Not Sub.
Frequently	18%	10%	18%	9%	19%	12%
Occasionally	43%	33%	38%	28%	47%	38%
Never	39%	57%	44%	63%	34%	50%
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
(n)	12,169	4,634	5,845	2,311	6,324	2,323
	V=.16***		V=.17***		V=.15***	

Note. Measure of association expressed by Cramer's V (V).

***p <.001

+Subscription information not collected in grades K-3

Table 3

Frequency of News Media Usage by Students, by Grade, Controlling for Medium

	TV				Newspapers				Radio*				Magazines*			
	Fre	Occ	Nvr[+]	TOTAL	Fre	Occ	Nvr	TOTAL	Fre	Occ	Nvr	TOTAL	Fre	Occ	Nvr	TOTAL
OVERALL	28%	48%	25%	101%	16%	36%	48%	100%	31%	40%	30%	101%	7%	24%	69%	100%
K-1[@]	26%	34%	40%	101%	17%	20%	63%	100%								
1-2	27%	35%	38%	100%	17%	22%	61%	100%								
2-3	28%	39%	33%	100%	16%	26%	58%	100%								
3-4	30%	44%	27%	101%	14%	30%	56%	100%	27%	35%	38%	100%	7%	18%	75%	100%
4-5	30%	48%	21%	99%	15%	34%	52%	101%	27%	36%	37%	100%	7%	19%	74%	100%
5-6	30%	62%	18%	100%	16%	39%	45%	99%	30%	36%	34%	100%	6%	22%	72%	100%
6-7	29%	53%	17%	99%	15%	42%	42%	99%	31%	39%	30%	100%	6%	24%	69%	99%
7-8	26%	54%	20%	101%	14%	43%	42%	99%	31%	42%	27%	100%	6%	26%	68%	100%
8-9	25%	53%	22%	100%	15%	44%	40%	99%	32%	42%	26%	100%	6%	26%	68%	100%
9-10	25%	53%	22%	101%	17%	44%	39%	100%	36%	42%	22%	100%	8%	28%	64%	100%
10-11	23%	55%	22%	101%	19%	42%	39%	100%	37%	43%	20%	100%	8%	32%	60%	100%
11-12	26%	56%	17%	99%	22%	47%	31%	100%	36%	45%	19%	100%	9%	34%	56%	99%
	V=.14***				V=.15***				V=.10***				V=.09***			

Note. Fre=Frequently Occ=Occasionally Nvr=Never. Measure of association expressed by Cramer's V (V). Percentages may not add up to 100% due to rounding

[@]Rolling average used to combine two grades

*Radio and magazine usage not collected in grades K-3

***$p < .001$

Table 4

Frequency of news media usage by children, by sex, controlling for grade

	Overall		Males			Females		
	Males	Females	K-3	4-6	7-12	K-3	4-6	7-12
1. Television								
Frequently	28%	28%	27%	29%	27%	27%	32%	24%
Occasionally	46%	50%	36%	49%	52%	39%	51%	57%
Never	26%	23%	37%	22%	21%	34%	18%	19%
TOTAL	100%	100%	101%	100%	100%	100%	101%	100%
(n)	11,024	12,179	3,437	3,797	3,790	3,437	4,220	4,522
	V=.04***		V=.12***			V=.14***		
2. Newspapers								
Frequently	16%	17%	16%	14%	16%	16%	16%	18%
Occasionally	33%	38%	22%	32%	44%	27%	38%	45%
Never	51%	46%	62%	54%	40%	58%	45%	37%
TOTAL	100%	101%	101%	100%	100%	101%	100%	100%
(n)	12,629	13,721	3,423	3,802	3,789	3,427	4,215	4,514
	V=.05***		V=.12***			V=.14***		

	Overall		Males		Females	
	Males	Females	4-6	7-12	4-6	7-12
3. Radio*						
Frequently	27%	34%	26%	28%	31%	38%
Occasionally	38%	41%	34%	43%	38%	43%
Never	34%	25%	40%	29%	31%	20%
TOTAL	99%	100%	100%	100%	100%	101%
(n)	7,581	8,735	3,795	3,786	4,217	4,518
	V=.11***		V=.12***		V=.14***	
4. Magazines*						
Frequently	7%	7%	6%	7%	7%	7%
Occasionally	24%	24%	20%	28%	20%	29%
Never	69%	69%	74%	64%	73%	64%
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%	99%	100%	100%
(n)	7,569	8,698	7,569	3,784	4,191	4,507
	V=.00		V=.12***		V=.14***	

Note. Measure of association expressed by Cramer's V (V). Percentages may not add up to 100% due to rounding
*Radio and magazine usage not collected in grades K-3
***$p < .001$

Table 5

Frequency of news media use by children, by race, and controlling for grade level

	Overall							Blacks			Whites			Asians			Hispanics			Native American		
	W	N-W	B	W	A	H	N	K-3	4-6	7-12	K-3	4-6	7-12	K-3	4-6	7-12	K-3	4-6	7-12	K-3	4-6	7-12
1. Television																						
Frequently	28%	28%	30%	28%	25%	27%	27%	34%	33%	22%	26%	31%	27%	30%	27%	22%	25%	29%	26%	28%	28%	24%
Occasionally	48%	47%	45%	48%	54%	49%	47%	36%	45%	53%	38%	50%	55%	36%	55%	63%	40%	52%	52%	38%	51%	52%
Never	24%	25%	26%	24%	21%	24%	26%	31%	22%	25%	37%	19%	18%	34%	18%	15%	35%	19%	21%	34%	21%	24%
TOTAL	100%	100%	101%	100%	100%	100%	100%	101%	100%	100%	101%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	99%	100%	100%	100%
(n)	14,.35	6,688	3,443	14,935	764	1,367	1,114	1,129	1,170	1,144	4,496	5,161	5,278	188	206	370	362	436	569	399	409	306
	V=.01		V=.03***					V=.11***			V=.14***			V=.16***			V=.11***			V=.10***		
2. Newspapers																						
Frequently	16%	16%	17%	16%	16%	14%	15%	21%	15%	14%	15%	16%	18%	14%	18%	16%	17%	11%	16%	16%	15%	16%
Occasionally	36%	34%	33%	36%	42%	36%	32%	24%	35%	39%	25%	36%	46%	30%	40%	50%	29%	34%	43%	21%	34%	42%
Never	48%	50%	50%	48%	41%	49%	53%	54%	50%	47%	61%	48%	36%	56%	42%	34%	54%	55%	42%	63%	51%	42%
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%	100%	99%	99%	100%	99%	100%	100%	101%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	101%	100%	100%	100%
(n)	14,883	6,689	3,443	14,883	768	1,364	1,114	1,131	1,170	1,142	4,455	5,156	5,272	191	206	371	359	437	568	399	409	306
	V=.02**		V=.03***					V=.10***			V=.15***			V=.14***			V=.10***			V=.13***		

(more)

	Overall							Blacks		Whites		Asians		Hispanics		Native Am.	
	W	N-W	B	W	A	H	N	4-6	7-12	4-6	7-12	4-6	7-12	4-6	7-12	4-6	7-12
3. Radio*																	
Frequently	32%	31%	34%	32%	24%	31%	27%	32%	35%	29%	34%	23%	24%	29%	32%	23%	33%
Occasionally	40%	37%	36%	40%	37%	38%	40%	31%	41%	37%	44%	30%	42%	33%	41%	38%	42%
Never	28%	32%	30%	28%	39%	31%	33%	37%	24%	34%	22%	47%	34%	37%	27%	38%	25%
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	99%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	99%	100%	99%	100%
(n)	10,420	4,614	2,315	10,420	578	1,006	715	1,171	1144	5,151	5269	207	371	438	568	410	305
	V=.04***		V=.04***					V=.14***		V=.13***		V=.13***		V=.12***		V=.15***	
4. Magazines*																	
Frequently	6%	8	9%	6%	8%	9%	8%	9%	8%	5%	7%	9%	6%	9%	9%	8%	6%
Occasionally	24%	25%	25%	24%	28%	25%	25%	24%	26%	19%	29%	23%	31%	22%	35%	20%	31%
Never	70%	66%	67%	70%	64%	66%	68%	67%	66%	76%	64%	68%	62%	69%	65%	72%	62%
TOTAL	100%	99%	101%	100%	100%	100%	101%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	99%	100%	99%	100%	99%
(n)	10,402	4,592	2,300	10,402	573	1,003	716	1,163	1,137	5,134	5,268	202	371	436	567	410	306
	V=.05***		V=.04***					V=.03		V=.13***		V=.10		V=.04		V=.12**	

*Radio and magazine usage not collected in grades K-3
***p <.001

Table 6

Multiple News Media Usage, By Sex and Race

	Overall	Male	Female
1. Sex			
0 mediums	5%	8%	4%
1	17%	18%	15%
2	32%	31%	32%
3	28%	26%	30%
4	19%	18%	20%
TOTAL	101%	101%	101%
n	16,782	7,503	8,629
		V=.10***	

	Overall	W	N-W	Black	White	Asian	Hispanic	N. Am.
2. Race								
0 mediums	5%	5%	6%	6%	5%	5%	.5%	.5%
1	17%	16%	18%	18%	16%	15%	18%	19%
2	32%	32%	31%	33%	32%	28%	30%	33%
3	28%	28%	27%	25%	28%	32%	29%	26%
4	19%	19%	18%	18%	19%	19%	17%	16%
TOTAL	100%	100%	101%	100%	100%	100%	100%	99%
n	16,782	10,326	4,545	2,271	10,326	570	996	708
		V=.04***				V=.03***		

Note. W=white. N-W=non-white. B=Blacks. A=Asian. H=Hispanic. N=Native American. Measure of association expressed by Cramer's V (V).

Percentages may not add up to 100% due to rounding. *** p <.001

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