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LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

THE ROLE OF TELEVISION IN THE FORMATION OF FIREARM ATTITUDES

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO

THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF ARTS

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

BY

KYLE A. WEEKS

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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INTRODUCTION

It is estimated that 1 out of every 2 American households possesses at least one firearm (Beaty, 1989), that means that there are over 100 million firearms in the United States today (Tonso, 1982). The attitudes that people have towards firearms and gun control are probably multi-faceted. Furthermore, the range of attitudes that have on these dimensions is extreme. Some people (e.g., members of the National Rifle Association) feel that it is our Constitutional right to bear arms, while others feel that all firearms should be banned. Because all attitudes are learned, if we are to somehow understand the complex attitudes that people have towards firearms, we must investigate some of the possible sources of influence in the attitude formation process.

As with any attitude there are many sources of input in the process of forming attitudes about firearms; to explore all of them would be beyond the scope of this project. The goal of this project is to look at the role that television plays in the process of forming the attitudes that we have towards firearms. I am hypothesizing that the influence television has in the formation process of firearm attitudes is due primarily to the influence it

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has on the way that we form our perceptions of social reality.

Why television and not some other source of input? Because the average television set in the United States is on for over 7 hours per day (A.C. Nielsen Company, 1985). That translates into almost 50 hours per week or over 2500 hours each year that television broadcasts its messages to the American public. What effect does all this television exposure have on us? Nicholas Johnson, former Commissioner of the Federal Communication Commission, once stated that "all television is educational. The question is, what is it teaching? (Myers, 1983, p.371)." Is television teaching certain attitudes towards firearms? Is television teaching us that the world is a scary, violent place? If television is teaching us the world is a mean place, what effect does that have on our attitudes towards firearms?

Most media effects research (e.g., Gerbner and Gross, 1976; Wober and Gunter, 1982) has considered television's influences on our perceptions of social reality as ends in and of themselves. They are generally treated as dependent variables in the conceptual and research designs. Very little work has yet been done by media effects researchers to see if and how these beliefs affect other aspects of our life. It's reasonable to posit that beliefs in a mean world should affect the attitudes that we have towards firearms. For example, if people believed that the world is a violent place, in which they might somehow be harmed, then it is likely they would want some form of protection (i.e., a gun).

Figure 1 gives a graphic representation of the relationship that I am attempting to explore. In order to understand the hypothesized relationship¹, it is necessary to examine each component and the links between the components.

Figure 1: A graphic representation of the proposed relationship



¹Note that although the arrows in Figure 1 imply that the causation is unidirectional, this study will be a cross-sectional, correlational design. Thus, bi-directional causation or causation in the opposite direction are possible. These possibilities should be taken into account while reading the document.

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Firearm Attitudes

In attempting to understand the hypothesized relationship, it is appropriate to first analyze the firearm attitude itself. Once the conception of the firearm attitude is clear, I will attempt to investigate how it is influenced by television and/or beliefs about social reality.

A limitation with past research on firearm attitudes is that most of the work has been somewhat narrow in focus. Much of the past research on firearms (e.g., Bryant & Shoemaker, 1988; Lizotte & Bordua, 1980) has dealt specifically with why people own guns and the attitudes these gun owners have toward their guns. However, relatively little work has been done to explore the attitude towards firearms of people who do not own guns. Research in the area that has been conducted on non-owners deals primarily with their opinions on gun control (e.g., Tyler & Lavrakas, 1983).

Our preliminary work (Weeks, Dougherty, Golub and Heath, 1990) explored the factors that are involved in the attitudes that people (both gun owners and non-owners) have

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toward firearms. That study revealed that there are two "levels" of firearm attitudes: socio-cultural and individualistic or personal. The socio-cultural dimension refers to beliefs and evaluations about how society is structured and the role that firearms play in that larger social structure. The socio-cultural dimension was broken down into the following subdimensions:

1) <u>American Heritage</u> - respondent believes that guns are a vital part of American heritage and history.

Cronbach's alpha=.72 Number of items=4

2) <u>Safety</u> - respondent feels that society would be a safer place if there were no guns (i.e., if there were a gun ban).

Cronbach's alpha=.88 Number of items=6

3) <u>Gun Ban</u> - Respondent is against a gun ban. He/she feels that a gun ban would do more harm than good.

Cronbach's alpha=.84 Number of items=8

4) <u>Control/Regulation</u> - Respondent is against gun control/ regulation.

Cronbach's alpha=.84 Number of items=9

5) NRA (National Rifle Association) - Respondent agrees with NRA beliefs and values, has a politically conservative mindset, stresses individuals' rights and opposes governmental control/regulation.

> Cronbach's alpha=.81 Number of items=14 While the socio-cultural level refers to the larger

social structure, the personal level deals with the individual person. The personal level refers to beliefs, judgements and behaviors that the respondent personally engages in or feels other individuals should engage in. The personal level was broken down into the following subdimensions:

1) <u>Responsibility</u> - Respondent agrees that individual gun owners have a responsibility to ensure that others are not harmed by their gun.

Cronbach's alpha=.71 Number of items=4

 <u>Protection</u> - Respondent feels that guns should always be allowed to be used for protective purposes and that they should be used if needed.

Cronbach's alpha=.78 Number of items=7

3) <u>Keep Gun Illegally</u> - If guns were banned the respondent would keep a gun illegally.

Cronbach's alpha=.78 Number of items=2

4) <u>Personal Defense</u> - The respondent could not shoot someone, even in self-defense.

Cronbach's alpha=.78 Number of items=3

These 9 indices will be analyzed separately, rather than combining them into a single overall firearm attitude. The reason for keeping the indices separate is that certain indices (e.g., Responsibility and American Heritage) are theoretically unrelated to each other. Therefore, combining them would make little sense. In addition, it is hypothesized that certain components will be related directly with television viewing, while other components will be related indirectly. This point will be discussed in more detail later.

Television

As shown in Figure 1 the firearm attitude is viewed as the "dependent variable," and one of the variables thought to influence it is television viewing. According to Gerbner and his associates (e.g., Gerbner and Gross, 1976; Gerbner, Gross, Morgan and Signorelli, 1980), television has the ability to cultivate basic assumptions and impressions about the nature of social reality that are distorted toward the way that the world is portrayed on television. Thus, television shapes and misshapes the audience's definitions of the "real world." They contend this ability derives from the following:

1) The uniformity of the message system, in which the same messages are repeatedly broadcast. Television content uniformly and repeatedly portrays the world as a scary hostile place (Gerbner and Gross, 1976). Furthermore, in the world of television, the chances of being the victim of a crime are much greater than they are in real life (Gerbner, Gross, Eleey, Jackson-Beeck, Jefferies-Fox and Signorelli, 1978). More current research (e.g., Williams, Zabrack and Joy, 1982; Broadcasting, 1983) supports this contention that television consistently characterizes the world as being more violent and crime-infested than it is in real life. Furthermore, television law enforcement officers and criminals are much more likely to use their firearms, than their real life counterparts (Williams et al., 1982). Thus, according to Gerbner and his colleagues, a simple measure of the amount of total television viewed (as opposed to measuring only the viewing of certain types of shows such as crime dramas) would be a sufficient predictor for the viewer's conception of the mean world, because it would be an adequate index of exposure to television's scary world.

In contrast, I contend that while television does, on average, over-present violence, it seems clear that not all types of television viewing should cultivate mean world beliefs. Watching shows such as The Cosby Show or Cheers should not lead the viewer to believe that the world is scary. I contend that only shows that portray the world as a mean, scary place (e.g., crime dramas and news shows) will cultivate mean world beliefs. It is for this reason that television viewing will be broken down into several categories. This will be discussed in more detail in the "methods" section.

2) The realism with which this uniform view of the world is presented, a realism that hides the synthetic nature of television drama. Gerbner and his colleagues contend that the fictional content of television drama is especially influential because it provides representational realism (thus, viewers may assume that events portrayed on television occur in the real world) and symbolic structure (it tells how symbols and objects in our society work) and, thus, provides closure in ways that real life cannot.

3. The almost universal, ritualistic and nonselective way that people watch television. Several researchers (e.g., Potter, 1986; Roberts & Maccoby, 1985) question this assumption and contend that people vary greatly in how they watch television. For example, Potter (1986; 1988) asserts that people differ greatly in how realistic they perceive television as being. At the high end of the perceived reality dimension (Potter refers to it as the Magic Window dimension), people think of television as a magic window on the world. They believe television news shows are accurate, complete, unbiased and objective pictures of " the way it is." They also believe that while fictional, entertainmenttype shows are not literally true, they are realistic as representations or reflections of the way people behave and the way that events really occur. At the low end of the perceived reality dimension, people view television to be a highly stylized form of communication that presents fantastic, unrealistic settings that are very inconsistent with real life. These individuals believe that television is not representative of real life, but is instead provided to allow viewers to escape from their everyday lives and

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surroundings. There are many gradations between these two extremes. I hypothesize that the more representative television is perceived as being of real life, the more likely are cultivation effects. Thus, I contend that beliefs that television represents real life will be positively correlated with beliefs that the world is a mean, scary place.

The relationship between television and the cultivation of beliefs about social reality

Given these assumptions, Gerbner and his colleagues hypothesize that the more someone watches television, the more his/her view of social reality will reflect television's conception of the world as being a mean, scary and violent place. Thus, they contend that exposure to the violent images on television cultivates a general sense of danger and mistrust of the real world. This relationship is manifested either in a straightforward positive relationship between the amount of television viewed and acceptance of television's characterization of reality or by one of two subprocesses: mainstreaming or resonance.

Mainstreaming (Gerbner et al., 1980) refers to the diminishing influence of competing social forces among heavy television viewers in a particular subgroup. They state that the impact of the information sources providing differing definitions of social reality than television (such as newspaper reading) appears to be neutralized, if not overpowered, among members of that particular group who are also heavy television viewers. Thus, heavy viewers of all subgroups will tend to share a relatively homogeneous, mainstream outlook.

Resonance occurs when television images of reality converge with everyday reality. A "double dose" occurs and the cultivation effect is amplified. Thus, a heavy viewer who lives in a high crime area will show even greater cultivation effects than his/her counterpart in a low crime area.

Beliefs about social reality

Evidence has supported the relationship between television viewing and holding certain beliefs about the social world. Gerbner and Gross (1976) reported that people defined as "heavy viewers" (who on the average viewed television for 4 hours or more per day) expressed less trust in people, gave higher estimates of their own (and others) chances of being involved in violence, and express greater fear of victimization than "light viewers" (who on the average view television for two hours a day or less). The results on these belief dimensions all reflect the television view of the world and support the hypothesized straightforward positive relationship between amount of television viewing and social beliefs.

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Furthermore, Gerbner and Gross broke down the data into the following groups: Education (college-no college), News Reading (regular-not regular basis), Age (over 30-under 30) and gender. Within each category, heavy viewers gave more "television answers" in each of the above areas. These results can be interpreted as support for the principle of mainstreaming.

Gerbner et al. (1980) focused on the results by Doob and Mac Donald (1979), which showed cultivation effects for subjects that lived in high crime areas only, as supporting the principle of resonance. Furthermore, Gerbner et al. (1980) analyzed the relationship between television viewing and fear within urban, suburban and rural areas and found the greatest cultivation effects within major urban areas. They interpreted these results as evidence of resonance, because major urban areas are more crime infested than suburban and rural areas.

To summarize, Gerbner and colleagues conclude that television cultivates the following mean world beliefs:

1) Increased estimates of the likelihood of victimization of others - Heavy television viewers tend to overestimate the amount of crime and violence that occurs in our society. Thus, they are more likely than light viewers to overestimate the probability that people will be the victim of a crime or violence.

2) Increased estimates of the likelihood of personal

<u>victimization</u> - In addition, to overestimating the probability of the victimization of others, heavy television viewers are also more likely (than light viewers) to overestimate the chances that they themselves will be the victim of a crime or violence.

3) Fear of Victimization - Heavy television viewers tend to report a greater fear of being the victim of a crime than do light viewers. This fear may be related to the tendency of heavy viewers to overestimate their chances of being a victim.

Level of assessment

These estimates and fears can be categorized by level of assessment: local neighborhood, and non-neighborhood urban. Gerbner and his colleagues (e.g., Gerbner et al., 1978; Gerbner et al., 1980), however, contend that cultivation effects result when the respondent is asked about much they fear crime (or estimate risk of victimization to oneself or others) in either their local immediate neighborhood and/or in a non-local urban setting. In contrast, while Gerbner and colleagues contend that the results taken from the two levels of these "fear" (or "risk") measures should be equivalent, Heath and Petraitis (1987) argue that the cultivation effects should be greatest when respondents' fear of crime (or risk assessment) in a non-local, urban setting is measured. The reason is that for the "local" questions the respondent has real life experiences on which to base their answers, thus, the influence of television would be overshadowed by these experiences. In fact, in an earlier statement regarding the cultivation hypothesis Gerbner and Gross (1976) made precisely the same point: "independent contributions of television are likely to be most powerful in cultivating assumptions about which there is little to learn firsthand..." (p. 191). Therefore, for this study these measures will be measured for both local and non-local settings.

Target of assessment

In addition, Tyler and Cook (1984) point out that judgements of risk may vary depending on the target of the assessment (self versus other)². They state that judgements about crime for these two levels are separate.

Thus, for this study, mean world beliefs are categorized along the following two dimensions: setting of the risk or fear assessment (local neighborhood versus nonneighborhood urban) and target of the assessment (self versus others) as shown in Table 1.

² Tyler and Cook define these levels somewhat differently than target of assessment. They label the levels as personal versus societal levels. However, in examining their definitions of these levels they are found to be consistent with the self versus others distinction. They define personal level judgments as respondent's own estimated risk of being victimized. They define societal level judgments as beliefs about a larger social community and of others in that community (e.g., concern about neighborhood crime or estimated crime rates).

Table 1: The classification of mean world belief variables

Target of Assessment

		Self	Other
Level of Assessment	local	1.fear-local 2.personal victimization estimate-local	3.victimization of others estimate
	urban	4.fear-urban 5.personal victimization estimate-urban	6. victimization of others estimate-urban

<u>Cultivation Hypothesis</u>: Television viewing will be positively correlated with these mean world beliefs, especially at the non-local, urban setting level. The more television that the respondent watches, the more likely he/she will perceive the world as being a scary, violent place.

A problem with the original work by Gerbner and colleagues (e.g., Gerbner et al., 1978) is that there are several demographic variables that are confounded with television viewing. Women, the elderly, the less educated and lower income population all have a high prevalence of heavy television exposure (Comstock, Chaffee, Katzman, Mc Combs and Roberts, 1978). These confounds are especially problematic because each of these variables is a strong independent predictor of fear of crime (Heath and Petraitis, 1987). Thus, these variables will be taken into account at the data analysis stage.

The relationship between mean world beliefs and firearm attitudes

If television viewers believe that the world is a scary place and are afraid that they might be harmed, then they might want some form of protection (i.e., a gun). In fact, Gerbner et al. (1978) find indirect support for this contention. When they asked subjects if they have ever kept or would ever consider keeping a gun for the purpose of protection, heavy viewers responded affirmatively, significantly more often than light viewers. Thus, heavy viewers were more likely to have mean world beliefs and were more likely to endorse using a gun for protective purposes. This line of thought would then indicate that as mean world beliefs rise so would "pro-gun" attitudes.

In contrast to media effects researchers who use mean world beliefs as a dependent variable, firearm researchers have occasionally used mean world beliefs (usually fear of crime in a local, neighborhood setting) as a quasiindependent variable when addressing the issues of support for gun control (Smith, 1980; Stinchcombe, Adams, Heimer, Scheppele, Smith & Taylor, 1980) and firearm ownership (De Fronzo, 1979; Williams & Mc Grath, 1976; Wright & Marston, 1975). Wright & Marston (1975) hypothesized that a reason people in cities and suburbs may own guns is because they fear crime. Thus, firearms would be seen as protective devices. Note that this "fear hypothesis" is consistent with the conclusion of Gerbner et al. (1978) cited above.

In contrast to these predictions, Wright & Marston (1975) state that respondents who reported fear in their neighborhoods were <u>less</u> likely to own a gun than those reporting no fear. Furthermore, Smith (1980) demonstrated that those who fear neighborhood crime are more in favor of gun control and regulation than those who report no fear. Overall, and in contrast to Gerbner et al. (1978) findings, results from this area of research shows that fear of crime is positively related to "anti-gun" attitudes: as fear of neighborhood crime increases so do anti-gun feelings and beliefs.

However, a problem with the interpretation of some of the research (e.g., Smith, 1980; Wright & Marston, 1975) on fear of local crime and firearms is that many of the researchers look only at the zero-order relationship between the two variables. As previously mentioned, fear of crime is confounded with several other variables. Therefore, to assess if fear of crime does have an independent effect on firearm attitudes these variables must be into account.

In a previous study we (Weeks et al., 1990) examined this relationship between fear of local crime and firearm attitudes. The zero-order correlations between fear of neighborhood crime (in which respondents were asked how safe they felt, "walking alone at night in my neighborhood) and firearm attitudes were significant for most of the indices (see Table 2 in Appendix B). Overall, results show that as fear of local crime increases pro-gun attitudes decrease.

To deal with the problem of the previously mentioned confounds, we conducted a multiple regression analysis of the data to determine if fear of local crime had an independent relationship with the firearm attitude indices. Variables that were shown to have a strong zero-order relationship with the indices were entered as the first These variables were: gender, military/police block. experience of a family member, keeping a gun in the house while growing up, personal experience firing a gun, and neighborhood risk assessment. Results indicate, even after the variance due to these five variables entered in the first block had been partialled out, that fear of neighborhood crime still contributed significantly in predicting several of the firearm attitude indices (see Table 3 in Appendix B). These results indicate that fear of local crime is an independent predictor, above and beyond the variance accounted for by the previous five factors, of anti-gun firearm attitudes. Thus, as fear of local crime increases so do anti-gun firearm attitudes.

Thus, in contrast to the fear hypothesis, fear of local crime appears to be negatively associated with pro-gun attitudes. It is possible that those who fear crime a great deal believe that guns are more likely to harm them than protect them. As evidenced by the negative relationship between fear of local crime and the Protection index, those who have high levels of fear do not appear likely to endorse the use of guns for protective purposes³. It must also be remembered that this could be a two way relationship, perhaps once people obtain a gun their level of fear drops as a result of obtaining the gun.

Local Fear Hypothesis - In general, the more likely someone is to fear crime in his/her neighborhood, the more likely he/she is to have "anti-gun" attitudes. Operationally, what this means is that someone who scores high on the Personal Fear in Local Neighborhood Settings index will score ("anti-gun") low on the Gun Ban, Control/Regulation, NRA, Keep Gun Illegally and high on the Safety and Personal Defense indices.

Although there appears to be a negative relationship between fear of local crime and pro-firearm attitudes, these results alone are not enough to conclude that television is playing a role. As previously mentioned, in contrast to one of the Gerbner et al. (1978) original contentions that television will cultivate mean world beliefs at both societal and personal levels, more current research (e.g., Heath & Petraitis, 1987; Tyler & Cook, 1984) has shown that television's greatest impact in cultivating mean world

 $^{^3}$ In fact, guns are not good protectors, the number of accidents and/or guns stolen far outweigh the number of people who have successfully used a gun to protect themselves (Alviani, Drake & Karlim, 1984).

beliefs is often at a larger, urban, non-neighborhood level, rather than at a more personal, local, neighborhood level. Furthermore, Tyler & Cook (1984) contend that risk assessments made at larger, non-local versus at personal levels are often independent of each other. Thus, it is possible for the respondent to fear crime (or to overestimate risk of victimization) at one level and not at the other.

Unfortunately, very little research has been done which examines the relationship between the other mean world beliefs (especially those at the non-local, urban level) and attitudes toward firearms.

The belief that society, in addition to the respondent's neighborhood, is a mean scary place could affect firearm attitudes in one of two ways: 1) The respondent would become more pro-gun, because guns could be seen as a way for people (not just the respondent) to protect themselves, or 2) The respondent could become more anti-gun because ridding the world of guns or at least regulating them could be seen as a way of making the world a less scary place.

Because each of the above rival hypotheses is plausible, it is my contention that both of the proposed relationships may exist under certain circumstances. It is my belief that respondent's views of guns as protective instruments⁴ (i.e., are guns good for protection?), will interact with mean world beliefs in influencing firearm attitudes.

On average, I hypothesize that non-neighborhood, urban level mean world beliefs will have the greatest impact on the socio-cultural dimensions of the firearm attitude and that personal level beliefs will have the greatest impact on personal level firearm attitude indices⁵. Also note no reference is made in the hypotheses below to which "level" of risk assessment (i.e., neighborhood versus nonneighborhood) the respondent is being asked about. It is assumed that the results will be equivalent for the two levels, however, because Tyler & Cook (1984) demonstrated that they might be independent, both levels will be measured.

<u>Risk to Others Hypothesis</u> - The relationship between gun attitudes and risk assessment of others will depend on the respondent's opinion of guns as protective devices. For

⁴The respondent's view of guns as protective devices will be measured with an index labelled "Protector," in which a high score would indicate that the respondent believes that guns are a good form of protection. This could also be viewed as general gun efficacy (e.g., how effective are guns in preventing crime?).

⁵Although it is hypothesized that the greatest correlations will be when variables from the same "level" (i.e., personal mean world beliefs and personal components of firearm attitudes) are looked at, it is also believed that there will be correlations between levels (i.e., personal mean world beliefs and socio-cultural components of firearm attitudes), because the levels are not completely orthogonal.

example, if the respondent overestimates the likelihood of victimization to others <u>and</u> feels that guns are good protective devices, then they might feel that people will need a way to protect themselves. Thus, because they view gun as good protective devices, they will respond in a progun manner. Operationally, people who score high on the Likelihood of Victimization of Others index and high on the Protector index will score high (pro-gun) on the Gun Ban, Control/Regulation and NRA. The reverse might be expected on the Safety index, where a high score would represent an "anti-gun" attitude.

Conversely, the respondent who overestimates the probability of victimization of others <u>and</u> feels that guns are <u>not</u> good protective devices might respond in an anti-gun manner. These respondents may view guns not as protective devices, but instead as instruments of destruction. Thus, a way to make the world safer would be to eliminate, or at least regulate guns. Operationally, it is hypothesized that those respondents who score high on the Likelihood of Victimization of Others index and low on the Protector index will score high (anti-gun) on the Safety index, in which they feel that society would be a safer place without guns, and low on the Gun Ban, Control/Regulation and NRA indices. Further, it is hypothesized that high television viewing will be positively correlated with overestimation of crime .

I would hypothesize that there would be no

relationship between any of the mean world beliefs and the American Heritage component. Also it is uncertain what relationship, if any, there will be between any of the mean world beliefs and the Responsibility index.

Personal Risk Hypothesis - The effect of overestimating the likelihood of personal victimization will depend on the respondent's views of guns as protective devices. If the respondent overestimates the probability of personal victimization (in either local or non-neighborhood settings) and believes that guns are good protective devices, then they would likely respond in a pro-qun fashion (because the guns could be used to protect themselves). Operationally, those who score high on the Likelihood of Personal Victimization (either neighborhood or nonneighborhood settings) and score high on the Protector index will score high on the Gun Ban, Control/Regulation and NRA indices and low on the Safety index. Our preliminary study (Weeks et al., 1990) provides limited support for the hypothesis. Perceived risk was positively correlated with opposition to a gun ban (r=.1803, p=.045).

In addition, because subjects are asked to assess their own personal risk, I believe that this overestimation of victimization will also affect the personal level firearm indices as well. More specifically, I feel that subjects who score high on the Likelihood of Personal Victimization and Protector indices will score high (pro-gun) on the protection, Keep Gun Illegally and low on the Personal Defense indices. Once again our previous study provides limited support for this contention. The perceived risk of local crime was positively correlated with the beliefs that guns should be used for protective purposes (r=.1945, p=.036). Also perceived risk was positively correlated with the Keep Gun Illegally index (r=.2230, p=.017). This suggests that as people's estimation to their chances of victimization increases, these people become opposed to a gun ban and are more willing to keep a gun illegally if guns were banned, because they feel that a gun would help protect them.

In contrast, for subjects who score high on the Likelihood of Personal Victimization and low on Protector it is hypothesized will score low (anti-gun) on the Gun Ban, Control/Regulation, NRA, Protection and Keep Gun Illegally indices and high on Safety and Personal Defense indices.

Risk and Fear Hypothesis: Those who overestimate the likelihood that they will be a victim crime and fear victimization a great deal will have the most extreme firearm attitudes. Whether these attitudes are pro-gun or anti-gun will, again, depend on the subject's belief about using guns as protective devices. The reason that this interaction is included, is because it is possible that someone might fear crime a great deal, but feel that it is so unlikely that it is of no real concern. The opposite is also possible (although it is unlikely), someone could overestimate their chances of victimization, yet not fear it a great deal, and thus, not worry about it a great deal.

The direct relationship between television and firearm attitudes

Although it is my contention that television affects firearm attitudes primarily by the way it shapes our conceptions that the world is a mean and scary place, the direct relationship between television and firearm attitudes must also be explored. Although the television-> mean world beliefs-> firearm attitudes seems more plausible, a direct relationship between television and certain facets of the firearm dimension is also possible.

In fact, some possible evidence of a direct relationship is found in some of the results of Doob and Mac Donald (1979). When they asked subjects if they thought that it would be useful to keep firearms in their homes for protective purposes, they found a significant correlation (r=.31) between total television viewing and a "pro-gun" response. The more someone watched television, the more likely they were to agree that guns are useful for protective purposes. This suggests a direct relationship between television and firearm attitudes, because in that same study Doob and Mac Donald found no relationship between television and mean world beliefs. Thus, it appears that television may also have a direct relationship with the Protection component.

In addition, it was earlier hypothesized that mean world beliefs would not be related to the American Heritage component. It's possible that if someone watches a great deal of "patriotic" television (e.g., war movies or westerns), that it may lead them to score high on the American Heritage component.

Unfortunately, I know of no studies that address the direct relationship between television and attitudes toward firearms. Thus, trying to imagine the nature of television's influence on firearm attitudes, with the exception of the American Heritage component, without involving mean world beliefs as an intervening variable is difficult.

METHOD

Subjects

Respondents were undergraduates from Lovola University. The data collection method was mass administration to a captive audience. Of course, the ideal would have been for a random sample to have been drawn from the general population. Backstrom and Hursh-Cesar (1981) point out that only if a random sample is drawn can you generalize to the population of interest (the American public). Unfortunately, your sampling plan is limited by your resources (Sudman, 1976). If you do not have the resources (e.g., staff and money), then no matter how good your sampling plan is , it would be impossible to implement. Because the budget for this proposed study was virtually nonexistent, I believe that the use of this convenience However, the generalizability of sample was appropriate. this study is limited. Thus, for now, the population of interest is the undergraduate population of Loyola University.

Subjects voluntarily signed up for the study, as part of a fulfillment of a course requirement. A power analysis (Cohen, 1977) with alpha set at .05, r=.2 and power of .85

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indicated that 178 subjects were needed⁶. Unfortunately, due to a small subject pool, only 123 students participated. Of those who participated, only 100 (approximately) provided usable data (this number varied depending on the analysis).

<u>Materials</u>

All measures taken in this study were paper-and-pencil measures. Although validity would have been enhanced by taking multiple measures in multiple ways, this was unfeasible due to time, budget and staff limitations.

Demographics and Personal Experience

Demographics (e.g., gender, personal experience with firearms) that have been shown to be related to firearm attitudes (Weeks et al., 1990) were measured. Personal experience variables (e.g., prior victimization to crime) that were thought to affect mean world beliefs were also measured. See Appendix C for a complete listing of these background variables. Although these questions are addressed first here, in the actual questionnaire they were asked at the end, so that a feeling of anonymity was provided while the questionnaire was being filled out (Sudman and Bradburn, 1982).

⁶The reason the correlation was estimated to be .2, was because of the work by Hawkins and Pingree (1982). They reviewed 48 studies on television's influence on the perceptions of social reality. the average correlation that they reported was between .2 and .3.

Exposure to television

Television viewing was be assessed by using a "Television Grid" (see Appendix C for an example) that is similar to the ones that are presented in television guides. Respondents were asked to circle all the shows/movies they watched for that night. A listing for daytime television was also used. Subjects completed a grid for each day of the It was assumed that viewing behavior for the past week. week was representative of typical viewing behavior. The categories of television were: Total Television Viewing. Crime Drama Viewing (all fictional shows and movies labelled as "crime drama" by the entertainment industry) and News Viewing (local and national news; news oriented shows e.g., 60 Minutes, 20/20; docudramas e.g., Unsolved Mysteries, America's Most Wanted) and Patriotic (cowboy-western shows such as Bonanza, Gunsmoke, Young Riders and movies; and war movies such as Patton or "John Wayne-type" movies) . Exposure to these categories was assessed simply by summing the number of times (in terms of hours) the respondent circled that they had watched a program from one of the categories. The crime drama and news were assessed separately to see if fiction and truth-oriented shows affected viewers differently. Measures of viewing patriotic viewing were included is to see if television had a direct relationship with the American Heritage component. In addition to television viewing the subjects were also asked

to list what video cassettes they had rented in the past week. These were categorized the same manner as listed above and were added to the respondent's television viewing time.

Perceived reality of television

How realistic the respondent viewed television as being was assessed by using the Magic Window index (Potter, 1986). Potter's version looks at the perceived reality of television in general and does not specifically deal with crime drama or news-oriented programs. It was altered here to include items that deal with crime dramas and newsoriented programs (see Appendix C).

Mean world beliefs

Beliefs that the world is a scary place were assessed by using items (see Appendix C) that asked the subjects to indicate their estimation of the probability of others and themselves being a victim of crime and the personal fear that they have of being victimized (all three variables were be measured at local, neighborhood and non-neighborhood, social levels). Items were recoded, when needed, so that all items went in the same "direction." A numerical value was assigned to each response so that a high score indicated a strong mean world belief. These values were then summed to form an index for each of the above categories. These were established measures that have been used by past researchers (e.g. Gerbner et al., 1980, Hawkins & Pingree, 1981; Heath & Petraitis, 1987).

Firearm attitudes

Gun attitudes were measured using a questionnaire (see pages Appendix C⁷) developed by Weeks et al. (1990). These items were on a 4-point Likert-type "scale." Individual items were first analyzed to make sure that they can differentiate between respondents. Any items that did not show at least an 80%-20% split (e.g., a 90%-10%) between Strongly Disagree/Disagree and Strongly Agree/Agree were discarded. Items were then grouped according to the previously mentioned categories (i.e., American Heritage, etc.). All items were transformed, when needed, so that they all went in the same direction. Thus, a high score indicated a high level of agreement with the index (as defined on pages 3-4). For each item, "Strongly Agree" (with the definition of the index) was scored a "4,"

⁷The letters on the side of the question indicated how that item was categorized: AH=American Heritage, S=Safety, G=Gun Ban, C=Control/Regulation, N=NRA, R=Responsibility, PN=Protection, K=Keep Gun Illegally, PD=Personal Defense and Pr=Protector. Items that were reversed are indicated by a "r" after their category indicator. items that do not have a categorization symbol (i.e., they were not put into one of the above categories) either were not shown to have at least an 80%-20% split (and were discarded from the analysis) or were originally put into an index that did not demonstrate sufficient internal consistency or they were dropped from one of the above indices to enhance its internal consistency.

"Agree" was scored a "3" etc. Next, a Cronbach's alphas were conducted to make sure that the indices were internally consistent. For the index to have been internally consistent the alpha must have exceeded .6. The ideal data analysis technique would have been a factor analysis, unfortunately, a factor analysis would have required many more subjects than were available.

The data analysis technique

Path analysis was used to analyze the data. The model for the path analysis was based on the already discussed conceptual model (see Figure 1). In addition, to the links proposed in the conceptual model, the path analysis also took into account the demographic and personal experience variables (these variables were "dummy" coded, when needed, so that they could be used in multiple regression) that affected each of the components (see Figure 2 in Appendix A).

Because each main variable in the model is multifaceted, separate analyses were conducted so that each combination of components could be assessed. Separate analyses were done using each firearm attitude index separately as a "dependent" variable. The strongest causal path was hypothesized to be television-> mean world beliefs-> firearm attitudes (with the exception of the American Heritage component). Thus, it is proposed that firearm attitudes= B (television)+B (mean world beliefs, including the interactions between mean world beliefs)+ B (demographics)+B (personal experience). For the American Heritage component, the equation is the same, except it is hypothesized that mean world beliefs are not a part of the equation.

RESULTS

Internal consistencies

Items for the firearm attitude questionnaire were combined to form the previously mentioned indices. As we can see in Table 4 in Appendix B with the exception of Keep Gun Illegally and Personal Defense the firearm attitude indices for this project are less stable than in the earlier Weeks et al. study. However, on average, the firearm attitude indices show acceptable internal consistency.

Items on the mean world questionnaire were originally combined to form the indices in Table 1. The breakdown of these indices was based on two dimensions: setting (local, neighborhood versus non-local, urban) and target (self versus other). In addition, fear and risk were kept separate.

An examination of the correlations between these original mean world indices (see Table 5 in Appendix B) suggests that some of them may be measuring the same construct. An exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation⁸ was conducted (using the indices, not the

 $^{^{8}}$ A factor analysis with oblique transformation was also conducted, the results are nearly identical to the orthogonal rotation. Also, the 2 factors were independent (r=.06).

individual items) which revealed two distinct factors: 1) local, neighborhood, and 2) non-local, urban. These results suggest that the subjects did not differentiate between fear and risk. In contrast to the contentions of Tyler & Cook (1984), it appears as if subjects do not differentiate between themselves and others when making a risk assessment.

Therefore, we will use these two composite mean world factors (see Table 6 in Appendix B) instead of the original indices in the analyses although this prevents us from being able to examine properly certain hypotheses. Furthermore, these two indices show good internal consistency: local alpha=.88, urban alpha=.82.

In addition, it was also hypothesized that people would vary as to how representative they thought television was of real life. This was assessed via the Magic Window questionnaire. Unfortunately, only 4 of the 13 items demonstrated an 80/20 split. The vast majority of the respondents disagreed that television provided a representative view of the "real world." Furthermore, when these 4 remaining items were combined to form an index, the index was unstable (alpha=.31). Therefore, because this variable fails to differentiate peoples' views on the representativeness of television and fails to demonstrate internal consistency (on the few items that show an 80/20 split), it will be dropped from the remainder of the analyses that follow.

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analyses that follow.

The relationship between television and mean world beliefs

The Cultivation Hypothesis - It was hypothesized that television (especially Crime-Dramas and News) would cultivate mean world beliefs. The more television the respondent viewed the more likely he/she would believe that the world is a mean, scary place.

Contrary to my prediction that viewing crime-dramas (local r=.06, n.s.; urban r=.10, n.s.) and news-oriented programs (local r=.-06, n.s.; urban r=.05, n.s.) would have the greatest impact, total television viewing was the best predictor of mean world beliefs. This is probably due, in part, to the fact that the respondents did not watch many crime-dramas (mean=1.6 hours per week) or very much news (mean=1.1 hours per week)⁹.

An examination of the bivariate relationships between total television viewing and mean world beliefs indicates that television viewing is positively related to mean world beliefs at the urban level (r=.22, p.<.01). Conversely, television viewing was negatively related to the belief that one's neighborhood is a mean scary place (r=-16, p<.05).

⁹Additionally, some researchers (e.g., Williams, Zabrack & Joy, 1982) contend that all television is aggressive and violent, not just crime-dramas and news. If this contention is correct, then the fact that total television viewing has the strongest relationship with mean world beliefs is not surprising.

These relationships were analyzed at the multivariate level by adding gender and past victimization as predictor variables (these variables were chosen because they had the strongest bivariate relationships with mean world beliefs). As we can see in Figure 3a (in Appendix A) and the path analyses figures that follow, when simultaneous controls are introduced the relationship between local-level mean world beliefs and television viewing disappears (path coefficient=-.16, n.s.). This is not very surprising, because respondents are probably using experiences in their everyday lives rather than television when making these assessments. In fact, none of the variables do a very good job predicting local-level mean world beliefs, the three variables (as a whole) account for only 4% of the variability in the neighborhood mean world index.

In contrast, as we can see in Figure 3b (in Appendix A) and the path analyses figures that follow, the relationship between television and urban-level mean world beliefs remains statistically significant (path coefficient=.20, p.<.05 Thus, even when other these other variables are taken into account, television viewing still predicts beliefs that the (urban, non-local) world is a mean scary place. Relative to the neighborhood level mean world beliefs, these three variables do a better job in predicting mean world beliefs at the urban, non-neighborhood level. All three variables are statistically significant in

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predicting urban level mean world beliefs. Women and victims of property crime (especially) are more likely to believe that the (non-neighborhood) world is a mean, scary place than men and non-victims. Also, it is more likely that the respondents are using television in making these mean world assessments, because they probably have little direct personal experience with the settings mentioned in these items.

Thus, the cultivation hypothesis is partially supported. It is supported at the non-local urban level, but not at the local, neighborhood level. These results are not that surprising in that they replicate earlier work by Heath & Petraitis (1987).

The relationship between mean world beliefs and firearm attitudes

Local Fear Hypothesis - Based on previous results by Weeks et al., it was hypothesized that the more the respondent personally feared crime in his/her neighborhood, the more anti-gun he/she would be. Unfortunately due to the structure of the data, we cannot properly examine this hypothesis. As the factor analysis indicated respondents did not isolate personal, local fear in and of itself, subjects did not differentiate between fear and risk or between self and others at the local, neighborhood level. Therefore, all we can examine is the relationship between the composite neighborhood mean world index and firearm attitudes.

As we can see in Table 7 (in Appendix B) and the path analytic figures, much to my surprise, neighborhood mean world beliefs had no significant relationships with firearm attitudes at neither the bivariate, or the multivariate, path analytic levels¹⁰. This was very surprising in light of the fact that we had demonstrated this relationship before in the Weeks et al. study.

In examining the path analytic diagrams we can see that neighborhood mean world beliefs do not have a significant relationship with any of the firearm attitude indices. The magnitude of the relationships is greater at the personal-level of the firearm attitude indices, but they are still not statistically significant.

<u>Risk to others, Personal risk, and Fear and Risk</u> <u>hypotheses</u> - In each of these hypotheses an interaction was predicted. It was hypothesized that risk assessment would interact with the respondent's views of guns as protective devices. If the respondent felt that others were at risk and thought that guns were a good form of protection then he/she would respond with pro-gun attitudes (especially on

¹⁰Note that even when we decompose the composite local index and examine the relationship between the original local fear index the results are the same as when we use the composite index. This is not surprising, because the factor analysis indicates that these indices are all measuring the same common factor: mean world beliefs at the local, neighborhood level.

the socio-cultural level indices). Conversely, if the respondent felt that others were at risk and felt that guns were not a good form of protection then he/she would respond in an anti-gun manner (primarily on the socio-cultural level indices). The predictions for the personal risk and risk to others hypotheses were identical, except personal-level predictions were more far reaching. It was believed that the personal-level interaction would influence subjects responses at both socio-cultural and personal levels of the firearm attitude indices.

In addition, it was hypothesized that those individuals who overestimated risk of victimization and feared it a great deal would have the most extreme firearm attitudes. The direction of these attitudes would depend on how effective they thought guns were as a form of protection.

Unfortunately, we can not test these hypotheses for the following reasons:

1) The structure of the data is not conducive to testing these hypotheses. As previously stated, subjects in this study did not differentiate between themselves and others when they made risk assessments. In addition, respondents in the study failed to discriminate between fear and risk. Therefore, because these originally separate indices are all measuring the same common factor (mean world beliefs at one of two different level), to have separate hypotheses for each of these is redundant and makes little sense.

2) A conceptual error was probably made in how I conceived personal gun efficacy (the view of whether or not guns are a good form of protection). I envisioned this concept as a predictor variable, a variable which influenced firearm attitudes. However, an examination of the correlations between the Protector index and the Firearm attitude indices (see Table 7 in Appendix B), suggests that in reality this is probably not a predictor variable of firearm attitudes, but is itself a firearm attitude. More recent research (Branscombe, Weir & Crosby, in press) has made this contention that gun efficacy is not a predictor of firearm attitudes, but is itself actually a component of firearm attitudes.

Urban-level analyses - If we examine the urban-level path analyses (see Figures 5a-5i in Appendix A) we can see that, unfortunately, there is no relationship between urbanlevel mean world beliefs and firearm attitudes at either the bivariate (see Table 7) or multivariate, path analytic levels. The fact that none of the relationships between the urban-level mean world beliefs and firearm attitudes is not as surprising as the lack of relationship between locallevel beliefs. In contrast to local level beliefs (which we piloted) little previous research has been conducted on the possible relationship between urban-level beliefs and

Direct relationships with firearm attitude indices

It was hypothesized earlier that the only firearm attitude index that television might have a direct relationship with was American Heritage. It was speculated that the more patriotic television someone watched the more likely they would be to believe that guns were a vital part of our American heritage. An examination of the final column in Table 7 (in Appendix B) shows us that the data do not support this hypothesized relationship. However, we were unable to examine this relationship properly due to the lack of viewing of patriotic television (mean=0.4 hours per week); in fact, approximately 85% of the respondents reported that they watched no patriotic television during the past week.

The only direct relationship that was found between television and firearm attitudes was the relationship found between television viewing and the Responsibility index (see earlier path analytic figures). When we decompose the original correlation coefficient (.270) we can see that, at both the local and urban levels, the vast majority of the correlation (.233) is due to the direct relationship between television and the responsibility index (see Table 8 in Appendix B). The more television that was viewed the more the respondent felt that individual gun owners have a responsibility to ensure that others are not harmed by their gun. However, the presence of this positive relationship must be interpreted with caution. It is possible that this relationship is due to chance alone, due to the fact that so many possible relationships were explored.

Another direct relationship between a variable in the model and firearm attitudes was found for gender. Overall, men were more pro-gun than women. More specifically, at the multivariate level (see earlier path analytic figures), men agreed more that guns are a vital part of our American heritage, agreed more with NRA philosophy, were more likely to indicate that they would keep a gun even if it was illegal and indicated that they would be more willing to shoot someone in self-defense than women. Also men were marginally more opposed to a gun ban and to gun control/regulation. These results are not that surprising in that they replicate the earlier results of Weeks et al.

In addition, there were other variables that were related directly to firearm attitudes at the univariate level, however, they will not be discussed here in detail and were not included in the model because they were not related to mean world beliefs. Briefly, these variables include: having a family gun in the house while growing up, having a family member in the police or military, and having personally fired a gun. All of these variables were positively related to pro-gun attitudes on the firearm

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attitudes indices. Once again, these results are not that surprising in that they replicate the earlier findings of Weeks et al.

DISCUSSION

The results of our study are somewhat surprising and in some ways ironic. The cultivation hypothesis is a very controversial issue. There are several authors (e.g., Doob & Mac Donald, 1979; Wober & Gunter, 1982) who contend that once you take into account other variables (e.g., gender, age and prior victimization) that there is no relationship between television and mean world beliefs. It was this path in the model which was of most concern. Examining this concern was complicated by the fact that we used college freshmen who are at a point in their lives when they watch very little television and tend to fear crime very little relative to the rest of the population. Yet in spite of these limitations we found a significant relationship between total television viewing and mean world beliefs at the urban non-neighborhood level even after we accounted for gender and prior victimization. These results also suggest that cultivation occurred in a relatively straightforward positive manner rather than through mainstreaming (because the population was so homogeneous) or resonance (because most of the respondents were from relatively low-crime suburbs or lived on campus).

The fact that we did not find a cultivation effect at

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the local level is not that surprising¹¹. At the local level people are probably using everyday experiences to make their mean world estimations. These first-hand are more influential in forming opinions and beliefs than the secondhand experiences of television (Fazio & Zanna, 1978). These results replicate earlier research by Heath & Petraitis (1987), which showed cultivation effects at only the urban, non-neighborhood level. Even Gerbner, the cultivation hypothesis' most ardent supporter would probably not be that surprised by these results as evidenced by his earlier quote (page 12).

The fact that subjects did not differentiate between themselves and others or between risk and fear is not all that surprising. Other researchers (e.g., Heath & Petraitis, 1987) have also shown that fear and risk tend to load on a common factor. In addition Heath & Petraitis showed that mean world beliefs about others and about oneself will also tend to load on a common factor. Unfortunately, these lacks of distinction made by the respondents hampered our efforts to examine certain hypotheses.

What is more disturbing and more surprising is the

¹¹The fact that television is related to local level mean world beliefs in a negative manner is somewhat surprising. Perhaps respondents are comparing their neighborhood with the world of television. Given the fact that the world of television is more crime-infested than even the most violent neighborhoods, in relative terms their neighborhood is probably safe.

non-significant relationships between mean world beliefs and firearm attitudes. What made these results so surprising is the fact that we demonstrated a strong relationship in the earlier study (Weeks et al. 1991) between fear of local crime and firearm attitudes. What made the results so disturbing is that this proposed relationship is the linchpin to the theoretical model of the role of television in influencing firearm attitudes. Because these mean world beliefs were thought to be the intervening variable between television and firearm attitudes, without this relationship the model falls apart.

Why did we fail to find a relationship between mean world beliefs and firearm attitudes? The first and most obvious explanation is that the relationship simply does not exist. Additionally, the fact that we used a homogeneous population could have been a problem. College freshmen tend to be younger than the general population and younger adults tend to fear crime less than older adults. However, in spite of the limitations of using college freshmen, I would argue against this explanation, especially in light of our earlier findings.

Also, the majority of the respondents came from the greater Chicagoland area. Perhaps people from a different geographic locations would have different experiences with and attitudes toward firearms. It's possible that the proposed relationships may exist, but not for this relatively homogeneous population. Perhaps dealing with a broader more diverse section of the population would enhance our findings.

If we are to believe that this relationship exists in spite of the negative findings we must give some justification for this belief. Perhaps there was a problem in measurement. However, this would seem unlikely, because we used the same instruments that we used in the earlier Weeks et al study. Although there were more items than in the earlier studies, all subjects were able to finish the questionnaire in the allotted time period.

Perhaps some event occurred which temporarily changed respondents' mean world beliefs and/or firearm attitudes. As it happens, the Persian Gulf War began almost immediately after data collection began. Respondents were able to turn on their television at almost any time of the day and see real life firearms in action. It is possible that this vision of Allied firepower changed (at least temporarily) peoples' perceptions of firearms. They saw visions of guns being used to defend freedom and democracy, instead of being used to commit crimes. They heard people as influential as the President consistently telling them how the use of this firepower was justified. Thus, it is as if their schema of guns (at least temporarily) changed. Perhaps they no longer saw guns as a instrument used to commit crimes, but instead as means to liberate our Kuwaiti allies. On a more positive note we were able to replicate some of the earlier findings of Weeks et al. (1990) and we did find a direct relationship between television viewing and one component of firearm attitudes. The more television the respondent viewed the more he/she felt that individuals have a personal responsibility to make sure that others are not harmed by their guns.

Unfortunately, the negatives outweighed the positives in this study. Whether or not respondents' firearm attitudes changed (at least temporarily) as a result of the Gulf War or other events is debatable and difficult to test empirically.

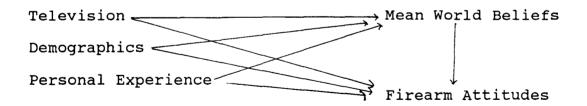
It is obvious from our results that other variables must be addressed when attempting to understand firearm attitudes. Other variables that might be included in future research could be concern of crime (e.g., how great of problem is crime) and geographic location (e.g., rural versus urban). Unfortunately, whether or not and through what mechanisms television plays a role in the formation of firearm attitudes is still the subject of future research.

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APPENDIX A

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Figure 2: A graphic representation of the data analysis technique

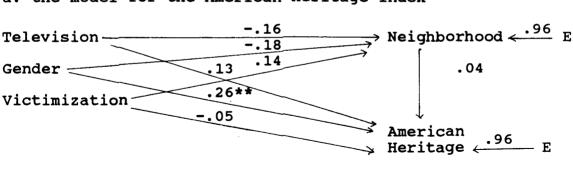


Figures 3a & 3b: The cultivation hypothesis

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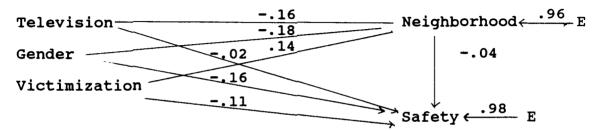
a: Neighborhood-level	
Television	$\begin{array}{c}16 \\ \hline18 \end{array} \rightarrow \text{Neighborhood}$
Gender	.14
Victimization	
b: Urban level	
Television	24** Urban
Gender	.32**
Victimization	

Figures 4a-4i: The neighborhood-level path analytic diagrams

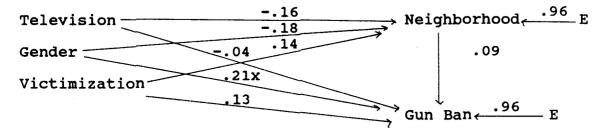


a: the model for the American Heritage index

b: the model for the Safety index

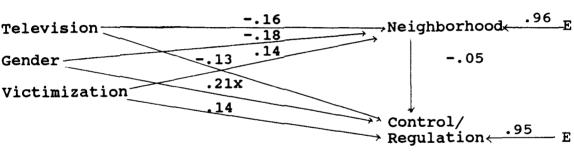


c: the model for the Gun Ban index



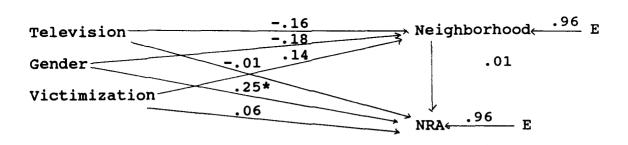
x=p<.10

*=p<.05

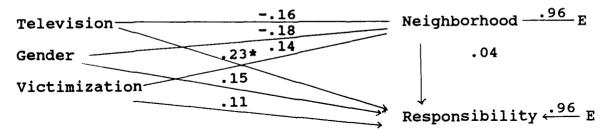


d: the model for the Control/regulation index

e: the model for the NRA index



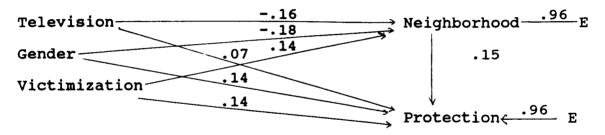
f: the model for the Responsibility index



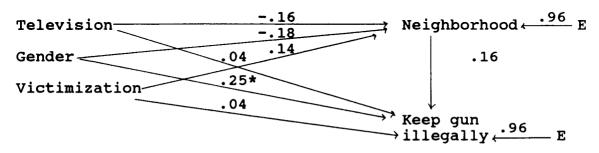
x=p<.10

*=p<.05

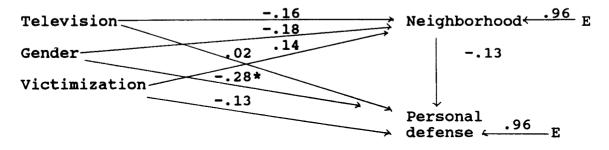
g: the model for the Protection index



h: the model for the Keep gun illegally index



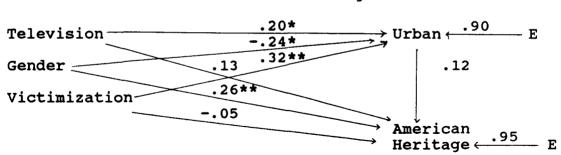
i: the model for the Personal defense index



x=p<.10

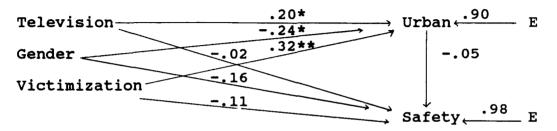
*=p<.05

Figures 5a-5i: The urban-level path analytic diagrams

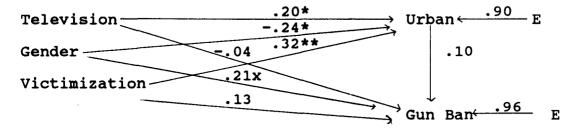


a: the model for the American Heritage index

b: the model for the Safety index



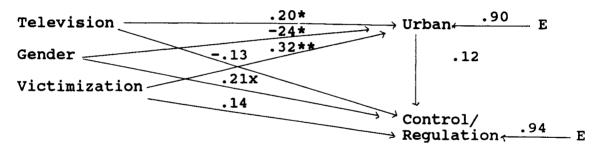
c: the model for the Gun Ban index



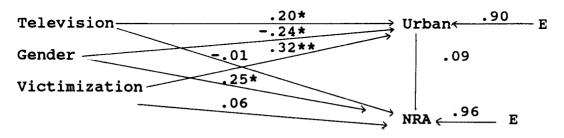
x=p<.10

*=p<.05

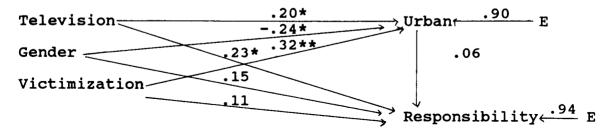
d: the model for the Control/regulation index



e: the model for the NRA index



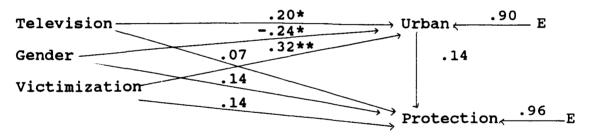
f: the model for the Responsibility index



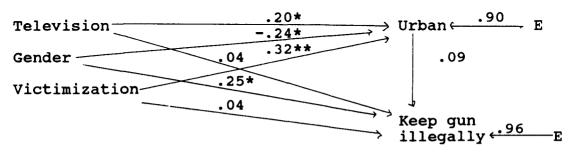
x=p<.10

*=p<.05

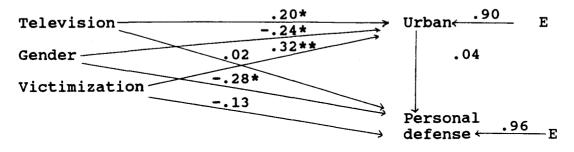
g: the model for the Protection index







i: the model for the Personal defense index



x=p<.10

*=p<.05

APPENDIX B

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Table 2: Zero-order correlations between fear of local crime and the firearm indices

Firearm Attitude Indices:	
<u></u>	Fear
American Heritage	2817**
Safety	.2706**
Gun Ban	- .1953*
Control/Regulation	3441***
NRA	4040***
Responsibility	•2737**
Protection	2052*
Keep Gun Illegally	1794*
Personal Defense	.2014*

* p<.05 ** p<.01 ***p<.001

Table 3: A multiple regression analysis, using local fear to predict firearm attitudes

Firearm Attitude Indices:

	R	R ²	R ² change
American Heritage	.52619	.27619	.01378
Safety	.54456	.29655	.06360*
Gun Ban	.53881	.28956	.05406*
Control/Regulation	.57085	.32586	.08813**
NRA	.56625	.32064	.07880**
Responsibility	.35926	.12097	.03956
Protection	.58478	.34197	.04540*
Keep Gun Illegally	.46677	.21787	.07794**
Personal Defense	.57696	.33289	.04750*

R - Multiple R of regressing the first block of 5 variables on the predictor variable (the firearm attitude index)

 R^2 - The proportion of variance accounted for by the first block of variables.

 R^2 change - The additional proportion of variance accounted for by local fear, after the variance due to the first block of variables has been partialled out.

* p<.05 ** p<.01

Table 4: Measures of internal consistency for the firearm attitude indices

Index	alpha	N
American Heritage	.68	5
Safety	.82	5
Gun Ban	.80	7
Control/Regulation	.75	9
NRA	.73	12
Responsibility	.65	4
Protection	.69	5
Keep Gun Illegally	.88	2
Personal Defense	.82	3
Protector	.91	13

alpha=Cronbach's alpha

N=number of items in the index

Mean=the average value of how much the subjects agreed with the index definition, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree).

	SNFEAR	SNRISK	SUFEAR	SURISK	ONRISK	OURISK
SNFEAR	1.00					
SNRISK	.59**	1.00				
SUFEAR	.06	05	1.00			
SURISK	.04	.20*	.42**	1.00		
ONRISK	.52**	.97**	06	.28**	1.00	
OURISK	03	.02	.47**	.73**	.18*	1.00

Table 5: The correlation matrix of the mean world indices

SNFEAR= Self, neighborhood-level fear index

SNRISK= Self, neighborhood-level risk assessment index

SUFEAR= Self, urban-level fear index

SURISK= Self, urban-level risk assessment index

ONRISK= Others, neighborhood-level risk assessment index

OURISK= Others, urban-level risk assessment index

* p<.05 ** p<.01

Rotated Factor Matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2
SNFEAR	.61	.02
SNRISK	.97	01
SUFEAR	06	.51
SURISK	.15	.82
ONRISK	.81	.14
OURISK	.02	.91
Eiginvalue	2.40	1.66
Percent of variance accounted for	35.20	27.60
SNFEAR= Self,	neighborhood-1	evel fear index
SNRISK= Self,	neighborhood-1	evel risk assessment index
SUFEAR= Self,	urban-level fe	ear index
SURISK= Self,	urban-level ri	isk assessment index
ONRISK= Others	, neighborhood	l-level risk assessment index
OURISK= Others	, urban-level	risk assessment index

•

	Local	Urban	Protector	Patriotic Television
American Heritage	.05	.03	• 52**	.03
Safety	01	01	54**	01
Gun Ban	.13	.01	.71**	.02
Control/Regulation	05	02	.47**	04
NRA	.03	.01	.63**	.02
Responsibility	.02	.10	32**	04
Protection	.15	.06	.61**	.02
Keep Gun Illegally	.07	01	.57**	.02
Personal Defense	06	.10	53**	05

* p<.05 ** p<.01

Table 8: The direct relationship between television and the responsibility index

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	Local level	<u>Urban level</u>
Original correlation	.270	.270
Causal-direct	.233	.233
Causal-indirect	.006	.012
Total causal	.239	.245
Non-causal	.031	.025

APPENDIX C

Demographics

1.Sex Male Female

2.Age _____

3.Ethnicity

Caucasian/Non-Hispanic

____Hispanic

African-American

____Asian-American

____Other (specify)

4. Mother's Education

____Did not Finish High School

____High School Graduate

____Vocational Training

____Some college or A.A. Degree

____College Degree (B.A. or B.S.)

Advanced Degree (e.g., M.A., M.S., M.D., J.D., Ph.D.)

5.Father's Education

____Did not Finish High School

____High School Graduate

____Vocational Training

____Some college or A.A. Degree

College Degree (B.A. or B.S.)

____Advanced Degree (e.g., M.A., M.S., M.D., J.D., Ph.D.)

6.Neighborhood where you lived between the ages of 8 and 12.

69

List nearest major cross-streets if you grew up in Chicago.

List name of suburb or town if you grew up outside of Chicago.

7.Neighborhood where you currently live. List major crossstreets.

(If you live on campus use that as current address).

8.What political party do you belong to.

1. Have you or anyone close to you ever been the victim of a property crime (that is, theft or burglary)? Yes No (If no, skip to #2)

Did this happen to you or to someone else?

Me Other Both

How long ago did this event (these events) happen?

2. Have you or anyone close to you ever been the victim of a violent crime (that is, rape, robbery, murder, or sexual assault)?

Yes No (If no, skip to #3)

Did this happen to you or someone else?

Me Other Both

How long ago did this event (these events) happen?

Did this event (these events) involve weapons? Yes No

If yes, specify weapon(s)

3. Have you or anyone close to you been in military service or employed as a police officer? Yes No (If no, skip to #4)

Was this you or someone else? Me Someone else Both 4. Have you ever carried a gun for protection? Yes No 5. Have you ever kept a gun in the house for protection?

Yes No

6.Did your family keep a gun in the house while you were growing up? Yes No Don't Know

7. How many people who are close to you (family, friends) belong to the NRA - National Rifle Association?

^{8.} How many people who are close to you (family, friends) support gun control legislation?

9.Have you ever shot a gun? Yes No (If no skip to #10)

Just once or twice _____Seldom Regularly Frequently

What types of guns have you shot? (Circle all that apply)

Rifle/Shotgun Handgun Other(specify)

At which of the following have you shot? (Check all that apply)

Nothing/Into the airSkeet/Bulls eyeHuman form targetBirds or small gameLarge gameOther (specify)

10. The probability that I would be able to defend myself against a burglar if I had a gun in my home is

very high somewhat high somewhat low very low

11. The probability that someone in my family would accidentally shoot someone if we had a gun in my home is

very high somewhat high somewhat low very low

12. The probability of a burglar entering my home when I am present is

very high somewhat high somewhat low very low

13.Please check the events you have experienced. Answer separately for handguns and rifles/shotguns. A checkmark indicates that you have experienced that event.

Rifle	Handgun
	Someone in my presence had a gun in a holster or case or gun rack.
	Someone in my presence had a loaded gun out of a holster, case, or gun rack.
	Someone in my presence shot a bird or animal.
	Someone in my presence pointed a loaded gun at another person.
	Someone pointed a loaded gun at me.
	Someone shot another person in my presence.
	Someone shot and hit another person in my presence
<u> </u>	Someone shot and hit me.
	Someone shot and killed a person in my presence.

Television Grid

	ues	day	even				·							
6:	00 PM	6:30	7:00	7:30	8:00	8:30	9:00	9:30	10:00	10:30	11:00	11:30	12:00	12:3
2	CBS News	Entertain- ment Tonight O	Rescue 91 Inapped in a cave. (R) C	in undersea	Shawnee S	Saw What Yo Smith, Rober and dia! a k	rt Carradine) ★★ □ . Girls make	News ()	The Exile	<u>~</u>	Arsenio H	all Ç A	Mission Impossible () =
5	News 🗘	Hard Copy	Matlock: B a roofer act murder. (R)	tused of	In the Heat Night: Teac helps a stu		Shannon' Shannon o talk show	detends a	News C	The Tonig Host: Jay L	ht Show: eno. A		t With Davi David Lee	
7	News	Wheel of Fortune	Who's the Boss? (R) C) A		Roseanne (R) ⊂ A	STAT C O	thirtysom Efliot's first job flops. (directing	News 🗘 🛈	Nightline 17	Into the Ni ring Rick (ight Star- Dees ⊡ A	MOVIE: N	ly Husbar 3 ('78) ++
9	Cheers	Night Court	Lead-Off Man	Basebail: (Live)	Chicago Cul	os at St. Lou		irom Busch		News 🗘		MOVIE: H ('70) ** B Douglas.	unters Are lurt Reynold	for Killing s, Melvyn
11	MacNeil/Le NewsHour	ehrer Ģ	Chicago Tonight A	New Yan- kee Work- shop	Nova: "We Where You Direct man		Frontline: M.sdemea of the Iran	"High Crime nors." An inv -contra scan	es & vestigation dal. Q	The '90s: ' Other Drug	Aicohol and	OL WTTW	umai	Chicag Tonight (R) O
20	The World	Planet Earth C	Mozart My	stique			Manage-	Mechani-	To Life!	Health Care	Health Car Is II Time?	e Reform:	Sign-off at	12 a.m.
26	De Mujere	1	En Carne Propia	Pobre Dial	bia	Amor de Nadie	Cristina	1	informa- cion 26	En Vivo	CINE: EI H	ombre sin e que se vei	.l Miedo Valer ngue.	ntın Trujilk
32	Cosby	A Current Affair	MOVIE: Th Gene Wilde			3,'84) **	News	Nine- Thirty	M'A'S'H	Love Con- nection	Personali- ties	A Current Affair	News (R)	Ted Knight
38	15th Anniv	ersary Tele	thon										Dean & Mary	Light Music
44	Pasionaria	1	Paraiso		CINE: Los	Hijos de Sa	nchez		Noticiero/ CNN	Porcel	Cars a Car	3	MI Nombr	e Es Lara
50	Star Trek: Generation		MOVIE: Ali Gregory, Re	ce in Wond	eriand ('85) Part 1)	** Natalie	A-Team		Sanford & Son	All in the Family	All in the Family	Odd Couple	Mary Tyle Moore	Gleaso
_		o Heaven 🗘	MOVIE: Mr Leachman,	s. A's Daug	hter (*79) #	+ Clons	Mama's Family	Family	Barney Miller	Gunsmoke		Kate & Allie	Paid Prog	
6:0	00 PM	6:30	7:00	7:30	8:00	8:30	9:00	9:30	10:00	10:30	11:00	11:30	12:00	12:3
AE	World of Survival	Heroes C	David Ben-6 Mahatma G	andhi	"Airs."			rancisco: P		Improv Tonite A	David Ben- Mahatma G	iandhi	American Theater =	
MC	MOVIE: Lo Chevalier,	ive Me Toniç Jeanette Mai	tht ('32) ** Donald.	Maunce	MOVIE: Th	e Last Time aylor, Van Jo	e I Saw Pari ohnson.	is ('54) ***	MOVIE: Th Laraine Day	e Locket ('4 y, Brian Ahe	l6) ++ me. ↔	MOVIE: Lo	eve Me Ton	ight ('32)
		LA.	Odd (R) South Ban	Screen		: Host: Don:			Sanford	Screen	Love Video		Voices	L.A.
	Off the air. Smart Mon	ey	Real Story	Canow	MOVIE. Na	miet ('48) * Steais	Real Story				VIE: Richar Real Story		*** *	Steals
NN .	Money	Crossfire	Primenews		Larry King		Evening N			Sports	Newsnight		Showbiz	News =
	Clash	Bloopers		Comics					Night After		Attention S		SCTV	Comics
	= (5:00) M(Sylvester (Disney's M Magic King		Sherlock H The Specie	ted Band."	Frank Sina	ətra	Ozzie & Harriet	Elizabeth Ta	nhoe ('52) : aylor.	*** Robert	Taylor,	MOVIE
	Rendez's		World War	1	Beyond	Invention	Planet Ear		Wings		Safari		Monitor	Profiles
		Baseball (L					,	Baseball (Sports
AM	Scarecrow King	& Mrs.	MOVIE: Co Young, Cele	me to the S iste Holm.	table (*49) i	+++ Loretta	The 700 C	lub (R)	Scarecrow King	& Mrs.	MOVIE: Dn **** Clau	ums Along Idette Colbe	the Mohaw et, Henry Fo	k (39) Inda.
		Power		Focus	Business	Insiders	Entrepr.	Power	On Move		Business	Insiders	Entrepr.	Power
ALA	= (5:00) CI		Flor y Cane		Comedian		Restro	Cenizas	CINE: Hijas				CINE -	1
f80			MOVIE: The ++ () Chev	ree Amigos y Chase.	: (PG, 86)	(8:45) Night Rap	(9:15) MON Anthony He	opkins, Norm	n's War ('91 ha Aleandro.) D •	(10:45) MO *** C) The	resa Russe	ie (H, 90) S.	(12:40) Kids/Ha
IFE		Duet	L.A. Law 🜩	0	MOVIE: Th	e Killing Mi	nd ('91)		Uliman	Dodd O	E.N.G.		Paid Prog	ramming
AAX	← (5:00) MC Millennium	OVIE:	MOVIE: Pre Schwarzene	dator (R,'6	7) ★★★ © A Veathers, G	mold	MOVIE: He	ellbound: He Clare Higgins	eliraiser II	MOVIE: Mo ++ Zach G	ertal Passion alligan, O	ns (R,'89)	(12:10) MC High Seas	oviE:
		Hot Seat	MTV Prime				Rockline				os: Kan Wu	hrer.		
	Gadget	Looney			Smart			Gr. Acres				Dobie	P. Duke	3 Sons
ack		Sports	Baseball: 6 (Live)	alumore Or	oles at Chic	ago White S	iox from Col	miskey Park.	SC Report	Sports Nightly	Pro Basket Playoffs	ibali	NHL Hock	ey 🕈
ICK	Sports on Tap	Check	(0.0)			-	NOVER C	an't Buy Me	Love (PG-1	3, '87) ++ C	(10:45) MO	VIE: Side C Thomas H	ut (PG-	Pair of Jokers
SC	Sports on Tap Roger Rab Secrets of	Check bit & Toontown	MOVIE: Gra Garbo, Joan	Crawford.			Patrick Der	Tipsey.					uwes.	
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SC SHO TBS TLC TMC TNN	Tap Roger Rab Secrets of Happy Days House = (5:00) M((PG-13, 789) VideoPM	Check bit & Toontown Sanford & Son Training OVIE: UHF) ** Star &	MOVIE: Gra Garbo, Joan MOVIE: Wh Dreyfuss, Jo Eastern Eu MOVIE: Shi Tony Danza On Stage	Crawford, ose Life Is obn Cassave rope s's Out of C Catherine Church yient Green ward G, Rob	It Anyway? etes. Japan control (PG, Hicks: A Nashville N (PG,73) * inson.	(R,'81) *** European '89) * :: fow: John P	Patrick Der + Richard Yan's MOVIE: C. Robbins, B rice, O (9:05) MOV Devane, M	Baseball: / Dodger Sta Golf H.U.D. II (R, ill Calvert. Crook	idium. (Live) Eastern Eu '88) ± Brian On Stage rt (77) ++ V	rope (R) MOVIE: Re Nerds in P: Church Villiam	geles Dodge Japan (R) venge of the aradise Nashville N	European e Nerds II: low (R) A VIE: Battle erwin Mathem	(12:15) MC Golden Ne GED (R) MOVIE: An Ninja 3: Bl	edles ≠ Softwarn nerican ood Hunt Crook ■ Earth

Tuesday's morning and afternoon listings begin on page 12. 20

Chicago Tribune TV Week

Magic window guestionnaire

1.Bill Cosby probably acts the same way in real life as his character (Cliff Huxtable) does in the Cosby Show.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

2. The people I see playing parts on television are just like their characters when they are off camera in real life.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

3.Fred Dryer of "Hunter" is probably just as tough in real life as the he is on television.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

4.Ted Danson in real life is probably a lot like the character (Sam Malone) he plays on Cheers.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

5.Don Johnson in real life is probably a lot like Sonny Crocket on "Miami Vice."

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			àgree

6. The people who act in TV shows about families probably behave the same way in their real lives.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

7. The network nightly news unbiasedly shows what's going on in the world.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

8.Alan Alda who plays Hawkeye in M*A*S*H probably acts the same in real life as Hawkeye does on the TV show.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

9.Television accurately portrays criminals.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

10.Mike Wallace of "60 Minutes" presents stories accurately, just as they occurred in real life.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

11.Television shows you what police are probably like in real life.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

12.Rosanne Barr Who plays Rosanne on the show Rosanne probably acts the same way in real life as she does on the show.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

13. The things that happen to Bill Cosby in real life are probably the same as the things that happen to his character (Cliff Huxtable) on the Cosby Show.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

14. Please list all the video cassettes you have viewed in the past 7 days.

Mean world questionnaire

1.If you were to walk in a park close to your home at night, how safe would you feel?

Very Safe Safe Unsafe Very Unsafe

2. How fearful are you that your home will be broken into within a year's time?

Very Afraid Afraid Unafraid Very Unafraid

3.If you were alone at night in Miami what are the chances that you would be the victim of a crime?

Very High Somewhat High Somewhat Low Very Low

4. If you lived in Los Angeles, what do you think the chances are that your house would be broken into sometime?

Very High Somewhat High Somewhat Low Very Low

5.What are the chances that the average person in Washington D.C. will have their house broken into sometime this year?

Very High Somewhat High Somewhat Low Very Low

6. How likely do you think it is that the average person in your neighborhood would be mugged or assaulted in a year's time?

Very Somewhat Somewhat Very Likely Likely Unlikely Unlikely

7.How safe do you feel walking alone in your neighborhood at night?

Very Safe Safe Unsafe Very Unsafe

8.What do you think the chances are that if you were to walk alone at night in your neighborhood each night for a month that you would be the victim of a serious crime?

Very High Somewhat High Somewhat Low Very Low

9.If you were alone at night in New York City subway station what are the chances that you would be assaulted?

Very High Somewhat High Somewhat Low Very Low

10.How safe would feel if you were alone at night on the streets of New York City?

Very Safe Safe Unsafe Very Unsafe

11. During any given week what would your chances be of being in some kind of violence in your neighborhood?

Very High Somewhat High Somewhat Low Very Low

12. How likely is it that someone in your neighborhood would have something stolen from them in a year's time?

Very	Somewhat	Somewhat	Very
Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Unlikely

13. If you were alone at night in Detroit, how fearful are you that you would be mugged?

Very Afraid Afraid Unafraid Very Unafraid

14.What do you think the chance are that an unaccompanied women would be the victim of a violent crime late at night in a New York City subway station?

Very High Somewhat High Somewhat Low Very Low

15. How likely do you think it is that you will be the victim of a mugging or assault in your neighborhood within a year?

Very Somewhat Somewhat Very Likely Likely Unlikely Unlikely

16.If you were walking alone at night in Miami how safe would you feel?

Very Safe Safe Unsafe Very Unsafe

17. How likely is it that the average person in Los Angeles will be mugged or seriously assaulted in a year's time?

Very	Somewhat	Somewhat	Very
Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Unlikely

18. How likely do you think it is that someday your house will be broken into?

Very	Somewhat	Somewhat	Very
Likely	Likely	Unlikely	Unlikely

19.What are the chances that someone in your neighborhood would have their house broken into sometime this year? Very High Somewhat High Somewhat Low Very Low 20. How safe would you feel out on the streets in your neighborhood if you were with someone? Very Safe Safe Unsafe Very Unsafe 21. If someone was walking alone at night in Miami what do you think the chances are that they will be mugged? Very High Somewhat High Somewhat Low Very Low 22.What do you think the chances are that if you were to walk alone at night in Washington D.C. each night for a month that you would be the victim of a serious crime? Very High Somewhat High Very Low Somewhat Low 23.What is your personal risk of violent crime in your neighborhood? Very High Somewhat High Somewhat Low Very Low

24.If you were alone at night in Los Angeles, how safe would you feel?

Very Safe Safe Unsafe Very Unsafe

25.If someone were to walk alone in a park in your neighborhood at night, what are the chances that they would be mugged or assaulted?

Very High Somewhat High Somewhat Low Very Low

Firearm attitude questionnaire

1.The	mere sight	of a gun is	cause for u	ineasiness.
	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
2.Any	one living a	lone should	have a gun.	
	strongly disagree	disagr ee	agree	strongly agree
	munities wou ssions were		places to 1	ive if gun sales and
S G-r	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
4.Gun	s are a good	form of pro-	tection.	
PR	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
		Association the rights o		n organization which citizens.
N	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
6.Use legal		protect one	's property	should always be
PN	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
7.Gun state		s are the fin	rst step in	creating a police
	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree
8.If the government is allowed to ban guns then they can take other constitutional rights away as well.				
G N	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree

9.If my town passed a gun ban, I would keep a gun illegally. Κ strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 10. The owning of a gun is a personal decision and the government has no right to regulate it. disagree С strongly agree strongly N disagree agree 11.A gun is no more dangerous than an automobile. Ν strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 12.No one under the age of eighteen should be allowed to shoot a gun. disagree strongly C-r strongly agree disagree agree 13. Guns are a poor way for people to protect themselves from criminals. PR-r strongly disagree strongly agree disagree agree 14. There are too many guns in the United States. C-r strongly disagree strongly agree disagree agree 15.Guns should be allowed to be used for hunting animals. disagree strongly N strongly agree disagree agree 16.Television encourages gun ownership because of the many violent programs. strongly disagree strongly agree disagree agree 17. Guns are a good way to stop intruders. PR strongly disagree strongly agree disagree agree

18.If a criminal knows in advance that a home has a gun he will be less likely to burglarize it. disagree PR strongly agree strongly disagree agree 19.Guns are not a vital part of United States history. AH-r strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 20.Guns have no place in today's society. strongly disagree strongly agree disagree agree 21. The NRA is mainly a bunch of good-ole-boys who love carrying guns. strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 22. To the hunter, the gun teaches responsibility. Ν strongly disagree strongly agree disagree agree 23. People having guns is an effective way to reduce the crime rate. PR disagree strongly agree strongly disagree agree 24.Guns are an important part of our American heritage. AH strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 25.A gun is a tool; it is only dangerous in the wrong hands. Ν strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 26.A person whose gun is stolen because it is not locked up, and then used in a violent crime should be charged as an accessory to the crime. disagree strongly R strongly agree disagree

agree

27.I could never kill anyone, even in self-defense.

PN-r	strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
PD	disagree			agree

28. The lives that are protected by a gun outweigh those innocent lives lost through accident.

N	strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
PN	disagree	-		agree

29.Guns are not a good form of protection.

PR-r	strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
	disagree	_	-	agree

30. The majority of people who are shot are shot by someone they know.

strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
disagree			agree

31.I could never actually shoot someone.

PD	strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
	disagree			agree

32.A person whose gun is used in a crime should be charged with a misdemeanor (unsafe keeping of a firearm).

R	strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
	disagree			agree

33.As soon as handguns and assault rifles are banned, gun opponents will try to outlaw all guns.

N	strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
	disagree			agree

34.Use of a gun (lethal force) to defend and protect one's family should always be legal.

G	strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
PN	disagree			agree

35.Towns that have passed handgun ordinances are more likely to be targets for robberies and burglaries than are towns without such ordinances.

G	strongly	disagree	agree	strongly
PR	disagree			agree

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36.Guns do not kill people. People do. strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 37. The government does not do enough to restrict the purchase of guns. C-r disagree strongly agree strongly N-r disagree agree 38.Guns are a good way for people to protect themselves from criminals. PR strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 39.Guns are part of American life. AH strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 40.When a child accidentally shoots himself/herself with a gun that was lying around the house, the parent who owned the gun should be jailed. R strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 41. The American cowboy was a hero. AH strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 42.Gun control will reduce the incidence of violent crimes. S strongly disagree strongly agree C-r disagree agree 43. The solution to crime is more cops, more prosecutors, more jails--but no new restrictions on guns. С strongly disagree strongly agree disagree agree 44.Gun control would reduce the availability of guns to criminals. C-r strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree

45. Possessing guns would not reduce the crime rate. PR-r strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 46.Gun control measures cannot work because people will still be able to get guns. С strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 47.If I had a gun, I would teach everyone in the house how to use it. disagree strongly agree strongly disagree agree 48.A gun is a poor way for me to protect myself from criminals. disagree PR-r strongly strongly agree disagree agree 49.Gun ownership is a part of American culture that should not be denied. AH strongly disagree strongly agree disagree agree 50.0wning a gun is an invitation to trouble. S strongly strongly disagree agree disagree agree 51.I would keep a gun even if it were against the law. K strongly disagree strongly agree disagree agree 52. Criminals are afraid of citizens who own guns. PR strongly disagree strongly agree disagree agree 53.A gun is a good way to protect myself from criminals. PR strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree

54.We would all be safer with a qun ban in effect. strongly disagree S agree strongly G-r disagree agree 55.A gun ban will not lessen the chances of someone being shot by a criminal. disagree strongly s-r stronalv agree G disagree agree 56.If a child kills another person with his/her parents' gun then the parent should be held responsible. R strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 57. Towns with handgun ordinances have fewer accidental shootings than towns without such ordinances. C-r disagree strongly agree strongly disagree agree 58. Television gives a fairly accurate portrayal of how guns are used in American life. strongly strongly disagree agree disagree agree 59.I think hunting animals with a gun is an acceptable pastime. N strongly disagree strongly agree disagree agree 60. Guns are a poor way to stop intruders. PR-r strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 61. Only maniacs would want to own assault rifles. N-r strongly disagree agree strongly disagree agree 62.I would shoot to kill if I were being threatened. disagree strongly PN strongly agree agree PD-r disagree

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VITA

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The final copies have been examined by the director of the thesis and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the thesis is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The thesis is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

Olecember 2, 1991 Ainda Neath ate Director's Signature