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thesis entitled

Sex Role Portrayals On

Commercial Broadcast Television

presented by

Laura Lee Henderson

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

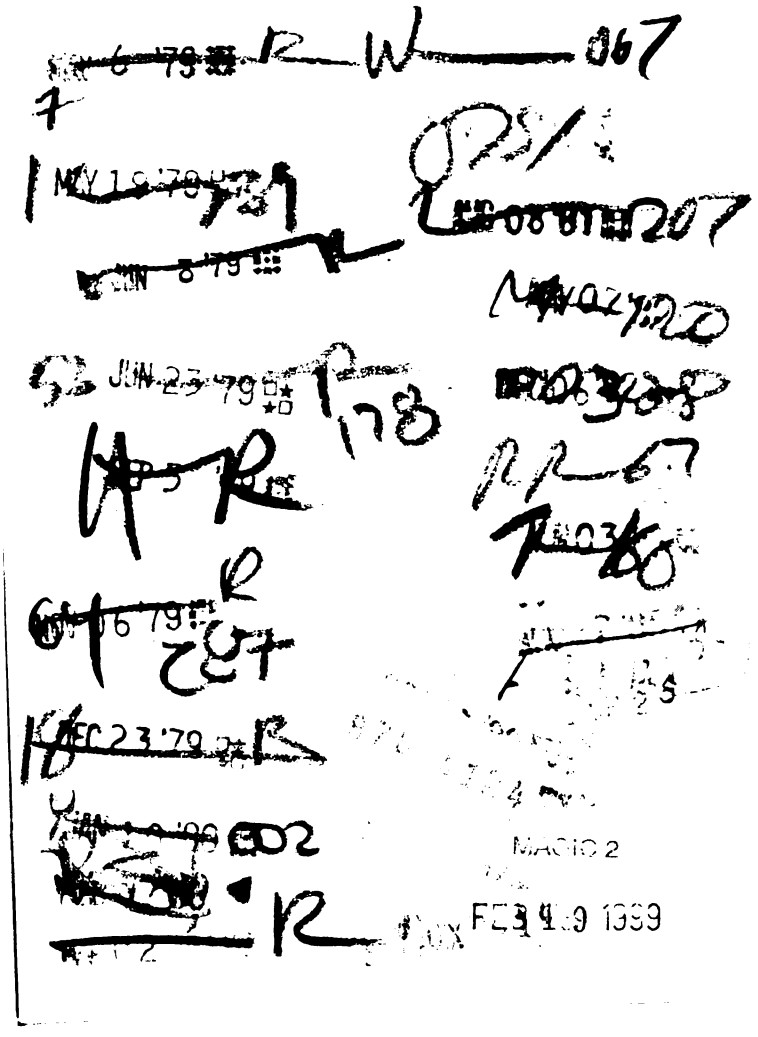
M.A. degree in Communication

Bradley S. Greenberg

Major professor

Date February 24, 1978

O-7639



SEX ROLE PORTRAYALS ON COMMERCIAL BROADCAST TELEVISION

By

Laura Lee Henderson

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Communication

1978

ABSTRACT

SEX ROLE PORTRAYALS ON COMMERCIAL
BROADCAST TELEVISION

By

Laura Lee Henderson

Sex role portrayals on prime time and Saturday morning television were content analyzed. Three categories of behavior were defined and recorded from a social learning theory perspective. The three categories were: Dominance/Deference: Gives Orders; Nurturance/Succorance: Needs Support; and Independence/Dependence: Makes Plans.

Orders were defined as directives to do, say, or think something. Supports were defined as non-routine physical and emotional needs of assistance. Plans were defined as statements of a method for doing something.

The data were analyzed with t-tests and a difference of proportions test. Results showed sex differences within all categories. The data were also analyzed by program type, broadcast time, and viewing preference.

The results were discussed in terms of the stereotyping of male and female sex roles as well as the availability of sex role models for imitation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There is no way to begin even properly recognizing all the folks who helped out along the way. My committee, headed by Dr. Greenberg and filled out by Katrina Simmons and Tom Muth, most certainly deserves special thanks. Each of my committee members served me a different function for which I was both delighted and grateful.

Beyond my committee it gets tough because I want to put everyone first for they all contributed to this thesis and its completion in their own special way. My parents gave me their pride. Joyce gave me her ear and made me feel it was worthwhile. Steve, Ed, and Nicky bolstered my confidence (and my alcohol consumption). Kris, Bruce, and Kruce Arms restored my sanity. Nancy, Bill, Paul, Ron, Mary, Kathy and the entire second floor kept tabs on my progress and cheered me on. Suzy answered my questions and helped me through the maze of graduate school memos. Willa, my typist, was incredibly patient with my unwillingness to proofread with any speed.

Although this work has only one name on it, it was not accomplished by just one person. All these people, plus many others -- graduates, undergraduates, faculty and friends -- contributed to the final product. As a part of Project Castle this thesis was supported by Grant 90-C-635 to

Michigan State University, Office of Child Development, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, and the data was collected through the efforts of Karen Cottledge, Melanie Williams, Chris Kesserling, Jim Day, Ellen Hadley, Helen Short, Ken Zgraggen, and Mike Zgraggen. Special thanks goes to M. Mark Miller for getting me started in graduate school and making me feel like I had a future.

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CHAPTER ONE

THEORETICAL AND RESEARCH PERSPECTIVE

With the advent of the women's movement, content analysis has been used in a variety of media to demonstrate the existence of narrowly defined categories of appropriate behavior for men and women. The purpose of content analysis is to specify in a systematic manner the characteristics of a variable of interest. It is generally done to find out "what's there" in a systematic fashion that enables a researcher to make general statements about what constitutes the content of a particular medium.

Children's literature, print and television advertising, news treatment, and television programming have been subject to extensive content analysis of sex role portrayals (see Busby, 1975, for a comprehensive review of sex role content analyses). These efforts have produced the general finding that mass media create and perpetuate sex role stereotypes. Although the emphasis has been on the "negative" or "traditional" images of women, researchers have also found a "traditional" stereotype for men as well (e.g., Reeves & Greenberg, 1977, document the limited dimensions on which children differentiate television characters, male and female).

The process of stereotyping as articulated by Bowes (1976) and by Carter (1962) involves first the <u>homogenization</u> of an

image. Homogenization results when the characteristics of a situation become increasingly associated with, and predictable from, each other. The homily "A woman's place is in the home" demonstrates such homogenization.

Homogenization may be followed by the polarization of characteristics or attributes when they are held in the extreme. Polarization of sex roles occurs when one sex can only be characterized by the polar opposite of the other sex, as in "Men are strong; women are weak." Finally, if the image persists over time it has fixedness. The image becomes stable and resistant to change.

Although researchers have demonstrated that stereotyping is not necessarily a negative process (e.g., Gage, 1952), studies of mass media stereotypes have viewed the stable and polarized images of the sexes as being less than desirable. This concern with stereotyped sex role models stems mainly from the work done by Bandura and others (e.g., Mischel, 1966; Bandura, 1965) demonstrating the effectiveness of observational learning.

For many years, differences in the behavior of boys and girls were attributed to innate biological functions. More recently, however, the focus has shifted from physiological sources of difference to socializing sources of difference. Behaviorists have attributed differences in behavior to differential reinforcement of male and female behavior. Bandura (1971) has departed from traditional reinforcement theory by highlighting the role of

observational learning as a source of socialized behavior differences.

Bandura's early work with the imitation of aggressive film models (e.g., Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963) has helped spark the current concern over, and research into, television violence. While stressing the importance of direct experience and reinforcement in the acquisition and performance of behavior repertoires, Bandura has theorized that much of behavior is learned by seeing how others are reinforced for their actions (Bandura, 1971).

According to Bandura (1971) learning may be achieved in one of two ways: through direct experience or through observation. Extending a traditional focus on direct experience and reinforcement, social learning theory incorporates the ability to acquire response repertoires through modeling. As with traditional learning theory, reinforcement plays a major role in observational learning.

Reinforcement may also be direct or observed. Direct reinforcement occurs when a person is rewarded or punished for performing a behavior. Observed or vicarious reinforcement occurs when a person observes a model being rewarded or punished for the performance of a behavior. In general, vicarious reinforcement promotes faster learning than direct reinforcement, but not long term responsiveness. Direct and observed reinforcement interact to provide a person with an observed standard for judging the relative value of direct reinforcement the person receives (Bandura, 1971, p. 25).

The concern over television role models has arisen due to the effectiveness of vicarious reinforcement in acquiring and regulating behaviors. It is the most obvious medium available for observational learning. Television provides attractive and vivid models from which to learn. The positive or negative reinforcement of a television character's behavior may affect a viewer's tendency to imitate the model's actions. The focus here is on the outcome of the behavior available for imitation. The behavior itself is relatively neutral. It is the reinforcement, or outcome, contingent on the behavior, that increases or decreases the likelihood of imitation by the observer.

Behaviors which produce positive outcomes for models are more likely to be imitated than behaviors which produce negative outcomes. The work with filmed and televised violence has shown that violent acts which receive positive reinforcement or have positive outcomes are more likely to be imitated (e.g., Bandura, Grusec, & Menlove, 1966; Bandura, 1965).

The stereotyping of sex roles on television is more subtle than the stereotyping of the positive outcomes of violence. This may be partially attributed to the nature of interactions between, and characteristics of, the sexes. Violence is inherently more "action-packed," and therefore more obvious than the portrayal of men and women on television. The subtlety may also be due to the nature of the sex-typing process.

Mischel (1966) has articulated a social learning

interpretation of the acquisition and performance of sex-typed behaviors. He theorizes that boys and girls learn behavior repertoires for both sexes. During the learning process, however, they also learn to label which behaviors are appropriate or inappropriate for their respective sex due to "the difference in outcome as a function of the performer's sex" (p. 60).

Mischel also stresses that response consequences need not be obvious or direct. They may also be inferred. Just as Mischel states "a man does not have to be arrested for wearing a dress in public to learn the consequences for such behavior" (p. 61), a little girl receiving more attention when wearing a party dress can learn that females should be interested in their appearance without receiving a direct compliment for being dressed up.

Television, by providing relatively homogeneous role models in many areas, facilitates the labeling process Mischel describes. This homogeneity of portrayal has been demonstrated in terms of occupational portrayals and status (Simmons, Greenberg, Atkin, & Heeter, 1977; Miller & Reeves, 1976), minority role portrayals (Simmons, et al., 1977), pro- and anti-social behaviors (Gerbner & Gross, 1976; Feshback, 1972), demographic characteristics (Simmons, et al., 1977; Tedesco, 1974; Katzman, 1972), and sex role portrayals (Busby, 1974; Streicher, 1974; Downing, 1974).

Using the definition of stereotype provided earlier, television is a major medium for stereotyping. The homogeneity has been demonstrated. Polarization is also evident

in television portrayals. Given time constraints which force plot lines and characters into simplistic and easily contrasted roles, polarization is necessary. The good guys wear white hats; the bad, black. Men are strong; women, weak (Tedesco, 1974). The continuing production of such roles provides television with the fixedness sufficient to perpetuate stereotypes.

Content analyses of sex roles have not been conducted long enough, however, to document their fixedness. It can only be assumed to have existed in the past. The fixedness of violence has more support. And, with the continuing assessment of violence on television (Greenberg, Atkin, Edison, Korzenny, Heald, & Wakshlag, 1977; Gerbner & Gross, 1976), the medium itself is being stereotyped as antisocial.

In the context of social learning theory, the persistence of such homogeneous role models is expected to have an effect on viewers. The outcomes of male behavior are different from the outcomes of female behavior. The effect of this vicarious reinforcement of stereotyped role models is to provide viewers with a homogenous (stereotyped) behavior repertoire, especially in performance areas where the observer has no previous direct experience with the role model or the behavior.

This effect has been most clearly demonstrated in the area of occupational roles. Miller & Reeves (1976) have shown that for children, viewing traditional television occupational roles (i.e., polarized by sex), decreases the

perceived appropriateness of cross-sex occupational role portrayals (e.g., a female police officer). On the other side of the coin, children who view counterstereotyped role portrayals see the cross-sex occupational status as being more appropriate. It should be noted that television provides many occupational role models with which children have little or no direct experience (Simmons, et al., 1977).

Content analysis of television programming for sex role stereotypes is a relatively recent phenomenon. The majority of studies on television sex roles have been published since 1974 (e.g., the Journal of Communication, Spring, 1974, published a symposium on women). It is interesting to note that content analytic studies of other media tend to precede those done on television (e.g., Chase, 1972; Courtney & Lockeretz, 1971; Nilsen, 1971). However, since researchers turned their attention to television, they have left no area of programming untouched. Educational television, news, prime time, day time, cartoons, and advertising have all been subject to the scrutiny of vigilant coders. Game shows appear to be the only program type left to be analyzed.

Sex role variables tend to fall into five general categories in television content analysis. Most studies look into many of these categories at the same time to provide a general picture, or profile, of the program type(s) under study. These categories are: (1) head counts, (2) demographic characteristics, (3) occupation, (4) physical characteristics, (5) personality traits.

(1) Head Counts. It is almost prerequisite to tally the number of male and female characters appearing on television in one form or another. Busby (1974) found a male to female ratio of 2.5 to 1 in cartoons. Miller & Reeves (1976) report their results in percentages for prime time programming: 72% male; 28% female (a ratio of 2.57 to 1). Other studies (e.g., Turow, 1974; Sternglanz & Serbin, 1974) report similar findings for prime time and cartoon programming. Men and women appear with almost equal frequency in daytime serials and as product representatives in television advertising (Katzman, 1972; Courtney & Whipple, 1974).

Also included in this area of analysis is the number of men and women appearing in major and minor, or regular and supporting roles (Miller & Reeves, 1976; Busby, 1974; Courtney & Whipple, 1974; Long & Simon, 1974). The percentages in this area generally correspond to overall male/female percentages.

(2) Demographic Characteristics. Common to many studies is the recording of such variables as age, race, marital status, and parental status. Long & Simon (1974) report that more than half of the women on children's and family programs are married and more than two-thirds of the married women have children. Tedesco (1974) reports similar findings in prime time programs, with women also being reported as younger than men.

Other studies reporting women being younger than men include Dominick & Rauch (1972, advertising), and Downing (1974, daytime serials). The resultant profile of a

television female is a woman who is most likely youthful, married, and a mother. Race is not a significant variable, due mainly to the small percentage of non-white television characters, particularly non-white females (Simmons, et al., 1977; Downing, 1974).

(3) Occupation. Although occupation can be considered a demographic variable, it merits a separate category due to the large amount of attention it has received. Almost every study of television sex roles includes some form of occupational analysis. The basic finding is that few women have jobs on television. Tedesco (1974, prime time) reports 40% female employment; 64% male employment. Long & Simon (1974) report 18% female employment in children and family programs. Downing (1974, day time serials) reports 80% female employment; 89% male employment. Her figures, however, include the category "housewife" which accounts for almost a third of female employment in daytime serials.

When they are portrayed as being employed, the women are most likely to be single and confined to a much narrower range of job types than men. Men are more likely to have professional or managerial positions, while women are most likely to have in-home or clerical positions (Miller & Reeves, 1976; Long & Simon, 1974; Katzman, 1972).

(4) Physical Characteristics. The variables coded as physical characteristics have included physical attractiveness, clothing, body traits (e.g., weight, height), physical activities, and size and color (in cartoons). Long & Simon (1974) found that the majority of women they coded were

tall, thin, attractive, and well-dressed. Busby (1974) found females to be smaller than males in cartoons. Tedesco (1974) reports women to be more attractive and less physically active than men.

(5) Personality Traits. Tedesco (1974) and Busby (1974) have done the most extensive coding of personality traits. Tedesco had coders rate each character on 15 semantic differential scales. Busby used 40 semantic differential scales. Other studies have coded characters on a smaller range of traits (e.g., Miller & Reeves, 1976; Long & Simon, 1974; Hennessee & Nicholson, 1972).

Traits receiving the most research attention have been independent/dependent, dominant/submissive, strong/weak, and intelligent/unintelligent. Men are rated more positively on these variables than women. Other polar opposites on which men are rated positively and women negatively are: violent/peaceful, rational/emotional, and active/passive. (The first trait listed is considered the "positive" end of the variable.)

By way of summary, these studies have delineated the characteristics of male and female television role models. While Bandura, Mischel, and others place emphasis on the model's characteristics in the facilitation of response imitation, the outcomes (reinforcement contingencies) of the model's behavior play an important, if not more important, role in social learning.

A relatively small number of studies have looked into the amount and kind of reinforcement, direct or inferred,

that television sex role models receive for their actions.

Turow (1974) observed advising and ordering interactions between the sexes on daytime and prime time television. Turow used "episodes" of advising and ordering (treated as an aggregate) to study "the relationships between knowledge, activity, and sex of characters" (p. 138). He found that television men and women conform to traditional stereotypes in their advising and ordering behavior.

This stereotyping of knowledge points to the development of a sex role standard, by which viewers may judge the relative value of the direct reinforcement received for their own advising and ordering. Women, by the television standard, espouse typically "feminine" knowledge, e.g., in categories such as love, the family, and the home. Men exhibit knowledge in "masculine" areas, such as business, law, and government. Turow has demonstrated Mischel's and Bandura's concepts of inferred or indirect reinforcement of televised models by showing the relationship between a character's sex and his/her espousal of a certain kind of knowledge.

Sternglanz & Serbin (1974) recorded a wide range of behaviors found in television cartoons. They went a step further in their coding by recording the consequences of the behavior (consequences were scored as positive, neutral, or negative). The outcome of male behavior was more often positive than negative or neutral. The outcome of female behavior was more often negative or neutral. Sternglanz & Serbin interpret these neutral outcomes to mean "that in general their behavior had no environmental consequences" (p. 713).

The content analysis undertaken for this thesis attempted to follow interactions between television characters (both same sex and between sex) from the initial portrayal of the behavior through to its outcome. Based on previous research (especially, Sternglanz & Serbin, 1974), three categories of behavior were chosen as representative of behaviors most often stereotyped by sex, culturally and in their television portrayal. These categories are: Dominance/deference, Nurturance/succorance, and Independence/dependence.

Dominance/Deference

Dominance is a broad concept which has been applied to instances of bullying, influence attempts, toughness, directive behavior, machiavellianism, and leadership (see Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974, for a comprehensive review). In general, there are no sex differences in dominance, although male children tend to be slightly more dominant in terms of influence attempts than female children (e.g., Sutton-Smith & Savasta, 1972).

With adults, it appears that only a general statement can be made about dominance. Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) point out that men generally have higher formal status as well as generally higher status (p. 262). Due to this generally higher status, men tend to take dominant roles more often.

Although dominance is not a sex-typed trait in the "real world," content analysis of television programming shows that dominance exists as a sex-typed trait for male

and female characters.

Turow (1974) reports that 70% of the advising and ordering episodes recorded during prime time television were initiated by men. That is, men gave 70% and women gave 30% of the advice and orders directed to a member of the opposite sex. Turow found that daytime programming is not as blatantly sex-typed on this variable, although men initiated 56% of the episodes recorded.

Sternglanz & Serbin (1974) recorded both dominance and deference in children's cartoons. Males were not shown to be significantly more dominant than females, but females were much more deferent than males. The definitions formulated by Sternglanz & Serbin served as a starting point in operationally defining dominance.

> Dominance. To influence or control others, to persuade, prohibit, dictate. To lead and direct. To restrain. To organize the behavior of a group.
>
> Deference. To follow directions or example (imitate) of a leader (except to ridicule) - either willingly or under threat. To admire or compliment. (p. 712)

These definitions were found to be too broad, including forms of behavior that may not necessarily be dominant or deferent. In doing the content analysis for this thesis, verbal dominance, in the form of directive, or ordering, behavior was recorded. Given the simplistic nature of role portrayals on television, occupational status confers greater authority on men than on women (Miller & Reeves, 1976; Turow, 1974; Katzman, 1972). With this in mind, two general types of directives were identified according to the role from which the directive was given: authority orders and

simple orders.

Authority orders are directives given by a person in authority to a subordinate. This authority may be conferred on the person by his/her occupational status, e.g., a doctor ordering a nurse; by the nature of his/her position as a social agent, e.g., a police officer ordering a citizen; or by parental status, as when a parent orders a child.

Simple orders are directed toward another peer. Peers are defined as persons interacting with equal status along any dimension, e.g., marital, as husband/wife; social, as friends; occupational, as co-workers.

It was found after initial testing of the scheme that threats can sound very much like orders. Therefore, a threat order category was added to the analysis. Threat orders are directives with statements concerning bodily harm attached. Tedesco (1974) and Simmons, et al. (1977) found that men are more often cast as criminals than women. Therefore, men would be more likely to use threats as a form of dominance.

Due to the deference demonstrated by women in previous content analyses, it was felt that women would be more likely to explain or justify their directives. Such explanations serve to modify the directive, tone it down in essence, to improve its chances of being followed or carried out. Consistent with the non-authoritative female stereotype, women television characters would be expected to explain or justify more orders than men.

General hypotheses concerning the giving of orders

were formulated based on these conceptions. Due to the unequal proportion of male to female television characters, hypotheses, in all categories, are stated with the assumption that "more" or "less" is used with respect to the relative frequency of male and female characters on television. That is, chance occurrence is based on doing a behavior more or less than the expected proportion of occurrence.

H_1: Male characters will give proportionately more authority orders than female characters.

H_2: Male and female will give proportionately equal numbers of simple orders.

H_3: Male characters will use proportionately more threat orders than female characters.

H_4: Female characters will explain proportionately more of their orders, authority or simple, than male characters.

In keeping with social learning theory, the outcomes of the directive behavior were recorded. In this analysis, the outcome of an order is the degree to which the order was followed. A character whose orders are followed is positively reinforced for being dominant. A character whose orders are not followed is negatively reinforced for being dominant. In line with the sterotyping of television sex roles, it is expected that more male orders will be followed than female orders, regardless of the type of order given:

H_5: Orders given by male characters will be followed proportionately more often than orders given by female characters.

Of interest in these dominance interactions is also the sex of the character being ordered. Turow (1974) restricted

his analysis to cross-sex orders. Sternglanz & Serbin (1974) recorded dominance and deference as separate behaviors. In this analysis the sex of the character receiving the order was recorded regardless of the sex of the order giver. Viewing directive behavior as an interaction between a possibly dominant and possibly deferent character ties the two forms of behavior together. With this perspective it is possible to assess whether female characters are more often cast in roles deferent only to male characters, or whether they are cast in roles deferent to dominance in general. It is hypothesized that females will be more often cast as deferent to both sexes:

H_6: Proportionately, male characters will order other male characters more often than female characters will order male characters.

H_7: Female characters will be the receivers of orders proportionately more than males will be the receivers of orders, regardless of the sex of the order giver.

Nurturance/Succorance

Murray (1938) used the terms nurturance and succorance to describe giving aid to others and receiving aid from others. Nurturance was considered a response to succorance, and the succorant person was considered weaker, younger, and dependent. Nurturance is generally considered to be care-taking behavior. It has been almost exclusively labeled a female role behavior, and is often used synonymously with "maternal" behavior.

Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) review psychological research studying nurturant behavior by men and women. Included in the review is a discussion of altruism, a concept similar to

nurturance. Maccoby & Jacklin describe the body of research on altruism as dealing with "helpful, supportive behavior that a person may direct toward a variety of other persons" (p. 221). The emphasis in this research is most often on voluntary offers of aid or voluntary assistance to another. Sears, Rau, & Alpert (1965) defined nurturant behavior as "voluntarily guiding or assisting another with the intent of being helpful or performing a service" (in Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974, p. 223).

The definition used in this content analysis combines aspects of the "maternal" and the "altruistic" characteristics of nurturant behavior. The person in distress need not necessarily be weak or young, nor is the nurturant behavior given only on a voluntary basis.

Deaux (1976) details a number of studies concerning male and female personality traits. A consistent finding emerging from her review has been that, culturally, women are considered to be dependent and emotional, while men are considered independent and active. Deaux also comments that television is a force in creating and perpetuating stereotypes. Maccoby & Jacklin (1974), however, could find no sex differences in their review of studies on nurturant behavior.

The stereotyping of nurturant/succorant behavior on television has been recorded systematically in only one content analysis. Sternglanz & Serbin (1974) recorded nurturance and succorance as separate behaviors:

> Nurturance. To nourish, aid or protect a defenseless other. To express sympathy. To "mother" a child. To give information to help carry out a project (see Succorance).
>
> Succorance. To seek aid, protection, sympathy, information to help carry out a project. To cry for help. To plead for mercy, to adhere to another person for security. To be dependent. (p. 712)

They found male characters to be significantly more succorant than females, but there was no sex difference for nurturance. As with dominance/deference, these definitions were found to be too broad due to the inclusion of information seeking behavior, and were later defined more explicitly in their operational definition.

Other studies touch on nurturance/succorance only peripherally. Long & Simon (1974) report that a traditional view of women is presented in television commercials in that women are dependent and have socio-emotional family roles. Busby (1974) reports that women are more emotional, fragile, and dependent on others, while men are more adventuresome, sturdy and self-reliant. Turow (1974) reports that women in daytime and prime time programming are most knowledgeable in "feminine" areas such as personal problems, the family, and the home. Men display more knowledge in areas like business, crime, and coping with danger.

The resultant research profile of nurturance/succorance is consistent with the stereotypes held in this culture. (Deaux, 1976; Donelson, 1975; Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972, all discuss a cultural stereotype of "warm" females and "competent" males). If television

stays true to the cultural stereotypes of active, adventurous men and dependent, emotional women, there will be differences in the ways men and women are portrayed in terms of succorance. Male television characters will be more likely to find themselves in physical danger, while female characters will be more subject to emotional distress.

The findings of Sternglanz & Serbin (1974) appear to conflict with this line of reasoning (i.e., males, in general will be more succorant). They, however, made no distinction between physical and emotional succorance. They also restricted their analysis to seeking aid, which eliminates the previously defined succorant "condition" wherein aid might not be requested. A succorant person, for the purposes of this analysis, need only evidence a need for supportive behavior, i.e., be in trouble, have a problem.

Nurturance is the response to that succorant need. It may be given voluntarily or it may be asked for. A nurturant response is a response with which another person attempts to relieve the danger or distress. A nurturant respondent need not be successful to evidence nurturance. Very simply, a person in a succorant condition has a problem and a person who responds to that problem is being nurturant. A person must be in a succorant condition in order for nurturance to occur.

Although it would be expected that nurturance would be a female activity, the overabundance of male characters on television may negate any sex differences in the response

to succorant characters. Males may also be more likely to respond to typically male problems, i.e., coping with physical danger. It is, however, hypothesized that female characters will do more than their share of nurturing others, especially those who find themselves in emotional trouble.

H_8: Male characters will be portrayed in physically succorant conditions proportionately more than female characters.

H_9: Female characters will be portrayed in emotionally succorant conditions proportionately more than male characters.

H_{10}: Female characters will respond to succorance with nurturance proportionately more than male characters.

As with dominance/deference interaction, nurturance/succorance is also considered in terms of its outcomes. In this instance, the recorded behavior is the succorant condition and the outcome is the nurturant response. A nurturant response giving aid to the succorant character is positive reinforcement for needing aid or expressing a need for aid. A response not giving support to succorance is negative reinforcement.

If female characters are nurtured only when in emotional distress, and male characters only when in physical danger, the characters are being differentially reinforced for behavior according to the sex of the performer.

H_{11}: Male characters will be nurtured (receive positive reinforcement) for physical succorance more than female characters.

H_{12}: Female characters will be nurtured (receive positive reinforcement) for emotional succorance proportionately more than male characters.

Independence/Dependence

The purpose in this study for recording instances of independent behavior stems from previous content analyses in the area. Male and female television characters have been rated on their independence as a personality trait (Busby, 1974; Tedesco, 1974; Long & Simon, 1974), but not as a behavior.

Sternglanz & Serbin (1974) defined two categories of behavior similar to the concept of independence: Achievement-construction and Autonomy.

> Achievement-construction. Planning and carrying out one's own plans, building, stating desire to overcome obstacle, to surpass self or others.
>
> Autonomy. To resist influence or coercion. To defy an authority or seek freedom in a new place (emigrate). To strive for independence. (p. 712)

They found male characters to be more constructive than female characters. There was no sex difference for autonomy. Their definitions are again too broad and also include an element of dominance. The intent here was to define a dimension of behavior which showed independence that need not be closely associated with dominance.

Defining independence poses a difficult task. The problem with independence is that it is rarely defined. Most often its polar opposite, dependence, is defined and studied (e.g., Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Mischel, 1966). About the most that can be said about independence is that it is not being dependent.

Although previous research (e.g., Busby, 1974; Tedesco,

1974) has shown male characters to be more independent than female characters, the characteristics of such behavior have not been defined. In searching for a way to assess the many shades of meaning independence can take on, a number of concepts were considered that appear to be indicative of independence. This culminated in the development of a category labeled "makes plans."

Making plans was originally conceived as a decision making category. Decision making is a part of being able to plan actions. In order to plan one must decide on a course of action to be implemented and also decide how to implement that action.

Making plans also incorporates the notion of leadership in that not all plans may be carried out alone. A planner may have to solicit the aid of others in order to implement that plan. The concept of leadership is most often associated with small group behavior. It is not necessary, however, to lead a group to show independence of thought, autonomy, or constructive behavior.

Creativity and originality of thought are also elements of plan making. Making a plan and attempting to carry it out show a measure of being able to think on one's own without seeking the advice or opinions of others. Plan making also shows independence with the realization by the plan maker that something needs to be done.

For this analysis, then, independence is defined as the ability to recognize the need for, and decide upon,

a plan of action when it is called for. "Makes plans" attempts to tap this category of behavior by defining a plan as a statement of a method for doing something.

The typical assumption has been that girls show more dependency than boys, and research has shown that girls are indeed a bit more dependent (Mischel, 1966). This assumption infers the reverse as well, that boys will be more independent or less dependent than girls. Given the stereotypic portrayals on television, it is hypothesized that male characters will exhibit the independence of thought and action defined as inherent in plan making more than females.

H_{13}: Male characters will make plans proportionately more than female characters.

For this category, the behavior outcome is the success or failure of the plan. Positive reinforcement for independent behavior is seeing a plan through to its completion. Negative reinforcement is having a plan fail. If female characters are portrayed in traditional roles, they will not be positively reinforced for independent behavior and, therefore, more of their plans will fail.

H_{14}: Male characters will formulate proportionately more ultimately successful plans than female characters.

In summary, the basic focus of this study is on the behaviors and outcomes that may show sex role stereotyping on television. The behaviors recorded in this analysis were chosen on the basis of previous contest analysis studies, as well as research into cultural attitudes towards sex roles.

This study attempts to go beyond previous research into television sex roles by incorporating social learning theory into the content scheme. Social learning theory emphasizes not only the behaviors available for imitation, but also the outcomes of these behaviors. If differential reinforcement of the sexes on television is present as hypothesized, viewers are being presented with stereotyped sex role models.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODS

Overview of Procedures

The three major categories for the sex role content analysis presented here were developed, tested, revised, and implemented at the same time. Conceptually, however, they were treated as, and still remain, distinct categories requiring separate consideration. The development of each category scheme will be presented as a separate procedural task. This overview is presented here to provide a basic outline for the development and execution of the sex role content analysis scheme as a whole.

From the conceptual definitions of the major categories, operational definitions were developed. For each conceptual category, broad operational categories were defined and types of behavior within each category were delineated: Dominance/deference was operationalized as giving orders; Nurturance/succorance as needing support; Independence/dependence as making plans.

Following the broad category definitions, behavior sequences for each category were outlined. These sequences attempted to logically structure the expected occurrence of behaviors conceptually following the occurrence of the main category behaviors. The behavior sequence for giving orders

was outlined: who gave what kind of order; to whom was it given; and, was the order followed? The behavior sequence for needing support was outlined: who needed what kind of support; if someone responded, who was it; and was support given? The behavior sequence for making plans was: who made what kind of plan; was it for him/herself and/or others; who carried out the plan; was it a success or failure? The consequences of each behavior sequence were also considered a part of the logical structure.

With a rough form drawn up for each category scheme, another graduate student, M. Mark Miller (now a faculty member of the School of Journalism, University of Wisconsin, Madison), and I tested the scheme by viewing portions of videotaped television programs. Changes and additions were made in areas where we found difficulty in making decisions regarding the recording of behaviors and in the use of the forms.

The scheme was tested a second time for five to six weeks by two undergraduate students. After consulting with them about the scheme as well as their training, the coding forms and variables were revised a final time in order to incorporate improvements suggested by their work with the scheme. Revisions of the scheme will be noted in the following discussion of the variables coded and their operational definitions.

A new group of coders was then trained in the final version of each category scheme. This group did the formal recording of sex role behavior sequences. Training procedures

will be outlined following the operational definition of each category.

DOMINANCE/DEFERENCE: GIVES ORDERS

As previously stated, the Dominance/deference behavior category became the orders category in the content analysis scheme. Giving an order was defined as the beginning of a Dominance/deference behavior sequence. The television character is the unit of analysis; therefore, all definitions are given in terms of what the character does.

Characters were defined as persons, animals, or things with speaking parts in a television program. The sex, male or female, for each character was recorded.

In this category, giving an order is defined in this fashion:

> GIVES ORDERS: The character gives a directive for others to do, say, or think something. Orders are coded according to how the directive is or is not modified by the ordering character. The order types are mutually exclusive and exhaustive.

Originally, three types of orders were defined. During the initial testing of the scheme we had difficulty distinguishing some kinds of threats from orders. Before pretesting the scheme we added a category Threat Orders to the scheme.

> Order Types:
>
> Threat: An order given with a statement that physical harm will result for the character being ordered if it is not complied with. Example: Get in the car or you won't know what hit you.
>
> Authority: An order to be complied with because of occupational position (e.g., boss), social agent (e.g., police officer, nurse), or parent. If a character has been explicity made a delegate of any of the above he/she is capable of giving an authority order. Example: Get back to work.

Simple: An order given among equals or peers; husband/wife, brother/sister, friends, co-workers, etc. An order given by someone in an authority position may be considered a simple order if the characters are interacting as peers, e.g., in a special setting. An order is simple unless clearly given as a threat or an authority order. Example: Hurry up!

Explained: Any of the above orders may be further modified by the inclusion of a justification for why an order should be followed. This justification must be made immediately prior to, or following the giving of an order. Examples:

Threat Explained: I get nervous when I have to hold a gun. So if you make a sudden move you might get hurt.

Authority Explained: Be quiet, Jane. You're disturbing the other students.

Simple Explained: Come back here. I want to tell you why I said that.

Other variables in the behavior sequence:

Receiver: The receiver in the orders behavior sequence is the character(s) to whom the order was given.

Followed: An order was considered to have been followed if the receiver carried out the order as it was given. If the order was not carried out by the receiver as given, the order was not followed.

Consequences: Consequences were defined as any action or verbal statement that happened as a result of the order being followed or not followed. They were coded as present or absent, with space for comments as coders found appropriate.

Coding Forms

An example of an Orders coding form and directions for its use may be found in Appendix A. In general, letter codes (e.g., "A" for authority orders) were used for recording order types. "Check columns," columns which required a check mark or an "X", were used for recording the sex of the character and whether the order was followed. All order

types, followed and not followed orders, and order consequences were briefly described by a quote, paraphrase, or action following any letter code or check column. These descriptions were provided as a check on coder accuracy. A final column named "Notes" was included in the form during its final revision. Coders could write in comments about each behavior sequence if they encountered trouble in recording that behavior sequence.

Behavior sequences were viewed and recorded in "time segments." Initially, a time segment was two minutes long. The first time segment began with the start of the program. Time segments were numbered consecutively, used to organize coding, and to record when the order was followed. Coders found it too difficult to operate a time clock along with their coding duties. In place of a two-minute time segment, they used the counter on the videotape machine and viewed programs in time segments of 50 as determined by the counter. A videotape count of 50 on the machines used roughly approximates two minutes.

NURTURANCE/SUCCORANCE: NEEDS SUPPORT

Needing Support, the second general category, was defined as the beginning of a Nurturance/Succorance behavior sequence. As with Giving Orders, the character is the unit of analysis. It was defined as:

> NEEDS SUPPORT: A character is in danger or distress. This category does not include routine requests for Assistance or social courtesies. It does include non-routine requests or needs which are relevant to program plots, subplots, or character development. The support types are not mutually exclusive and may, therefore, occur in any combination during character interaction or

scene. They are exhaustive in terms of the range of behaviors to be coded.

Originally, four types of need for support were defined: Physical Internal, Physical External, Humiliation, and Inability to Cope. During initial testing, Physical Confinement was added to the physical needs for support. Physical Confinement was added because involuntary confinement fell into neither of the two physical support types. Psychological support and Concern for Others were added to the emotional needs for support during the second revision of the scheme when our coders told us they had difficulty fitting these needs into the existing emotional needs for support.

The decision to add these support types was made on the basis of viewing the segments of television programs in which it was apparent that a character was in a succorant condition for which we had no category.

The distinction between routine and non-routine requests for assistance was made during the final revision of the scheme. The coders had become overenthusiastic in their work and were including statements such as "Can you tell me the time?" as needs for support. The routine/non-routine distinction focused the coding on our original variables of interest.

Support Types:

Physical External: A character is in danger of being killed, injured, or beaten. The threat of physical harm comes from outside the character. Example: A character is in danger of being caught in a cave-in, landslide or other natural dangers.

Physical Internal: A character is suffering from a disease, illness or internal malady. The threat of

physical harm comes from within the character. Example: A person has cancer.

Physical Confinement: Characters are jailed, trapped, or held against their will. One character's movements have been restricted by another. The confinement is involuntary. Example: Robbers lock people in a bank vault.

Inability to Cope: A character states that he/she has a problem that he/she cannot solve; is in need of ego support. The source of emotional distress or self-inadequacy for the character comes from within the character. Example: A person can't get along with boss, parents, spouse, etc.

Humiliation: A character states a fear that he/she will be disliked or held in low esteem by others. The character is afraid of being "put down." Example: A person fears that someone will reveal that they are homosexual, have a criminal record, or other socially unacceptable characteristic.

Concern for Others: A character discusses help for a friend, relative, or associate with a third person (person needs support because someone else is in trouble). Note that at least three people are involved: The person expressing concern, the person to whom concern is expressed, and the person in trouble. Example: Person notes that someone is late and expresses worry that he/she is lost.

Psycho Support: A character has a problem because of the actions of others but does not express inability to cope, fear of humiliation, or concern for others. Example: Person's spouse has left them.

Another set of support categories was added during the final revision at the request of the coders. The following categories are occurrences that are not essential to plot development; support is easily given; needs are momentary and easily resolved within a scene or interaction. These categories were developed to help coders make a conceptual distinction between pertinent interactions and behaviors, and less relevant interactions.

Compliments: A character receives praise, compliment, or encouragement when not requested or particularly needed. Example: You did that very well.

Approval: A character seeks confirmation of ideas, opinions, or actions. Example: Do you like my new dress?

Disappointment: A character is visibly upset, depressed, or blue because efforts are unsuccessful. The emotional setback is temporary, almost fleeting. Example: What do you mean you can't meet me at the airport?

The above variables do not appear in later analyses and discussions due to their use as a coder aid and their essentially "non-problem" (not involving distress or danger) status.

The other variables in the behavior sequence are:

Asks Support: A character in need of support may ask or not ask for aid in relieving the need. Therefore, coder identification of a support need is not dependent on the character asking for help.

Respondent: A respondent is defined as a character who recognizes that another character is in need of support. The responding character shows in some way, through physical and/or verbal action, that he/she knows that another character has a problem. A respondent need not provide support in order to be identified as a respondent.

Support Given/Not Given: Support is given when the respondent attempts to provide aid to relieve that particular need for support. Support is not given when the respondent does not or cannot provide the aid necessary to relieve the character's need.

Consequences: Any behavior that results from the attempt to give aid or from the absence of aid is defined as a consequence. They were coded as present or absent, with space for comments as coders found appropriate.

Coding Forms

An example of a Support coding form and directions for its use may be found in Appendix A. As with the orders category, letter codes (e.g., "PI" for Physical Internal) were used for recording support types. Check columns and

describe columns were used in a parallel fashion as well. Coding of support behavior sequences was also organized by time segment.

INDEPENDENCE/DEPENDENCE: MAKES PLANS

The final general category of behavior is the Plans category. Formulation of a plan was defined as the beginning of an Independence/dependence behavior sequence. Again, the character is the unit of analysis.

> MAKES PLANS: A description of a method for achieving a goal. Making a plan is not merely a statement of intent to do something (e.g., I'm going to make an appointment). It is the statement of a method for doing something (e.g., I'm going to make a doctor's appointment to see if I can do something about my sinus headache). The plan must be explicit in statement or action. The categories are considered mutually exclusive and exhaustive. The "other" category is to be used only if the plan cannot be classified in any other way.

Originally, a very small number of plan types were defined for the analysis. After the final revision, however, 14 different plan types had been defined within the scheme. This wide variety of plan types reflects the diverse nature of the television programs coded. The plans behavior sequence was the most difficult for the coders to record and the large number of plan types both helped and hindered their efforts. They helped by making it easier for a coder to recognize a plan. They hindered by making the scheme more cumbersome than the Orders and the Support schemes. Examples for each plan type are not given because the type of plan is an example in itself. A sample plans coding for and directions for its use may be found in Appendix A.

Plan Types:

Makes Appointments: A character states that he/she will set up a time to meet with someone for a purpose.

Housework or Maintenance: A character states that he/she will clean, repair, or fix-up, etc., for a specified reason.

Social Affairs/Family: A character states he/she will arrange an outing, party, etc., for family members or relatives.

Social Affairs/Non-family: A character states he/she will arrange an outing, party, etc., for others outside of the family, or for the family and out-siders (non-relatives), e.g., friends, co-workers.

Business Deals: A character states that he/she will prepare a contract, or arrange a meeting in order to conduct business.

Strategies: A character states how he/she will achieve a goal through movement and/or placement of other people.

Criminal Activities: A character, identified as a criminal, states how he/she intends to carry out an illegal action.

Criminal Apprehension: A character states how he/she intends to catch a criminal, or stop an illegal action.

Construction: A character states how he/she will build or put together something.

Acquisition: A character states how he/she intends to get something legally that he/she doesn't presently have.

Rescue: A character states how he/she will attempt to find, release, or rescue someone who is trapped, lost, captured, etc.

Behavior Intent/Personal: A character states how he/she will do something for him/herself, e.g., I'm going to take a walk so I can clear my head and get some exercise.

Behavior Intent/Interaction: A character states how he/she will do something with another person, e.g., I'm going right out there and straighten him out. A future interaction is explicit in the statement of method.

Other: If a statement of method cannot be classified by any of the above categories, it is coded as an "other" then described.

The other variables in the behavior sequence are:

For Whom: A plan may be formulated for execution by, and the benefit of, the character making the plan, for other characters, or for both the plan-making character and others.

Complexity: The complexity of the plan was rated on a scale of 1 to 5 as defined below. Complexity was added during the final revision in order to free coders from repeatedly recording a very complex plan.

1 = Very Simple, immediately executed; instructions implicit in the plan, e.g., I'll go get the mop to clean up that mess.

2= Simple, executed within the same time segment; very simple set of instructions, e.g. Officer Smith, you cover the back door; Fred and I will break in through the front and catch the burglar.

3 = Moderate, instruction necessary for execution which takes place within one or two time segments. It advances the story line but is not a major contribution to the plot, e.g., plans for a surprise party which require moving and hiding people, coordinating lights, etc.

4 = Complex, large set of instructions; carries across more than two time segments. Some of the plot will revolve around the plan and execution, e.g., a bank robbery plan that requires time, people, blue prints, etc.

5 = Very Complex, requires a major portion of the show to plan and execute. Most of the plot will revolve around the plan and its execution, e.g., a Mission Impossible plot.

Executor (carries out): The executor is the character who carries out the plan. The executor may be the character who originally made the plan, or another character acting as executor.

Execution: Our coders felt the need to record whether the execution of the plan was seen or not seen. They

found that many plans are formulated but that their execution and outcome are only implied. If the execution of the plan is portrayed during the program, it is seen. If implied within the plot or assumed by the characters, but not portrayed, the execution is not seen.

Consequences: The consequences of formulating and executing a plan are its success or failure. Some plans both succeeded and failed, sometimes more than once. Each success and/or failure of a particular plan were recorded.

TRAINING PROCEDURES

Coder training consisted of a series of discussion and practice sessions. Before viewing any programs, the coders discussed the variables with the investigators in order to become familiar with them. The coding procedure may be summarized as follows:

1. Discussion of conceptual definitions for each category.
2. Discussion of operational definition (category types and other variables) for each category.
3. Instruction in the use of coding forms.
4. Practice with the schemes.
5. Discussion of problems and questions concerning the schemes.

This sequence was repeated a number of times over a two week period of training. Coders worked in pairs, initially to discuss what they were recording. Following the training period they continued to work in pairs but were coding independently for reliability purposes. Coder training packets were developed during the training period to act as aids in the recording of behavior sequences. These may be found in Appendix B.

The criterion for the coders to meet was to identify and record behavior sequences as defined. This meant that the group of coders as well as their trainers had to agree upon the identification and recording of sample behavior

sequences. Agreement between the two investigators was reached during the development and initial testing of the schemes. It was necessary then to bring the coders into agreement with us, with each other, and with the definitions given in their training packets. The reliability discussed in a later section reflect how well the criterion was met.

The formal coding was done by a group of four undergraduate, female coders. They were all work study students. It would have been most desirable to have a mixed-sex group of coders. We attempted, but were not able, to hire an equal number of male and female coders. The final group of coders was all female. One male coder was involved in initial training sessions but left the group before formal coding began. The formal data collection was conducted during the months of January to June, 1976.

THE SAMPLE

Data were collected on one videotaped episode each of all prime time (8-11 p.m.) and Saturday morning (8 a.m. - 12 p.m.) regular network programming. Selected midseason replacement shows (e.g., "One Day at a Time") were also coded. Replacement shows were selected mainly on the basis of having female lead characters. The original sample of shows was aired and videotaped during a four-week period in the fall of 1975. Midseason replacements were videotaped in early 1976.

Not included in the sample of shows coded were variety

shows, documentaries or news programs, movies, and special programs. The total number of shows coded, 79, represents 59.5 television hours.

Characters included in the final analysis were all characters with speaking parts. A demographic analysis (Simmons, Greenberg, Atkin, & Heeter, 1977) of this sample of television programs identified 1212 speaking characters; 885 were males (73%) and 327 were females (27%).

It was possible for the coders to record nonspeaking characters (e.g., a character receiving an order who doesn't speak). In such cases only the sex was recorded and used in analysis. Characters with nonspeaking parts who exhibited a main category behavior (e.g., needing support) were not included in the final analysis.

It was also possible for groups of people to be recorded (e.g., a group of police officers receiving an order). If all the characters in the group were of one sex it was retained in the analysis and treated as one character. Mixed groups were not retained in the analysis. Groups were not capable of exhibiting a main category behavior by definition and so were not recorded.

RELIABILITIES

Reliabilities were calculated on all behavior sequence variables coded and retained in the analysis. About half of the sample programs were double coded, i.e., two coders viewed the same show independently. Intercoder reliabilities were computed as follows:

1. All variables were indexed for each character identified by a coder as having exhibited a main category behavior.
2. The indices were created by summing across each variable type recorded by a coder for a particular character. For instance, the number of authority orders recorded by a coder for one character became the authority orders index for that character. All dichotomous variables (e.g., orders followed/not followed) were broken out and treated as two variables (e.g., the number of orders followed and the number of orders not followed).
3. Coders were randomly designated as Coder A or Coder B. The variable index for Coder A was then correlated with the variable index for Coder B. The correlation coefficient for each variable was used as the estimate of intercoder reliability. Coder A was then used for the formal analysis.

Reliability estimates may be found in Table 1. Behaviors recorded as consequences, with the exception of a plan's success or failure, were dropped from the analysis before reliabilities were calculated due to their extremely low frequency of occurrence.

The reliability estimates show that the Orders category was the category within which there was the most agreement between coders on all variables. The Support category shows the second highest level of intercoder reliability. The Plans category is the least reliable of the three. This is not too surprising. The Orders category is the simplest category conceptually and operationally. It had the fewest number of main category variables to be coded as well as the fewest number of behaviors in its sequence.

The Plans category was the most complex conceptually and operationally. Initial reliabilities showed less than marginal reliability for the identification of a plan type. Also, the total number of plans recorded was rather small

Table 1

Intercoder Reliability Estimates

Category: Orders	N = 277 characters
Variable	r
authority orders	.85
simple orders	.80
authority explained	.58
simple explained	.62
female receivers	.92
male receivers	.94
orders not followed	.77
orders followed	.94
all orders	.95
Category: Support	**N = 294 characters**
Variable	r
physical internal	.69
physical external	.67
physical confinement	.75
ego support	.50
concern for others	.74
psycho support	.48
support not asked for	.54
support asked for	.63
support not responded to	.67
support responded to	.68
female respondents	.79
male respondents	.63
support not given	.66
support given	.66
all physical support	.81
all emotional support	.60
all support	.68
Category: Plans	**N = 133 characters**
Variable	r
plans	.74
plans made for self	.14
plans made for females	.43
plans made for males	.65
simple complexity	.27
moderate complexity	.26
high complexity	.34
female executor	.31
male executor	.61
plan success	.59
plan failure	.66

in comparison to the two other main categories. Because of this, plan types were collapsed into one variable, Plans. The reliability estimate (.74) for this variable shows that while coders could not agree on the type of plan a character was formulating, they did agree that the character was making a plan.

All variables coded in the Orders and Support categories were retained in the analysis. Threat and Threat Explained Orders had been dropped before reliability estimates were computed due to their extremely low frequency.

Although the Support variables Ego Support and Psychological Support show, at best, marginal reliability (.50 and .48, respectively), they have been retained due to their importance to the analysis. Ego Support is a composite variable. Humiliation and Self-inadequacy were collapsed into one variable because of their low individual frequencies and their conceptual similarity.

Four variables were dropped from the Plans analysis due to extremely low reliability; Plans made for self and the three complexity variables. Although complexity was originally a five-point scale, initial frequencies showed that coders were using basically a three-point scale. Very Simple and Simple plans (1 and 2), were combined into Simple Complexity. Complex and Very Complex (4 and 5) were combined into the High Complexity variable. Moderate Complexity (3) remained the same.

Two Plans variables were retained in the analysis in

spite of their low reliability estimates: Plans made for other females (.43) and female executors (.31). These variables will be retained because the corresponding male variables reach an acceptable level of reliability (.65 and .61, respectively), and because of their conceptual interest for this study.

ANALYSES

As with most content analyses, the data collected in this analysis are nominal. This level of measurement does not allow for comparison of results across categories. The creation of additive indices (frequencies) within categories changes the structure of the data, however, from a nominal level to an interval level. As long as inferential statistics assuming an interval level of measure are computed only for the indices within categories, the results are meaningful.

The hypotheses generated in Chapter One suggest that there are two populations of interest in this content analysis. First, there is the group of characters who exhibit at least one main category behavior. An example of an hypothesis concerning this population is:

> Male characters will need physical support more than female characters.

In general, this type of hypothesis asks whether there is any difference between the sexes in the number of behaviors each sex exhibits. Assuming a normal distribution for this population, the t-test for difference of means will answer the questions these hypotheses pose. The results of these t-tests will show whether there is a difference in the per

character rate of behavior exhibition. Or, more simply, a significant t-test of these hypotheses will allow the inference that the rate (or average number per character) of a behavior by one sex is very different from the rate of behavior by the other sex. The means in each category of behavior will show which sex has a higher rate.

The second population of interest is the entire population of television characters with speaking parts. The characters who exhibit main category behaviors are a subset of this larger population.

This larger population is not normally distributed. The number of characters found in each main category (691, Orders; 613, Support; 212, Plans) is at best half of the total sample under consideration. The distribution of all characters, then, is skewed toward zero. An inferential statistic assuming a normal distribution would be misleading in this instance.

The hypotheses generated about this population also ask a different question than those of the subset of characters who exhibit at least one main category behavior. These hypotheses were formulated with the unequal representation of the sexes on television in mind (males, 73%, females 27%). An example of this type of hypothesis is:

> In general, physical support needs will be proportionately overrepresented as a male behavior and proportionately underrepresented as a female behavior.

In general, this type of hypothesis asks whether the sexes are performing behaviors in proportion to their representation in the total population. The expected frequency

of behaviors performed by each sex is proportional to the expected frequency of males and females in the population.

The statistic used to test these hypotheses is a z-statistic. This z is a normal approximation of the binomial distribution and similar to a Chi-square with 1 degree of freedom (see Hays, 1963, p. 585, for a full discussion of this statistic.) No population distribution assumptions are made.

The formula for this z is:

$$z = \frac{f_{o1} - f_{e1}}{\sqrt{(f_{e1})(f_{e2})/N}}$$

where:

f_{o1} = observed frequency of female acts

f_{e1} = expected frequency of female acts (27% of total)

f_{e2} = expected frequency of male acts (73% of total)

N = total number of acts

This z not only provides a test of difference of proportions, it also gives an indication as to whether one group is overrepresented or underrepresented in the population. A negative z-score for this test will indicate that female behaviors are proportionately underrepresented. A positive z-score shows that female behaviors are proportionately overrepresented. The reverse is true for male behaviors. That is, a negative z means that male behaviors are over-represented; a positive z that male behaviors are under-represented.

In summary, then, two statistics have been computed for these data: the t-test, which tests the difference in mean rate of behavior performance by the sexes, and the z-test, which tests the difference in proportion of behavior performance by the sexes.

A number of exploratory post hoc tests were also performed on the data. The main hypotheses concern television programming in general and do not take into account the different types of programming or time periods available. (A list of television programs coded may be found in Appendix C.) These post hoc tests were done in three breakdowns of the data.

The data were broken down by: type of programming, broadcast time, and viewing preferences. As defined in the previous demographic analysis of this sample (Simmons, et al., 1977) three program types were analyzed: situation comedies, action adventure shows, and other show types, which include family and medical shows. Saturday morning shows could have been split into cartoons and noncartoons for this category. This split was not made because the number of shows, and therefore, characters, falling into these categories became too small for meaningful analysis.

The broadcast time of the shows was split into three time periods: Saturday morning, 8-9 p.m. (popularly known as "the family hour"), and 9-11 p.m.

Viewing preferences were split into two categories: preferred shows (Top 40 viewing) and non-preferred shows (Low 60 viewing). This split was made on the basis of a

survey conducted in the Lansing area in the fall of 1975 with children in the fourth, sixth, and eighth grades. Shows viewed weekly by 40% or more of the sample were designated preferred shows. The remaining shows were labled non-preferred shows.

The results of this data analysis will be presented as follows: Each main category (Orders, Support, Plans) will be presented as a separate analysis, with the results of the general (all shows) t- and z-tests presented first. Post hoc test results will be presented within each main category. A summary table presenting general data from all three categories will be discussed at the end of the results chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

The analysis of the data, as discussed in the previous chapter, provides two kinds of evidence for each hypothesis to be tested. The test of difference of means (t-test) compares the average number of behaviors performed by male and female characters in each content category. The difference of proportions test (z-test) compares the extent to which behaviors performed by each sex are representative of the extent to which each sex is present in the total sample of TV characters. Negative z-scores indicate that male behaviors are overrepresented, while positive z-scores indicate that female behaviors are overrepresented in the sample of television characters.

Consideration of both types of evidence should not only provide support or non-support for the hypotheses generated in the first chapter; it should also give an indication of the extent to which sex role stereotyping is present in the sample of TV content.

This chapter is organized around the three content categories: Dominance/deference, Nurturance/succorance, and Independence/dependence. Within each category results are presented for the hypotheses discussed in Chapter One,

followed by results of the post hoc analyses for program type, broadcast time, and viewing preference.

DOMINANCE/DEFERENCE: GIVES ORDERS

The results of the "all shows" analysis of the Orders category appear in Table 2. Table 2a presents the results of the Order Types analysis; Table 2b, the Receivers analysis; Table 2c, the Orders Followed analysis.

Table 2a shows that, across all shows, male characters gave nearly three times as many orders per male character as did the female characters ("all orders"). Thus for each male, the rate of order giving is much higher than for each female.

The large and negative z indicates that, furthermore, the total number of orders given by females was much less than would have been expected from the distribution of male and female characters in the population. The distribution of order-giving across all shows is 20% female and 80% male. That is, 20% of the orders given were given by females.

Both tests, then, support the hypothesis that, in general male television characters will give more orders than female television characters.

This result holds regardless of the type of order a character gives. It was hypothesized that male and female characters would be equal in their order giving behavior for simple and explained orders. These hypotheses were not supported by the data, as can be seen by the significant t-tests and large and negative z-scores in Table 2a.

Negative z-scores indicate that male behaviors are over-represented in the sample of television characters. All differences are statistically significant beyond the .05 level.

Support is provided in Table 2b for those hypotheses concerning receivers of orders. In the orders behavior sequence, the male-male sequence occurs three times as often as a female-male sequence. That is, in ordering other characters, males order other males at a higher rate than females order males. Males also order other males in a higher proportion than would be expected from the population distribution. The male-male sequence occurs in 82% of the orders behavior sequences.

When females are on the receiving end of an order, the rate is slightly lower (closer to 2:1), but the proportion of females being ordered is nearly that of what would be expected in the population. The insignificant z-score shows that females receive orders from both sexes in proportion to their presence in the population. Although the average number of female receivers is quite different for males and females, this could be a function of the larger number of orders given by males.

The effectiveness of an order, whether it is followed or not followed, is demonstrated in Table 2c. An effective order (one that is followed) occurred three times more for a male order giver than for a female order giver. That is, the rate of followed orders was much higher for males than

for females. The large and negative z shows that the total number of orders followed was not distributed as would be expected in the population, with males having more than their share of orders followed (82% of the orders followed were given by males).

In the case of an ineffective order (one that was not followed), the male rate is again much higher than the female rate. The proportion of ineffective orders given by males and females conforms, however, to the proportion expected from the population distribution of males and females. Therefore, support is found for the hypothesis that orders given by male characters will be followed more often than orders given by female characters, but only in terms of the rate of occurrence.

In summary, the findings for the Orders category are these:

-Males have a higher rate of order giving than females, regardless of the type of order given;

-The total number of orders given by males is much greater than would have been expected from the distribution of males and females in the population;

-On the average, males are the receivers of orders given by males more than receivers of orders given by females;

-Females receive more orders on the average from males than from females, but in proportion to the expected distribution of males and females in the population;

-Orders given by males are followed at a higher rate than those given by females.

-Male orders are also not followed at a higher rate than female orders, but the proportion of orders not

Table 2

Means, t-tests, and z-scores: Orders Category, All Shows

female N = 294
male N = 395

Table 2a: Order Types

	Females*	Males	Significance of t	z
Authority Orders	0.27	1.33	<.0001	-7.68[c]
Simple Orders	0.92	2.12	<.0001	-1.97[a]
Authority Explained Orders	0.06	0.28	<.0001	-3.21[b]
Simple Explained Orders	0.20	0.57	<.0001	-2.42[b]
ALL ORDER TYPES	1.45	4.29	<.0001	-7.19[c]

Table 2b: Receivers

	Females	Males	Significance of t	z
Female Receivers	0.41	0.94	<.0001	-1.42
Male Receivers	0.91	2.99	<.0001	-7.35[c]

Table 2c: Orders Followed

	Females	Males	Significance of t	z
Yes (followed)	0.94	3.17	<.0001	-7.84[c]
No (not followed)	0.53	1.21	<.0001	-1.43

[a] p .05
[b] p .01
[c] p .0001

*For all tables, the column females designates the mean number of behaviors originated by female TV characters. The column male designates the mean number of behaviors for male TV characters.

followed for both sexes is not significantly different from the proportion expected from the distribution of males and females in the population.

POST HOC ANALYSES: GIVES ORDERS

Tables 3-8 present the results of the post hoc analyses for program types (Tables 3-4), broadcast time (Tables 5-6), and viewing preference (Tables 7-8). These post hoc tests are a way of looking for the sources of the large sex differences found in the "all shows" analysis of the Orders category.

Program Types

Table 3 shows the results of tests done on the types of orders given in Situation Comedies, Action Adventure programs and medical and family dramas (Medfam dramas). Saturday Morning programming is not included in this breakdown.

Overall, the differences in the average number of orders given by males and females in any program type are small. The male rate for Action Adventure programs for all orders (Table 3b) is almost twice that of the female rate. This may be attributed to the large difference in the average number of authority orders given by males and by females.

The other order type which shows a difference in the rate of male and female order giving is in Table 3c. The male rate of simple explained order giving in Medfam Dramas is higher than the female rate. This difference is not large enough, however, to affect the overall rate of order giving in Medfam Dramas.

The proportions of orders given by males and females in each of these program types show some interesting contrasts. Table 3a shows that in Situation Comedies, order giving is overrepresented as a female behavior (34%). While the average number of orders given by males and females in Situation Comedies is almost the same, female orders are present in a greater proportion than would be expected in the TV character population. This is particularly true for female simple orders. The large and positive z-score for this variable shows that, in Situation Comedies, simple order giving is a female attribute.

On the other hand, Table 3b provides the opposite results for Action Adventure shows. Order giving is a male attribute for all orders (88%), authority and authority explained orders (93%) and simple orders (87%). Only in simple explained orders do the proportions of male and female orders equal what would be expected from the population distribution of males and females.

Results for the receivers of orders are similar to those for order types. Table 4a shows no difference in the average number of orders received by either sex in Situation Comedies. But, females give orders to other females at a much higher proportion than would be expected in the population (46%). In Action Adventure programs (Table 4b), the results parallel those found for all shows: males (88%) and females (89%) are ordered by males at a higher rate and out of proportion to what is expected in the population. There is no difference in the receivers of orders in Medfam Dramas (Table 4c).

Table 3: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Order Types by Program Type

Table 3a: Situation Comedies

	Females (N=32)	Males (N=73)	Significance of t	z score
Authority Orders	0.69	1.03	n.s.	-0.92
Simple Orders	2.59	1.55	n.s.	+4.82[c]
Authority Explained Orders	0.13	0.37	n.s.	-1.64
Simple Explained Orders	0.69	0.62	n.s.	+1.10
ALL ORDER TYPES	4.09	3.56	n.s.	+2.84[b]

Table 3b: Action Adventures

	Females (N=34)	Males (N=152)	Significance of t	z-score
Authority Orders	0.47	1.59	<.01	-7.56[c]
Simple Orders	1.59	2.28	n.s.	-6.08[c]
Authority Explained Orders	0.21	0.32	n.s.	-2.42[b]
Simple Explained Orders	0.50	0.43	n.s.	-1.24
ALL ORDER TYPES	2.77	4.62	<.05	-9.66[c]

Table 3c: Medfam Dramas

	Females (N=28)	Males (N=64)	Significance of t	z-score
Authority Orders	1.39	1.72	n.s.	-0.18
Simple Orders	2.04	1.88	n.s.	+1.52
Authority Explained Orders	0.21	0.16	n.s.	+1.16
Simple Explained Orders	0.18	0.50	<.05	-1.85[a]
ALL ORDER TYPES	3.82	4.25	n.s.	+0.58

Table 4: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Order Receivers and Followed by Program Type

Table 4a: Situation Comedies

	Females (N=32)	Males (N=73)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Receivers	1.88	0.96	n.s.	+4.94[c]
Male Receivers	1.97	2.23	n.s.	+0.30
Yes (followed)	2.53	2.58	n.s.	+1.20
No (not followed)	1.63	1.07	n.s.	+3.36[b]

Table 4b: Action Adventures

	Females (N=34)	Males (N=152)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Receivers	0.53	0.97	<.05	-4.72[c]
Male Receivers	2.00	3.44	<.05	-8.52[c]
Yes (followed)	1.91	3.43	<.05	-8.66[c]
No (not followed)	0.91	1.32	n.s.	-4.61[c]

Table 4c: Medfam Dramas

	Female (N=28)	Males (N=64)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Receivers	1.14	1.42	n.s.	-0.20
Male Receivers	2.46	2.55	n.s.	+0.89
Yes (followed)	2.38	3.11	n.s.	-0.83
No (not followed)	1.54	1.18	n.s.	+2.28[a]

The effectiveness of order giving also shows some interesting results. While female order giving occurs at a high proportion in Situation Comedies, so does the proportion (40%) of female orders that are not followed (Table 4a). This is also true for female orders not folowed (36%) in Medfam Dramas (Table 4c). In Action Adventure programming, however, male orders are followed at a higher rate and in a higher proportion than would be expected (89%). Male orders are also unsuccessful in a higher proportion (87%), but the rates for unsuccessful orders are about the same for each sex (Table 4b).

Broadcast Time

The results for broadcast time follow a similar pattern (Tables 5-6). It should be noted that most Action Adventure shows are aired during the 9-11 p.m. time period (Tables 5-6c); and many of the Situation Comedies appear between 8 and 9 p.m. (Table 5-6b).

Saturday Morning programming (Table 5a) shows no difference in the rate of all orders given by males and females, but does show differences for authority and authority explained orders. The large and negative z-scores show, however, that regardless of the type of order given, order giving is overrepresented as a male behavior (83%).

Table 5b shows a proportional difference for all orders given during 8-9 p.m. (77% male). This may be attributed to the overrepresentation of authority order giving as a male behavior. Otherwise, there is no difference in the average

number of the expected proportion of orders given by the sexes. Table 5c shows average and proportional differences in the male direction for order giving in the 9-11 p.m. time period.

While Saturday Morning and the 8-9 p.m. periods show no differences in the average number of order received by males and females (Tables 6a & b), males proportionately receive more orders from males in both time periods (83%, 80% respectively). The male-female orders behavior sequence is proportionately overrepresented (88%) during Saturday Morning programming, but not during the 8-9 p.m. period.

Table 6c shows somce curious results which may be due to females outnumbering males in the 9-11 p.m. period. While males order both sexes at a much higher rate than females, only the male-male orders behavior sequence is overrepresented (82%) as indicated by the large and negative z-score. There is no difference in the proportions of females receiving orders from males or females.

Table 6c shows that the 9-11 p.m. period is the only time period during which the average number of orders followed and not followed is greater for males than for females. While successful orders from males are proportionately overrepresented (83%) during the period, there is no proportional difference for orders not followed.

Tables 6a & b show no differences in the rates of effectiveness for orders given during Saturday Morning and the 8-9 p.m. period. Male orders are followed in a greater

Table 5: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Order Types by Broadcast Time

Table 5a: Saturday Morning

	Females (N=25)	Males (N=106)	Significance of t	z-score
Authority Orders	0.12	0.94	<.01	-5.53[c]
Simple Orders	3.00	2.43	n.s.	-1.85[a]
Authority Explained Orders	0.04	0.23	<.05	-2.68[b]
Simple Explained Orders	0.56	0.76	n.s.	-2.57[b]
ALL ORDER TYPES	3.72	4.35	n.s.	-5.45[c]

Table 5b: 8-9 p.m.

	Females (N=46)	Males (N=157)	Significance of t	z-score
Authority orders	0.83	1.24	n.s.	-3.69[b]
Simple Orders	2.39	1.92	n.s.	-0.11
Authority Explained Orders	0.22	0.27	n.s.	-1.25
Simple Explained Orders	0.50	0.51	n.s.	-1.11
ALL ORDER TYPES	3.94	3.94	n.s.	-2.79[b]

Table 5c: 9 - 11 p.m.

	Females (N=223)	Males (N=132)	Significance of t	z-score
Authority Orders	0.18	1.76	<.0001	-4.66[c]
Simple Orders	0.38	2.11	<.0001	-1.66[a]
Authority Explained Orders	0.03	0.32	<.0001	-1.94[a]
Simple Explained Orders	0.09	0.48	<.0001	-0.49
ALL ORDER TYPES	0.68	4.66	<.0001	-4.36[c]

Table 6: Means, t-test, z-scores:
Order Receivers and Followed by Broadcast Times

Table 6a: Saturday Morning

	Females (N=25)	Males (N=106)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Receivers	0.36	0.61	n.s.	-2.88[b]
Male Receivers	2.64	3.11	n.s.	-4.64[c]
Yes (followed)	2.56	3.23	n.s.	-5.13[c]
No (not followed)	1.16	1.18	n.s.	-2.35[b]

Table 6b: 8 - 9 p.m.

	Females (N=46)	Males (N=157)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Receivers	1.15	0.81	n.s.	+0.67
Male Receivers	2.39	2.80	n.s.	-3.65[b]
Yes (followed)	2.54	2.90	n.s.	-3.49[b]
No (not followed)	1.44	1.13	n.s.	0.00

Table 6c: 9 - 11 p.m.

	Females (N=223)	Males (N=132)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Receivers	0.26	1.37	<.0001	-1.02
Male Receivers	0.40	3.11	<.0001	-4.53[c]
Yes (followed)	0.43	3.43	<.0001	-5.10[c]
No (not followed)	0.27	1.33	<.0001	-0.59

proportion, however, in both time periods (84%, 80%, respectively). There is no difference in the proportion of orders not followed during the 8-9 p.m. period, but a greater proportion of male orders are not followed during Saturday Morning programming (81%).

Viewing Preference

The results of the breakdown of shows by viewing preference can be found in Tables 7 - 8. It sould be noted that the viewing preferences of our sample (those shows for which 40% or more of the respondents indicated they viewed regularly), tend to conform to broadcast time patterns. That is, many of the preferred shows were aired Saturday morning or before 9:00 p.m.

Table 7a shows no difference in the rate of order giving by the sexes, regardless of the order type for preferred shows (Top 40). Table 7b shows a large difference in the rate of order giving for non-preferred shows (Low 60).

There are proportional differences, though. Order giving is overrepresented as a male behavior in both tables (78%, 81%, respectively). Only simple orders in preferred shows and simple explained orders in non-preferred shows are present in proportions that would be expected from the population distribution.

Table 8a shows no difference in the rate of orders received by either sex in the preferred shows, but the male-male orders behavior sequence is overrepresented (81%) as indicated by the large and negative z-score. Table 8b

Table 7: Means, t-test, z-scores:

Order Types by Viewing Preference

Table 7a: Preferred Shows

	Females (N=54)	Males (N=185)	Significance of t	z-score
Authority Orders	0.63	1.18	n.s.	-4.82[c]
Simple Orders	2.56	1.90	n.s.	+0.72
Authority Explained Orders	0.17	0.30	n.s.	-2.49[b]
Simple Explained Orders	0.48	0.61	n.s.	-2.29[a]
ALL ORDER TYPES	3.83	4.00	n.s.	-3.52[b]

Table 7b: Non-Preferred Shows

	Females (N=240)	Males (N=210)	Significance of t	z-score
Authority Orders	0.19	1.47	<.0001	-5.98[c]
Simple Orders	0.55	2.31	<.0001	-3.18[b]
Authority Explained Orders	0.04	0.25	<.0001	-2.28[a]
Simple Explained Orders	0.13	0.52	<.0001	-1.14
ALL ORDER TYPES	0.91	4.55	<.0001	-6.51[c]

Table 8: Means, t-tests, z-scores:
Order Receivers and Followed by Viewing Preference

Table 8a: Preferred Shows

	Females (N=54)	Males (N=185)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Receivers	1.26	0.84	n.s.	+1.21
Male Receivers	2.13	2.68	n.s.	-3.45[b]
Yes (followed)	2.52	2.94	n.s.	-4.07[c]
No (not followed)	1.43	1.15	n.s.	-0.13

Table 8b: Non-Preferred Shows

	Females (N=240)	Males (N-210)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Receivers	0.21	1.03	<.0001	-2.89[b]
Male Receivers	0.63	2.26	<.0001	-5.77[c]
Yes (followed)	0.58	3.37	<.0001	-6.88[c]
No (not followed)	0.33	1.26	<.0001	-1.82[a]

shows differences in both rates and proportions for orders followed and not followed in non-preferred shows. Male orders are both followed and not followed at a higher rate than female orders and are overrepresented as a male behavior (84%, 77% respectively).

In summary, post hoc findings for the Orders category shows:

-Only during Situation Comedies is order giving overrepresented as a female behavior, but that behavior is not particularly effective in that female orders are not followed out of proportion to what would be expected in the population.

-Action Adventure programming and the 9-11 p.m. time period show the highest rates of male order giving behavior.

-In all time periods, male orders are proportionately overrepresented as being effective (i.e., followed).

-Saturday Morning programs show the only difference in proportion of orders not followed, with ineffective orders being overrepresented as a male behavior.

-Preferred Programs show no difference in the rate of order giving by the sexes, but overrepresent order giving as a male behavior.

-Non-preferred programs show a rate and a proportional difference in order giving in the male direction.

-Preferred and non-preferred programs both overrepresent male orders as being more effective than what would be expected in the population.

NURTURANCE/SUCCORANCE: NEEDS SUPPORT

The results of the "all shows" analysis of the second content category, Needs Support, appear in Table 9.

Table 9 shows that, across all shows, males were in need of support more often than females, but that needing support occurred as a female behavior in a greater

proportion than what would be expected from the population distribution of males and females. The reason for these seemingly contradictory results can be found in Tables 9b and 9c.

Table 9b shows that males need physical support, on the average, three times as often as females. That is, the rate of male need for physical support is much higher than that of the female rate. The large and negative z-scores for all types of physical support needs further show that males needed support in a much larger proportion (82%) than would have been expected in the population distribution of males and females. Both tests, then, support the hypothesis that male characters will be portrayed in physically succorant conditions more than female characters.

Support is also shown in Table 9c for the hypothesis that female characters will be portrayed in emotionally succorant conditions more than male characters. While there is no difference in average number of emotional support needs of males and females, there is a large difference proportionally. 40% of the emotional support needs are female while female characters constitute only 27% of the population. This difference is indicated by the large and positive z-scores. These differences in need for support hold regardless of the specific type of support needed, be it a physical type or an emotional type.

Although not hypothesized, there are clear sex differences in whether the character needing support asked for it

(Table 9d). Males did not ask for support at a much higher rate than did females. There is no difference in the average number of supports asked for by males and females. The difference of proportions test shows, however, that not asking for support was overrepresented as a male behavior (78% of supports not asked for) and that asking for support was overrepresented as a female behavior (38% of supports asked for).

Table 9e shows that males both were and were not responded to at a higher rate than females. Table 9f shows that males both were given and were not given support at a higher rate than females. The difference of proportions test on theses variables shows, however, that female support needs were responded to in a proportion greater (38%) than that expected from the population and support was given to females in a proportion (35%) greater than that expected from the population (27%) of television characters.

These tests give only indirect support for the hypothesis that females will be nurtured for emotional succorance more than males. This is due to the fact that the data were not structured so that a direct test of this hypothesis could be made. It can be inferred that indirect support is shown, however, from the evidence that females are typically portrayed as needing emotional support. Since this is the case, it may be inferred that the responses and the support given is directed mainly toward females in an emotionally succorant condition.

The same is true for the hypothesis that males will be nurtured for physical succorance more than females. In this instance, however, there is indirect non-support for the hypothesis. The difference of proportions test shows that males were not responded to in greater proportion than would have been expected in the population. Support was not given in proportions equal to those expected from the population. Drawing the same inference, there is no support for this hypothesis.

Table 9g shows that the rates of females responding to either sex are about the same. Males, however, average more responses to males in need of support than to females. The large and positive z-scores show that females were responded to by either sex in a greater proportion than were males. These results do not support the hypothesis that females will respond to succorance with nurturance more than males. They do show, though, that females get a bigger response from both sexes than do males when they need support.

In summary, the findings for the Support category show:

-Males have a higher rate and proportion of physical need for support.

-Females have a higher proportion of emotional need for support.

-Asking for support occurred as a female behavior in a proportion greater than expected, while not asking for support occurred as a male behavior in a proportion greater than expected from the distribution of males and females in the population.

-Response or non-response and giving or not giving support occurs at a higher rate for males needing support.

Table 9: Means, t-tests, z-scores:
Needs Support Category, All Shows

	Females	Males	Significance of t	z-score
Table 9a: ALL SUPPORT TYPES	2.16	3.47	<.0001	+3.20[b]
	N = 251	N = 357		

Table 9b: Physical Support Types	Females	Males	Significance of t	z-score
Physical Internal	0.21	0.62	<.0001	-2.86[b]
Physical External	0.25	0.85	<.0001	-4.35[c]
Physical Confinement	0.10	0.28	<.0001	-1.81[a]
ALL PHYSICAL SUPPORT TYPES	0.56	1.75	<.0001	-5.45[c]

Table 9c: Emotional Support Types	Females	Males	Significance of t	z-score
Ego Support	0.68	0.70	n.s.	+6.25[c]
Concern for Others	0.34	0.27	n.s.	+6.03[c]
Psycho Support	0.58	0.75	n.s.	+3.65[b]
ALL EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TYPES	1.60	1.72	n.s.	+8.98[c]

Table 9d: Support Asked	Females	Males	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (support asked)	1.20	1.35	n.s.	+7.23[c]
No (support not asked)	0.67	1.66	<.0001	-3.11[b]

Table 9e: Support Responded to	Females	Males	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (response)	1.61	2.10	<.05	+6.16[c]
No (no response)	0.26	0.91	<.0001	-4.57[c]

Table 9f: Support Given	Females	Males	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (support given)	1.16	1.52	<.05	+5.14[c]
No (support not given)	0.70	1.44	<.0001	-0.94

Table 9g: Respondents	Females	Males	Significance of t	z-score
Female Respondents	0.39	0.44	n.s.	+4.11[c]
Male Respondents	1.14	1.50	<.05	+4.95[c]

Females are responded to and given support in a higher proportion than would be expected in the population, while no response to males was overrepresented.

-Response to a female need for support occurs more than would be expected from the population distribution of males and females.

POST HOC ANALYSES: NEEDS SUPPORT

Tables 10-19 present the post hoc analyses of support needs for program type, broadcast time, and viewing preference.

Program Type

Consistent with the "all shows" results are the finding for physical and emotional support types in Situation Comedies. Tables 10a and 11a show that there is no difference by sex in the rates of needing emotional support, but there is a large difference in needing physical support. These results hold regardless of specific support type needed. Tables 10a and 11a also show that needing physical support is overrepresented as a male behavior (92%), while needing emotional support is a female behavior (41%).

Tables 10b and 11b show a similar pattern of results for Action Adventure programs. Females have a much higher rate of needing emotional support. There is no sex difference in the rate of needing physical support. Nonetheless, emotional support is again overrepresented as a female behavior (40%) and physical support as a male behavior (81%). Tables 10c and 11c show the same patterns of rate and proportional difference for Medfam Dramas, but not to the extent seen in Situation Comedies and Action Adventures.

Table 10: Means, t-tests, z-scores:
Physical Support Types by Program Type

Table 10a: Situation Comedies

	Females (N=38)	Males (N=70)	Significance of t	z-score
Physical Internal	0.03	0.26	<.05	-2.08[a]
Physical External	0.11	0.49	<.05	-2.21[a]
Physical Confinement	0.0	0.09	<.05	-1.74[a]
ALL PHYSICAL SUPPORT TYPES	0.13	0.83	<.01	-3.41[b]

Table 10b: Action Adventures

	Females (N=40)	Males (N=125)	Significance of t	z-score
Physical Internal	0.60	0.54	n.s.	-.23
Physical External	0.60	0.95	n.s.	-2.81[b]
Physical Confinement	0.10	0.34	n.s.	-2.68[b]
ALL PHYSICAL SUPPORT TYPES	1.30	1.82	n.s.	-3.23[b]

Table 10c: Medfam Dramas

	Females (N= 40)	Males (N=125)	Significance of t	z-score
Physical Internal	0.26	0.67	n.s.	-1.41
Physical External	0.37	0.47	n.s.	+.39
Physical Confinement	0.15	1.37	n.s.	-4.19[c]
ALL PHYSICAL SUPPORT TYPES	0.78	1.28	n.s.	-.49

Table 11: Means, t-test, z-scores:
Emotional Support Types by Program Type

Table 11a: Situation Comedies

	Females (N=38)	Males (N=70)	Significance of t	z-score
Ego Support	1.47	1.21	n.s.	+3.42[b]
Concern for Others	0.74	0.34	n.s.	+4.38[c]
Psycho Support	1.34	1.27	n.s.	+2.47[b]
ALL EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TYPES	3.55	2.83	n.s.	+5.56[c]

Table 11b: Action Adventures

	Females (N=40)	Males (N=125)	Significance of t	z-score
Ego Support	1.25	0.38	<0.01	+5.49[c]
Concern for Others	0.60	0.29	n.s.	+2.34[b]
Psycho Support	0.85	0.60	n.s.	+1.08
ALL EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TYPES	2.70	1.27	<0.01	+4.97[d]

Table 11c: Medfam Dramas

	Females (N=27)	Males (N=51)	Significance of t	z-score
Ego Support	1.59	0.86	n.s.	+4.87[c]
Concern for Others	0.93	0.49	n.s.	+3.47[c]
Psycho Support	1.63	0.94	n.s.	+4.45[c]
ALL EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TYPES	4.15	2.29	<0.05	+7.44[c]

Table 12 shows little difference in the asking or not asking for support. Only in Action Adventure programs do females ask for support at a higher rate than males, otherwise there is no sex difference in rate of asking. All three program types also show that asking for support is overrepresented as a female behavior. Not asking for support occurs in proportion to what would be expected from the population distribution of males and females.

Table 12a shows some interesting results for the response variable in Situation Comedies. Females are not responded to at a higher rate than males and not responding to females is proportionally overrepresented (63%). Table 12b shows, in contrast, that while there is no sex difference in the rate of non-response, it is overrepresented as a male behavior in Action Adventures (83%). There is no sex difference in non-response in Medfam Dramas (Table 12c). Being responded to, however, shows no sex difference in rates in Situation Comedies and Medfam Dramas. Females are responded to more on the average than males in Action Adventures. Being responded to is proportionally overrepresented as a female behavior regardless of program type.

Table 13 shows that there is little difference of either kind to the non-giving of support to either sex. There is a sex difference, however, in support given. Action Adventure programs and Medfam Dramas show a higher rate of support given to females. Situation Comedies and Medfam Dramas show a greater proportion of giving support to females than would

Table 12: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Support Asked and Responded to by Program Type

Table 12a: Situation Comedies

	Females (N=38)	Males (N=70)	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (support asked)	2.42	1.84	n.s.	+4.84[c]
No (support not asked)	0.82	1.20	n.s.	0.00
Yes (response)	3.08	2.56	n.s.	+4.84[c]
No (no response)	1.58	0.50	<0.01	+7.82[c]

Table 12b: Action Adventures

	Females (N=40)	Males (N=125)	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (support asked)	1.85	1.16	< .05	+2.28[a]
No (support not asked)	1.65	1.59	n.s.	-.83
Yes (response)	2.85	1.92	<0.05	+2.15[a]
No (no response)	0.65	0.83	n.s.	-1.78[a]

Table 12c: Medfam Dramas

	Females (N=27)	Males (N= 51)	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (support asked)	3.04	1.82	n.s.	+5.97[c]
No (support not asked)	1.04	1.02	n.s.	+1.50
Yes (response)	3.82	2.45	n.s.	+6.10[c]
No (no response)	0.30	0.39	n.s.	0.0

Table 13: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Support Given and Respondents by Program Type

Table 13a: Situation Comedies

	Females (N=38)	Males (N=70)	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (support given)	2.42	1.70	n.s.	+5.43[c]
No (support not given)	0.82	1.34	n.s.	-.60
Female respondents	1.21	0.47	< 0.01	+6.36[c]
Male respondents	1.79	1.97	n.s.	+1.88[a]

Table 13b: Action Adventures

	Females (N=40)	Males (N=125)	Significance t	z
Yes (support given)	1.98	1.37	< 0.05	+1.56
No (support not given)	1.53	1.36	n.s.	-.15
Female respondents	0.48	0.38	n.s.	+.28
Male respondents	2.35	1.44	< .05	+2.72[b]

Table 13c: Medfam Dramas

	Females (N=27)	Males (N=51)	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (support given)	2.74	1.55	< .05	+6.02[c]
No (support not given)	1.30	1.08	n.s.	+2.62[b]
Female respondents	0.89	0.61	n.s.	+2.73[b]
Male respondents	2.74	1.69	n.s.	+5.53[c]

be expected (43%, 48%, respectively).

Table 13 shows that, in general, females are responded to more than males regardless of program type. Females are responded to by both sexes in a greater proportion than would be expected in Situation Comedies and Medfam Dramas. In Action Adventure programs, however, females are responded to only by males in a greater proportion than would be expected (34%). Males also respond more to females on the average in Action Adventures. There is no difference in rate or proportion of female respondents for Action Adventure programs.

Broadcast Time

The broadcast time breakdowns for support type show fairly clear-cut results in Tables 14 and 15. When there are significant differences by sex, either in rate or proportion, they are in the male direction for physical support, and in the female direction for emotional support.

There are no sex differences in the average number of emotional needs for support, regardless of broadcast time. The evening time periods (Tables 14b & c) have males needing all types of physical support more than females.

Although all physical support types are overrepresented as male behaviors regardless of broadcast time, different, specific support types within each broadcast time contribute to the overall significant difference. Physical internal (83%) and external supports (84%) are overrepresented as male behaviors in Saturday Morning programming. Similar differences are found for physical confinement in the 8-9 p.m.

Table 14: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Physical Support Types by Broadcast Time

Table 14a: Saturday Morning

	Females (N=28)	Males (N=111)	Significance of t	z-score
Physical Internal	0.75	0.92	n.s.	-2.44[b]
Physical External	0.86	1.15	n.s.	-3.10[b]
Physical Confinement	0.61	0.41	n.s.	0.0
ALL PHYSICAL SUPPORT TYPES	2.21	2.48	n.s.	-3.56[b]

Table 14b: 8 - 9 p.m.

	Females (N=51)	Males (N=126)	Significance of t	z-score
Physical Internal	0.26	0.40	n.s.	-1.14
Physical External	0.41	0.66	n.s.	-1.55
Physical Confinement	0.06	0.25	<0.05	-2.33[b]
ALL PHYSICAL SUPPORT TYPES	0.73	1.30	<0.05	-2.71[b]

Table 14c: 9 - 11 p.m.

	Females (N=172)	Males (N=120)	Significance of t	z-score
Physical Internal	0.11	0.58	<0.0001	-1.20
Physical External	0.10	0.78	<0.0001	-2.78[b]
Physical Confinement	0.03	0.20	<0.01	-.47
ALL PHYSICAL SUPPORT TYPES	0.24	1.56	<0.0001	-3.13[b]

Table 15: Means, t-test, z-score
Emotional Support Types by Broadcast Time

Table 15a: Saturday Morning

	Females (N=28)	Males (N=111)	Significance of t	z-score
Ego Support	0.79	0.66	n.s.	-1.41
Concern for others	0.29	0.09	n.s.	+1.58
Psycho Support	0.57	0.51	n.s.	-1.05
ALL EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TYPES	1.64	1.26	n.s.	-.66

Table 15b: 8-9 p.m.

Ego Support	1.28	0.98	n.s.	+2.30[a]
Concern for others	0.63	0.38	n.s.	+2.15[b]
Psycho Support	0.92	1.07	n.s.	-.33
ALL EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TYPES	2.82	2.43	n.s.	+2.33[b]
	(N=51)	(N=126)		

Table 15c: 9-11 p.m.

Ego Support	0.49	0.45	n.s.	+9.04[c]
Concern for others	0.26	0.31	n.s.	+5.74[c]
Psycho Support	0.48	0.64	n.s.	+6.96[c]
ALL EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TYPES	1.23	1.40	n.s.	+12.63[c]
	(N=172)	(N=120)		

period, and for physical external support in the 9-11 p.m. period.

While there is no proportional difference in needing emotional support during the Saturday Morning period, it occurs during the evening time periods in a higher proportion for females than would be expected (Table 15).

There are also clear sex differences in asking for support regardless of braodcast time. Saturday Morning (Table 16a) shows the only difference in rate of asking. Females ask for support at a higher rate than males. Across all broadcast times, however, asking for suppport is overrepresented as a female behavior.

Not asking for support occurs at a higher rate for males during Saturday Morning and the 9-11 p.m. intervals. Males do not ask for support in a higher proportion than expected only during Saturday Morning shows (86%).

In terms of being responded to and given support, Tables 16 and 17 show that males are responded to and given support at a higher rate than females only during the 9-11 p.m. time period. Saturday Morning overrepresents males being given support (79%), while the evening time periods overrepresent females being given support (34%, 8-9 p.m.; 46%, 9-11 p.m.). The same is true for being responded to, except that Saturday Morning shows no difference in proportion.

Males are not responded to and not given support at a higher rate than females from 9-11 p.m., but not giving support to females occurs at a higher proportion during

Table 16: Means, t-tests, z-scores

Support Asked and Responded to by Broadcast Time

Table 16a: Saturday Morning

	Females (N=28)	Males (N=111)	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (Support asked)	1.93	1.04	<0.05	+1.38
No (Support not asked)	1.50	2.32	<0.05	-5.07[c]
Yes (Response)	2.54	1.85	n.s.	-.54
No (No response)	0.89	1.48	n.s.	-4.26[c]

Table 16b: 8-9 p.m.

	Females (N=51)	Males (N=126)	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (Support asked)	2.02	1.72	n.s.	+2.14[a]
No (Support not asked)	1.08	1.33	n.s.	-.76
Yes (Response)	2.80	2.48	n.s.	+2.11[a]
No (No response)	0.31	0.58	<0.05	-1.91[a]

Table 16c: 9-11 p.m.

	Females (N=172)	Males (N=120)	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (Support asked)	0.84	1.25	n.s.	+8.51[c]
No (Support not asked)	0.41	1.39	<0.0001	+.88
Yes (Response	1.11	1.93	<0.01	+8.44[c]
No (No response)	0.14	0.72	<0.0001	-1.28

Table 17: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Support Given and Respondents by Broadcast Time

Table 17a: Saturday Morning

	Females (N=28)	Males (N=111)	Significance of t	z-score
Support Given	1.68	1.58	n.s.	-1.96[a]
Support Not Given	1.75	1.77	n.s.	-3.29[b]
Female Respondents	0.29	0.41	n.s.	-1.87[a]
Male Respondents	1.75	1.20	n.s.	0.0

Table 17b: 8-9 p.m.

	Females (N=51)	Males (N=126)	Significance of t	z-score
Support Given	2.18	1.69	n.s.	+3.01[b]
Support Not Given	0.90	1.27	n.s.	-1.56
Female Respondents	0.78	0.46	n.s.	+3.20[b]
Male Respondents	2.02	1.89	n.s.	+1.34

Table 17c: 9-11 p.m.

	Females (N=172)	Males (N=120)	Significance of t	z-score
Support Given	0.78	1.30	$<.05$	+7.42[c]
Support Not Given	0.47	1.33	$<.0001$	+2.33[b]
Female Respondents	0.29	0.44	n.s.	+4.66[c]
Male Respondents	0.77	1.38	$<.01$	+6.76[c]

this period (34%). Males are not responded to more than females from 8-9 p.m., but there is no sex difference in not being given support. Saturday Morning overrepresents not responding to (87%) and not giving support (80%) to males.

Table 17 shows that only during the 9-11 p.m. interval is there a difference in respondents. Males responding to males needing support occurs at a higher rate than males responding to females. Proportionately, however, both sexes respond more to females (40% female and 44% male respondents). Table 17b shows that, proportionally, females respond more to females (41%) and there is no difference in the responding of males during the 8-9 p.m. period.

Saturday Morning (Table 17a) shows a much different result. Males respond to both sexes in their expected proportion, but females respond to males (85%) at a greater proportion than would be expected.

Viewing Preference

In terms of needing support types, the preferred programs show a distinct pattern of results (Tables 18a). Males show a higher rate and proportion (87%) of needing physical support. Females show a higher rate and proportion (42%) of needing emotional support.

The results for the non-preferred programs are not as clear cut (Table 18b). Males have a higher rate for needing all types of physical support and emotional support in terms of Psychological support. There is no sex difference in rates for the other two emotional types of support.

The difference of proportions test for non-preferred programs provides some interesting results. Needing physical internal support is overrepresented (35%) as a female behavior, while needing physical external support is overrepresented (84%) as a male behavior. There is no sex difference in physical confinement. Needing emotional support is overrepresented (36%) as a female behavior, with the exception of psychological support, where there is no difference.

Asking for support in preferred shows (Table 19a) occurs at a higher rate for females and is overrepresented (30%) as a female behavior. While asking for support in non-preferred shows (Table 19b) is overrepresented as a female behavior (38%) it occurs at a higher rate for males. In both the Top 40 and Low 60 programs, males do not ask for support more often than females (80%, 75% respectively) with the exception of the non-preferred proportion, which shows no difference.

Table 19 shows very similar results for being responded to and given support. Preferred shows have higher female rates of being responded to and given support. Non-preferred shows have higher male rates on these variables. There is no difference in not being given support in preferred shows, but males have a higher rate of not being responded to. Non-preferred programming has a higher rate on both variables for males.

There is no proportional difference in not being given support or not being responded to in non-preferred programs. Preferred programs overrepresent these variables as a male

Table 18: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Support Types by Viewing Preference

Table 18a: Preferred Shows

	Females (N=64)	Males (N=180)	Significance of t	z-score
Physical Internal	0.17	0.78	<0.0001	-5.48[c]
Physical External	0.63	1.05	<0.05	-3.27[b]
Physical Confinement	0.13	0.31	<0.01	-2.55[b]
ALL PHYSICAL SUPPORT TYPES	0.92	2.14	<0.0001	-6.52[c]
Ego Support	1.58	0.87	< 0.05	+4.51[c]
Concern for Others	0.84	0.32	< 0.01	+5.13[c]
Psycho Support	1.23	0.61	<0.05	+4.59[c]
ALL EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TYPES	3.66	1.79	< 0.01	+8.02[c]

Table 18b: Non-Preferred Shows

	Females (N=187)	Males (N=177)	Significance of t	z-score
Physical Internal	0.23	0.45	< 0.05	+1.83[a]
Physical External	0.12	0.66	<0.0001	-2.88[b]
Physical Confinement	0.09	0.25	< 0.01	+.29
ALL PHYSICAL SUPPORT TYPES	0.43	1.36	<0.0001	-.75
Ego Support	0.37	0.53	n.s.	+4.59[c]
Concern for Others	0.17	0.22	n.s.	+3.23[b]
Psycho Support	0.35	0.90	<0.0001	+.75
ALL EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TYPES	0.89	1.65	<0.01	+4.52[c]

Table 19: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Support Asked, Responded To, Given, and Respondents by Viewing Preference

Table 19a: Preferred Shows

	Females (N=64)	Males (N=180)	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (support asked)	2.34	1.32	<0.01	$+5.14^{c}$
No (support not asked)	1.38	2.01	<0.05	-3.51^{b}
Yes (response)	3.25	2.19	<0.05	$+4.13^{c}$
No (no response)	0.48	1.13	<0.0001	-4.71^{c}
Yes (support given)	2.45	1.56	<0.05	$+4.20^{c}$
No (support not given)	1.25	1.67	n.s.	-2.65^{b}
Female respondent	0.81	0.46	<0.05	$+3.11^{b}$
Male respondent	2.33	1.47	<0.05	$+4.09^{c}$

Table 19b: Non-Preferred Shows

	Females (N=187)	Males (N=177)	Significance of t	z-score
Yes (support asked)	0.81	1.38	<0.01	$+5.09^{c}$
No (support not asked)	0.42	1.31	<0.0001	-.64
Yes (response)	1.05	2.01	<0.0001	$+4.60^{c}$
No (no response)	0.18	0.68	<0.0001	-1.45
Yes (support given)	0.72	1.49	<0.0001	$+3.17^{b}$
No (support not given)	0.51	1.21	<0.0001	+1.53
Female respondent	0.24	0.41	≤ 0.05	$+2.69^{b}$
Male Respondents	0.73	1.54	<0.0001	$+2.90^{b}$

behavior. Being given support and being responded to are overrepresented as female behaviors in both the preferred and non-preferred programs.

Females are responded to by both sexes at a higher rate and proportion than males in preferred shows (Table 19a). Non-preferred programs show, however, that males are responded to at a higher rate by both sexes, while females are responded to in a greater proportion by both sexes (Table 19b).

In summary, the post hoc findings for the Support Category show:

-Regardless of program type, the results show a general pattern of higher male rate and overrepresentation of males needing physical support, while needing emotional support is overrepresented as a female behavior.

-Regardless of program type, females needing support are responded to and given support at a higher rate and in a greater proportion than males.

-Females are responded to by both sexes more than males in Situation Comedies and Medfam Dramas. Females are responded to more by males in Action Adventures.

-Saturday Morning programs overrepresent needing physical support as a male behavior. Otherwise, there are no sex differences in the rate or proportion of needing support, regardless of support type.

-Regardless of broadcast time, males need physical support more and females need emotional support more.

-Across all broadcast times, asking for support is overrepresented as a female behavior.

-Females responding to males is overrepresented during Saturday Morning programming.

-Preferred shows have higher rates and proportions of males needing physical support, while females have higher rates and proportions of needing emotional support.

-Being given support and being responded to occur at a higher rate for females in preferred shows. They occur at a higher rate for males in non-preferred shows. They are overrepresented as a female behavior in both preferred and non-preferred shows.

-Response to a female's need for support by both sexes occurs in a proportion greater than would be expected in the population in both preferred and non-preferred programs.

INDEPENDENCE/DEPENDENCE: MAKES PLANS

The results of the "all shows" analysis of the Plans category appear in Table 20. Support for the hypothesis that males will make more plans than females can be found in Table 20a. Although there is no difference in the average number of plans made by males or females, the large and negative z indicates that making plans is overrepresented as a male behavior. So, while there is no difference in the rate of making plans, males make plans in a proportion greater (82%) than what would be expected in the population distribution of males and females (73% and 27%, respectively).

Although there is no hypothesis stated concerning who these plans are made for, the results in Table 20b follow those in 20a. There is no difference in the rates of making plans for others, but making plans for others is overrepresented as a male behavior regardless of the sex of the character the plan is made for. (Males make 86% of the plans made for females, and 82% of the plans made for males). That is, males make plans for others in a greater proportion than females make plans for others.

There is also no hypothesis concerning who executes the plan. The results in Table 20c show, however, that in terms

Table 20: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Plans Category All Shows

Female N=44

Male N=167

	Females	Males	Significance of t	z-score
Table 20a: Makes Plans	1.41	1.64	n.s.	-3.45[b]
Table 20b: Plans for Others				
For Females	0.14	0.20	n.s.	-1.77[a]
For Males	0.66	0.80	n.s.	-2.65[b]
Table 20c: Executors				
Female executors	0.50	0.04	< 0.0001	+5.81[c]
Male executors	0.32	1.08	< 0.0001	-6.28[c]
Table 20d: Outcomes				
Success	0.73	0.89	n.s.	-2.84[b]
Failure	0.59	0.65	n.s.	-1.95[a]

of both rate and proportion, females execute plans made by females, and males execute plans made by males.

There is support for the hypothesis that male plans will succeed more than female plans (Table 20d). Although there is no difference in the success rate of plans, a successful plan is overrepresented as a male outcome. While support for this hypothesis would imply that more female plans would end in failure, the data do not support such an implied hypothesis. There is no difference in the failure rate, but unsuccessful plans are overrepresented as a male behavior.

In summary, the findings for the Plans category are:

-Making plans occurs as a male behavior in a proportion greater than would be expected in the population of males and females.

-Making plans for others (male or female) occurs as a male behavior in a proportion greater than expected.

-Females carry out plans made by females, and males execute plans made by males. Both occur at a higher rate and proportion than would be expected.

-The success and failure of a plan is represented as a male behavior in a greater proportion than would be expected in the population.

POST HOC ANALYSIS: MAKES PLANS

Tables 21-26 present the results of the post hoc analysis for program type, broadcast time, and viewing preferences.

Program Type

Table 21a shows that plan making by males occurs at a higher rate than plan making by males in Situation Comedies. Table 21b shows that plan making is overrepresented (90%) as a male behavior in Action Adventure programs. There is no

Table 21: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Makes Plans and For Others by Program Type

Table 21a: Situation Comedies

	Females (N=17)	Males (N=39)	Significance of t	z-score
Makes Plans	1.06	1.33	<0.05	-.27
For Females	0.12	0.21	n.s.	-.69
For Males	0.35	0.56	n.s.	-3.30[b]

Table 21b: Action Adventures

	Females (N=7)	Males (N=53)	Significance of t	z-score
Makes Plans	1.43	1.76	n.s.	-3.98[c]
For Females	0.43	0.25	n.s.	-.58
For Males	0.86	1.09	n.s.	-3.12[c]

Table 21c: Medfam Dramas

	Females (N=10)	Males (N=22)	Significance of t	z-score
Makes Plans	1.50	1.41	n.s.	+1.01
For Females	0.10	0.32	n.s.	-.82
For Males	0.80	0.46	n.s.	+1.58

Table 22: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Plan Executors and Outcomes by Program Type

Table 22a: Situation Comedies

	Females (N=17)	Males (N=39)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Executors	0.53	0.03	<0.01	$+4.14^{c}$
Male Executors	0.12	0.85	<0.0001	-2.70^{b}
Success	0.59	0.74	n.s.	-.36
Failure	0.24	0.39	n.s.	-.52

Table 22b: Action Adventures

	Females (N=7)	Males (N-53)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Executors	0.57	0.06	n.s.	$+1.67^{a}$
Male Executors	0.29	1.26	<0.05	-4.58^{c}
Success	0.57	1.00	n.s.	-3.31^{b}
Failure	0.86	0.70	n.s.	-2.04^{a}

Table 22c: Medfam Dramas

	Females (N=10)	Males (N=22)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Executors	0.50	0.09	n.s.	$+2.50^{a}$
Male Executors	0.30	0.91	<0.05	-1.43
Success	0.80	1.00	n.s.	0.0
Failure	0.60	0.59	n.s.	+ .52

difference in plan making in Medfam Dramas (Table 21c).

Table 21 shows that, as in the "all shows" analysis, males are proportionately overrepresented as making plans for males in Situation Comedies (79%) and Action Adventures (91%). There is no difference in Medfam Dramas. This general finding of no difference in Medfam Dramas may be a function of the small number of plans made in these shows, as well as the equal rate and proportional representation of plan making in these shows.

The results of the analysis of plan executors (Table 22) show the same pattern as the "all shows" findings. Males carry out male plans and females carry out female plans. Table 22 also shows no difference in the success and failure rates across all program types. Proportionally, however, successful (93%) and unsuccessful (80%) plans are overrepresented as male behaviors in Action Adventure programs but not in the other program types.

Broadcast Time

Tables 23-24 present the results of the broadcast time post hoc breakdown for the Plans category. The results are fairly consistent with the "all shows" and program type analyses.

Table 23 shows no difference in the average number of plans made by either sex. Regardless of broadcast time, however, plan making is represented as a male behavior in a proportion greater than would be expected in the population.

When making plans for others, the male behavior sequence

once again wins out in general. Table 23a shows no difference in the rate or proportion of making plans for males during Saturday morning shows. It does show that males make plans for others at a higher rate and proportion than females make plans for others. It is interesting to note that there are no female plans made for females during this time period. Table 23b shows no sex difference in the average number of plans made for others or in the proportion of their occurrence during the 8-9 p.m. interval. During the 9-11 p.m. period, males make plans for other males at a higher rate and proportion, 87% (Table 23c). There is no difference in the rate or proportion of plans either sex makes for females.

In terms of execution there is no sex difference in the average number of plans carried out by either sex on Saturday morning (Table 24a). During the 8-9 p.m. period, females show a higher rate of executing female plans, while males show a higher rate of executing male plans (Table 24b). Females execute male and female plans at the same rate from 9-11 p.m. (Table 24c), while males execute male plans at a higher rate than female plans. Proportionally, females execute female plans in a greater proportion (55 to 92%) and males execute male plans in a greater proportion than expected (90 to 94%). This result holds regardless of broadcast time.

Table 24 shows no difference in rate or proportion of the success or failure of plans except during the 9-11 p.m.

Table 23: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Makes Plans and for Others by Broadcast Time

Table 23a: Saturday Morning

	Females (N=10)	Males (N=53)	Significance of t	z-score
Makes Plans	1.90	1.83	n.s.	-2.52[b]
For Females	0.0	0.11	<0.05	-1.74[a]
For Males	0.90	0.81	n.s.	-1.56

Table 23b: 8-9 p.m.

	Females (N=18)	Males (N=62)	Significance of t	z-score
Makes Plans	1.33	1.50	n.s.	-1.66[a]
For Females	0.22	0.27	n.s.	-.97
For Males	0.67	0.58	n.s.	-.32

Table 23c: 9-11 p.m.

	Females (N=16)	Males (N=52)	Significance of t	z-score
Makes Plans	1.19	1.60	n.s.	-2.00[a]
For Females	0.13	0.21	n.s.	-1.20
For Males	0.50	1.04	<0.05	-2.56[b]

Table 24: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Plan Executors and Outcomes by Broadcast Time

Table 24a: Saturday Morning

	Females (N=10)	Males (N=53)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Executors	0.40	0.02	n.s.	+3.37[b]
Male Executors	0.70	1.15	n.s.	-3.02[b]
Success	1.00	0.85	n.s.	-1.52
Failure	1.00	0.83	n.s.	-1.52

Table 24b: 8-9 p.m.

	Females (N=18)	Males (N=62)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Executors	0.67	0.02	<0.01	+4.82[c]
Male Executors	0.17	0.98	<0.0001	-3.97[c]
Success	0.78	0.81	n.s.	-.85
Failure	0.56	0.53	n.s.	-.68

Table 24c: 9-11 p.m.

	Females (N=16)	Males (N=52)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Executors	0.38	0.10	n.s.	+2.03[a]
Male Executors	0.25	1.14	<0.0001	-3.69[b]
Success	0.50	1.04	<0.05	-2.56[b]
Failure	0.38	0.62	n.s.	-1.48

period. Table 24c shows that more male plans are successful on the average, and that successful male plans are overrepresented (89%).

Viewing Preference

The breakdown by viewing preference (Tables 25-26) shows the same results as the "all shows" analysis. Regardless of viewing preference, there is no difference in the average number of plans made by either sex, but plan making is overrepresented as a male behavior (Table 25).

There is also no difference in the average number of plans made for others (Table 25). With the exception of plans made for females in non-preferred shows, males making plans for others occurs in a proportion greater than would be expected (82 to 92%).

Execution of plans follows the pattern stated earlier, regardless of viewing preference (Table 26). Females execute plans made by females at a higher rate and proportion (90%, 68%) than plans made by males. Males execute plans made by males at a higher rate and proportion (94%, 91%) than plans made by females.

Table 26 shows no difference in the success or failure rate of plans made by either sex. Preferred programs represent the success (84%) or failure (81%) of a plan as a male behavior in a proportion greater than expected. There is no proportional difference in the success or failure of plans in non-preferred shows.

In summary, the post hoc findings of the Plans category

Table 25: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Makes Plans and for Others by Viewing Preference

Table 25a: Preferred Shows

	Females (N=21)	Males (N=93)	Significance of t	z-score
Makes Plans	1.52	1.70	n.s.	-3.11[b]
For Females	0.10	0.24	n.s.	-1.89[a]
For Males	0.71	0.74	n.s.	-1.96[a]

Table 25b: Non-Preferred Shows

	Females (N=23)	Males (N=74)	Significance of t	z-score
Makes Plans	1.30	1.55	n.s.	-1.69[a]
For Females	0.17	0.16	n.s.	0.0
For Males	0.61	0.87	n.s.	-1.79[a]

Table 26: Means, t-tests, z-scores:

Plan Executors and Outcomes by Viewing Preference

	Females (N=21)	Males (N=93)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Executors	0.43	0.01	<.01	+4.14[c]
Male Executors	0.29	1.05	<.0001	-4.87[c]
Success	0.76	0.91	n.s.	-2.47[b]
Failure	0.71	0.71	n.s.	-1.75[a]

Table 26b: Nonpreferred Shows

	Females (N=23)	Males (N=74)	Significance of t	z-score
Female Executors	0.57	0.08	<.01	+4.17[c]
Male Executors	0.35	1.12	<.0001	-3.99[c]
Success	0.70	0.87	n.s.	-1.50
Failure	0.48	0.58	n.s.	-1.22

show:

-Females make more plans on the average than males during Situation Comedies. Making plans is a male behavior in Action Adventure programs.

-Making plans for others is proportionately over-represented as a male behavior in Situation Comedies and Action Adventure programs.

-All post hoc breakdowns show that females execute female plans and males execute male plans.

-Plan making is overrepresented as a male behavior regardless of broadcast time.

-Only during the 8-9 p.m. time period is there no sex difference in making plans for others.

-Only during the 9-11 p.m. time period are male plans successful more than female plans.

-Results of the viewing preference analysis follow those of the "all shows" analysis.

SUMMARY

By way of summary, each hypothesis generated in Chapter One will be restated and discussed in terms of the data's support or non-support of it. The implications and general findings of the results of this analysis will be discussed further in the next chapter.

H_1: Male characters will give proportionately more authority orders than female characters.

This hypothesis is supported (Table 2a). The significant t-test indicates that males give authority orders at a higher rate than females, while the z-score indicates that males give proportionately more authority orders than females. In fact, 87% of the authority orders given in this sample of television programs were given by male characters.

H_2: Male and female characters of the same status will give proportionately equal numbers of simple orders.

This hypothesis is not supported (Table 2a). Once again, males give simple orders at a higher rate and proportion than females. The proportional difference for simple orders is not as great, however, as the proportional difference for authority orders. Males gave 76% of the authority orders; females gave 24%.

H_3: Male characters will use proportionately more threat orders than female characters.

This hypothesis was not tested with the data. The number of threat orders given in this sample of television programs (87 total threat orders) was too small to justify further analysis. This small number means that just over one threat order was identified per television program.

H_4: Female characters will explain proportionately more of their orders, authority or simple, than male characters.

This hypothesis was not supported (Table 2a). In terms of both rate and proportion, males gave more explained orders. Males gave 86% of the authority explained orders, and 79% of the simple explained orders.

H_5: Orders given by male characters will be followed proportionately more often than orders given by female characters.

This hypothesis was supported (Table 2c). Male orders were followed both at a higher rate and in a greater proportion than female orders. Although male orders also were not followed at a higher rate and proportion, a greater proportion of female orders were followed than were not followed. 18% of all followed orders were given by females, while 25% of all not followed orders were given by females.

H_6: Male characters will order other male characters proportionately more often than female characters will order male characters.

This hypothesis is supported (Table 2b). The male-male orders behavior sequence occurs at a higher rate and proportion than the female-male behavior sequence. 82% of the orders given to other males were given by males.

H_7: Female characters will be the receivers of orders proportionately more than males will be the receivers of orders, regardless of the sex of the order giver.

This hypothesis is not supported (Table 2b). Females receive orders from males and from females in a proportion almost equal to that expected from the population. The female-female behavior sequence constitutes 25% of the orders given to females.

H_8: Male characters will be portrayed in physically succorant conditions proportionately more than female characters.

This hypothesis is supported (Table 9b). Males need physical support at a higher rate and in a greater proportion than female characters. 82% of the physical support needs were portrayed by male characters.

H_9: Female characters will be portrayed in emotionally succorant conditions proportionately more than male characters.

This hypothesis was supported (Table 9c). Although there is no difference in the rate of needing emotional support, females need proportionately more emotional support. 40% of the emotional support needs were portrayed by female characters while females constitute only 27% of the

population of characters.

H_{10}: Female characters will respond to succorance with nurturance proportionately more than male characters.

This hypothesis was not supported (Table 9g). The rates of females responding to either sex are about the same, while males respond to males at a higher rate than to females. Proportionally, females are responded to more by both sexes: 38% of the female response to a need for support is to females; 35% of the male response to a need for support is to females.

H_{11}: Male characters will be nurtured (receive positive reinforcement) for physical succorance proportionally more than female characters.

This hypothesis (Tables 9c and 9f) was not supported but with indirect evidence. A direct test of the hypothesis was not possible due to the structure (indexing) of the data. Males are typically portrayed as needing physical support and from this it can be inferred that males were not responded to for physical succorance more than females.

H_{12}: Female characters will be nurtured (receive positive reinforcement) for emotional succorance proportionately more than male characters.

This hypothesis was supported (Tables 9e and 9f) but with indirect evidence. As with hypothesis 11, a direct test was not possible. Support is found through the inference that females are typically portrayed as needing emotional support and are responded to in a proportion greater than expected from the population.

H_{13}: Male characters will make plans proportionately more than female characters.

This hypothesis was supported (Table 20a). Males made a greater proportion of plans than that expected from the population. 82% of the plans identified in this sample of television programs were made by males, while 18% were made by females.

H_{14}: Male characters will formulate proportionately more ultimately successful plans than female characters.

This hypothesis was supported (Table 20d). Successful plans were made by males more often than by females. 82% of the successful plans were formulated by males. This hypothesis does not receive unqualified support, however, because 81% of unsuccessful plans were also formulated by males.

While not all hypotheses received support from the data the instances of non-support lend support to the notion that character portrayals are stereotyped on television. This general result will be discussed at greater length in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

This final chapter will discuss and interpret the results of this content analysis in terms of the stereotyping and reinforcement of sex role behavior on television. To make interpretation of the general findings easier, a series of summary tables have been constructed. These tables provide a visual presentation and distillation of the large amount of data presented in the Results section.

Tables 27-29 present a summary of the "all shows" findings for Orders, Support, and Plans. These tables are constructed so that it is possible to see clearly which behaviors may be considered male or female behaviors.

Table 27a, made up entirely of "male" entries shows that order giving behavior is clearly a male act, regardless of the statistical test used. Table 27b shows the same thing for needing physical support. Needing emotional support is only a female behavior in terms of proportional representation. Table 27c provides similar information for making plans: It is a male behavior only in terms of proportional representation.

There are some apparently incongruous findings in these tables, as well as the tables discussed earlier. For example

the results of the all support types analysis in Table 27b shows that in terms of rate, males dominate, but in terms of proportion, females dominate. How should these findings, as well as those which show no difference for one test, and a significant difference for the other test, be interpreted?

The difference in rates of needing support means that among all characters who needed at least one kind of support, males needed support more often. And so, "males" appears in the t-test column. The difference in proportions of needing support means that, among all speaking characters, more than 27% of needs support behaviors would be portrayed by females. And so, "female" appears in the z-score column for that variable.

A simpler, although not as precise, way of stating the difference in interpretation is: "male" or "female" in the t-test column means that one sex or the other averaged more portrayals of that behavior. A "male" or "female" in the z-score column means that the behavior was portrayed in a greater than expected percentage by one sex or the other.

Inserting the example from Table 27b, the above would read: "male" in the t-test column means that males average more portrayals of needing support (one male would need support more often than one female). "Female" in the z-score column means that needing support was portrayed by females significantly more than 27% of the time (needing support occurs more often than expected in all female portrayals than it does in all male portrayals.)

This interpretation can be extended to explain why, in Table 27b, there is no difference in rate of all emotional types of support needed, yet proportionally it is a female behavior. Here the interpretation would read: the "n.d." in the t-test column means that neither males nor females averaged more portrayals of needing emotional support. "Female" in the z-score column means that needing emotional support was portrayed by females more than 27% of the time.

Moving on to Table 28, the direction of difference in receivers/respondents is again clear. Table 28a shows that males order everybody, regardless of sex. Table 28b shows that males average more responses to males needing support, while responding to females needing support occurs regardless of the sex of the respondent. Table 28c shows that female plans are executed by females more on the average and in percentage portrayal. Male plans are executed more by males on the average and in percentage portrayal.

Table 29 shows a preponderance of outcomes in the male direction, regardless of category. The difficulty here is interpreting how positive and negative outcomes can occur for males. The logical result would be that of matching up one outcome with each sex, yet the findings are that male orders are followed and not followed (Table 29a); that males are and are not given support more(Table 29b); and that male plans succeed and fail more (Table 29c).

These findings should be viewed in conjunction with the findings in Tables 27-29. In terms of orders, males give

Table 27:

Direction of Difference: t-tests and z-scores:

Orders, Plans, Support: All Shows

Table 27a: Order Types

Female N=294

Male N = 395

	t	z
Authority	Male	Male
Simple	Male	Male
Authority Explained	Male	Male
Simple Explained	Male	Male
ALL ORDER TYPES	Male	Male

Table 27b: Support Types

Female N=251

Male N=357

	t	z
Physical Support		
Physical Internal	Male	Male
Physical External	Male	Male
Physical Confinement	Male	Male
ALL PHYSICAL TYPES	Male	Male
Emotional Support		
Ego Support	n.d.	Female
Concern for Others	n.d.	Female
Psycho Support	n.d.	Female
ALL EMOTIONAL TYPES	n.d.	Female
ALL SUPPORT TYPES	Male	Female

Table 27c: Plans

Female N=44

Male N=167

	t	z
Makes Plans	n.d.	Male

Table 28

Direction of Difference: t-tests and z-scores:

Respondent/Receiver: Orders, Support, Plans: All Shows

Table 28a: Order Receivers
Female N = 294
Male N = 395

	t	z
Female Receivers	Male	Male
Male Receivers	Male	Male

Table 28b: Support Respondents
Female N = 251
Male N = 357

	t	z
Female Respondents	n.d.	Female
Male Respondents	Male	Female

Table 28c: Plan Executors
Female N = 44
Male N = 167

	t	z
Female Executors	Female	Female
Male Executors	Male	Male

Table 29

Direction of Difference: t-tests and z-scores:

Orders, Support, Plans, All Shows and Outcomes

Table 29a: Orders Followed
Female N = 294
Male N = 395

	t	z
Followed	Male	Male
Not Followed	Male	n.d.

Table 29b: Support Given
Female N = 251
Male N = 357

	t	z
Given	Male	Female
Not Given	Male	n.d.

Table 29c: Plan Outcome
Female N = 44
Male N = 167

	t	z
Success	n.d.	Male
Failure	n.d.	Male

more orders to everybody so the outcomes, positive or negative, should reflect male order-giving in general. For needing support, males average more support needs and more male respondents, so the outcome rate should reflect male support needs in general. This is also true for females in terms of support portrayals (z-scores). The outcomes should reflect female support needs. In the Plans category, males make more plans, which are executed by males, so the outcomes should reflect male plan-making behavior.

To find out which outcome occurs most often, the best indication of this is the raw frequency of occurrence. Treating the outcome of a behavior as two separate variables obscures the relationship between them. Therefore, across all shows, more male orders were followed (1252 followed orders, 478 not followed orders); more males were given support (542 acts of giving support, 514 acts of not giving support to males); and more plans succeeded (148 successful plans, 108 non-successful plans).

This comparison of raw frequencies points up one of the problems in this analysis- comparision across variable splits were not possible due to the structure of the data. Each content category was indexed for reliability estimation and analysis. While this allowed the use of the t-test within categories, the data are still essentially nominal.

Comparison across the indexed categories is not justified given the nominal structuring of the data.

Another weak point in this study is reliability estimation. Although individual behaviors could be identified by the time segment within which it was coded, it was still not possible to match up individual acts by coder. Therefore, the reliability estimate used in this study was not the most rigorous test of reliability because only the total sum of each variable was correlated for the coders. This estimate gives an indication only of how many acts coders have identified the same, not whether individual acts were identified the same. A preferred method would be percentage agreement.

Percentage agreement is simply counting the acts that coders agree on, then dividing by the total acts they saw. It is more tedious, but more accurate. This provides two estimates: an act by act estimate, are the coders seeing the same thing at the same time; and an overall estimate, are they seeing the same frequency of a specific variable? This provides more information than the reliability estimates used in this study.

A problem that may never be resolved and is inherent to all content analysis studies, is, even when the coders are reliable in the recording of acts, is that what is really going on? Two coders may agree on a simple order, but is it really a simple order? Would an untrained observer identify the order as such? It is actually a validity

question and can only be answered through replication of the content analysis and the study of television viewers in regard to their ability to identify the orders, supports, and plans analyzed for this study.

While the results presented in this thesis are clear cut in many instances, they serve to generate more questions about the content of television programming. Before entering into a discussion of the models and outcomes present in this sample of television shows, these questions should be considered.

While 1212 speaking characters were identified in this sample, not all of these characters played major roles in these programs, nor are they all seen regularly across a television season. A major question that should be asked of these data is the extent to which these behaviors are typical of major, regular characters. The answer to this question was not available from this data set. A secondary analysis combining the demographic characteristics of television characters with the sex role behaviors as defined in this study would provide the answer (the demographic analysis of Simmons, et al, 1977, provided the information that would allow this analysis).

The question must be considered due to the nature of social learning theory. Models which are seen on a regular basis and receive a lot of air time in television programs, are potentially stronger models for television viewers. They are more familiar and receive more attention. The

effect of any stereotyping of the analyzed behaviors would be diminished if they are being portrayed by "fringe" (non-regular, minor) characters. If however, a large portion of regular, major characters portray the behaviors analyzed in this content analysis, conclusions and generalizations about the potential effect of these portrayals on viewers would have more credence theoretically.

Another analysis which would have provided more information regarding stereotyping is an analysis of the same-sex or cross-sex interactions among characters. With the aggregation and indexing of this data set, individual behavior sequences were obscured. While the difference of proportions test used in this analysis gives an indication of which sequences predominate, it is not possible to say, for instance, that the male response to female need for support occurred most often in cases of physical need for support. Such information is not retrievable from this data set. Presently it is only possible to make inferences regarding the actual sequencing of behaviors. In the revision of the coding scheme for the second year of analysis[1] this consideration was included. Each behavior sequence recorded will also be characterized by the same-sex or cross-sex interaction it engendered.

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[1]This sex role content analysis is the first of three analyses to be completed for Project Castle, done over three years of television. As part of a three-year project, it is possible to learn from initial mistakes and attempt to correct them. In the discussion of needed revisions, steps have been taken to incorporate the changes suggested here into succeeding analyses.

This study and analysis, then is not without its faults. Care has been taken to correct the recognized faults in the second year of analysis. With these caveats in mind, then, a discussion of the theoretical and research implications of this study follows.

The analysis of these data provides fairly good evidence for two of the three factors of stereotyping as defined by Bowes (1976) and Carter (1962). Within each category of behavior, the images resulting from the findings show a homogeneity and polarization of behavior.

These behaviors are homogeneous for the sexes because it is possible to predict from one characteristic to the other and back. Knowing that an order has been given, one would be most likely to predict that a male had given it. Knowing that a male is a speaking character, one would be most likely to predict that he would be the one to give an order. The prediction would not be perfect, to be sure, nor could one predict the making of plans, due to the lower frequency and reliability of the plan making category. Nonetheless, there is evidence for the homogenization of sex role images among these variables.

Polarization is evident in that the attributes of one sex do not apply to the other sex. Males give orders, females don't. Females need emotional support, males don't. Males need physical support, females don't. Males make plans, females don't. With this generalization, the following behavior sequences might be considered "typical" of this

sample of television shows:

Orders: A male character gives an order to another male, who follows it.

Support: A female in need of emotional support will be responded to and given support.

A male in need of physical support will be responded to and given support.

Plans: A male makes a plan for another male to carry out and it will be successful.

Across all of the post hoc analyses it becomes evident that the breakdown by program type may be the most useful for studying the stereotyping of the sexes. Situation Comedies and Action Adventure programs are found across all broadcast times and viewing preferences. The results are "muddier" for the broadcast time and viewing preference breakdowns.

The program type results are fairly clear cut and appear redundant with the broadcast time and viewing preference breakdowns. Within the program type breakdown, the Situation Comedies contrast with Action Adventure programs. Saturday Morning shows are probably most properly included in this breakdown rather than the broadcast time breakdown because they do not overlap with other program types.

Taking a closer look at the program type breakdown, each program type can be characterized by a particular pattern of interaction. Plan making, however, is a male behavior regardless of program type. Situation Comedies are the most female oriented programs. Only in this program type do females dominate males in their order giving behavior. Females give

simple orders to other females, who follow them. More emotional support is needed in Situation Comedies. Everyone (male or female) responds to females in need of support, and females are given support more often.

Action Adventure programs lean towards a male dominance. Males give orders to other males, who follow them. More physical support is needed in Action Adventures. When someone is in need of support, however, the female will be responded to more than the male, and this response will come from a male.

Saturday Morning programming shows heavy male dominance in all areas. Males give orders to other males, who follow them. Males need physical support and are responded to and given support by other males. And it is only during Saturday Morning that males make plans for females as well as males.

Therefore, while the "all shows" analysis provides support for stereotyping by sex, the program type breakdown gives a clearer indication of what kind of stereotyping is going on. It is almost possible to place the program types on a continuum from female dominance to male dominance, with Situation Comedies at one end, Saturday Morning shows at the other, and Action Adventures falling somewhere in between, but closer to Saturday Morning than Situation Comedies.

The only factor of the stereotyping process for which there is no evidence is that of the <u>fixedness</u> of these images. This study, however, is only the first in three seasons of content analysis. When the analysis of all three years of

network programming has been completed, the question of the persistence of these attributes can be considered. It will be especially interesting to see whether the program type breakdown provides similar results across the three years of content analysis.

In terms of social learning theory, there is a shift in focus from the dominant attributes of stereotyped images to the behavior sequences themselves. It was stated in the first chapter that the outcome of the behavior (which is considered relatively neutral) is of more interest. It is the outcome of the behavior which increases or decreases the likelihood that the behavior will be imitated. In this study positive outcomes have been conceptualized as those that offer success to the intial behavior. For order giving behavior (dominance) this means having the order followed (deference). In needing support (succorance), this means being responded to and given support (nurturance). When making a plan (independence), it means that the plan is carried out successfully (dependence).

Those behaviors which have positive outcomes (or are positively reinforced) are the behaviors with an increased likelihood of imitation. In terms of imitation of sex-typed behaviors, however, the sex of the imitator (as well as other factors to be discussed later) must be taken into account. Mischel's (1966) interpretation of social learning theory in the development of sex roles states that children will come to value and model those behaviors which are performed by their own sex.

Given the results of this study, then, the theory would predict that it is acceptable for boys to be dominant (give orders because that dominance will be met with deference. Dominance would then be a behavior that boys would value and perform.

For the other dimensions of behavior the theory would predict that it is acceptable for girls to be in emotionally succorant conditions because that succorance would be met with nurturance. Support was not found for the hypothesis that males would be nurtured for physical succorance, so while physical succorance is a male behavior, it is not positively reinforced. Boys would find independence an acceptable male behavior because it is met by dependence (others carry out plans successfully).

From this perspective, then, there is support for the notion that television provides models which are stereotyped by sex and whose behaviors are differentially reinforced.

The above statement cannot be considered in isolation, however. It assumes only that children develop a sex role based on the modeling of same sex behaviors. As mentioned earlier, other factors must be taken into consideration.

Mischel (1966) states that the "manner in which the model's behavior is presented, with respect to the frequency, rate, and clarity of presentation critically affects the extent to which the modeled behaviors are acquired" (p. 59). The evidence presented in this study, across all shows and within program types, tends to support this statement,

especially if clarity of presentation can be interpreted as stereotyping.

A logical next step in the study of sex roles on television, then would be to study how children make use of the massive amount of information they can receive from television about their sex role. The type of program the television show is classified as has been implicated as a factor in the form of presentation of sex-typed behaviors. Children who favor Situation Comedies over Action Adventures find different models available for imitation.

A closer look at the behavior of major and regular characters is called for. Questions must be asked not only of the individual characters, but also of the children who view them. Social learning theory (Bandura, 1971) dictates questions such as: Are these characters attractive? Do children perceive them as similar to themselves? Do children value the activities of these characters? If these questions can all be answered with a yes, then it would be expected that heavy viewers of television would perform and value dominance, succorance, and independence.

This study has made no distinction between highly valued and lowly valued or status of the models. It could very weel be, for example. that girls who find dominant female characters attractive and of high status (e.g., Maude, Rhoda), will come to value dominance, especially if they are rewarded for this behavior when they attempt to perform it.

Studies already undertaken in this area show that

children do find televison characters attractive, value their activities, and identify with those similar to themselves (e.g., Reeves & Greenberg, 1977). Knowing this, sex-typed behaviors of television characters may be used to develop a "portrait" of major characters. Children who identify with attractive, valued, same-sex, and sex-typed characters may be more likely to imitate the behaviors of those characters. If it is found that most characters children identify with evidence stereotypes, then the behavior repertoires of those children have, in a sense, been restricted.

Concern is expressed in most content analytic studies over stereotyped role models. This concern, however, has most often been with the confinement of women to narrowly defined roles (e.g., Beuf, 1974; Long & Simon, 1974). There is evidence in this study, though, that males are stereotyped on television as well as females. To make matters worse, studies such as Miller (1976) and Miller & Reeves(1976) show that girls are more likely to identify with cross-sex models than boys.

If such is the case, then, concern with stereotyped male images is long overdue. The argument can be made, however, that girls have not had attractive same-sex models to identify with and have, therefore, no choice but to make cross-sex identifications. No attempt will be made to resolve the argument here. The point, very simply, is that female television roles are not the only ones subject to stereotyping; male television roles also exhibit stereotyping of sex role

behaviors.

The purpose of this study has been to analyze sequences of behavior and to determine whether these show evidence of stereotyping and the ability to act as homogeneous sex role models. The results of this content analysis provide clear support that television provides homogeneous sex role models which are positively reinforced. This homogeneity and stereotyping will gain more perspective, however, upon analysis of any trends in these behaviors over the three years of analysis to be completed.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE USE OF CODING FORMS:

1) The sheets in this notebook have been reduced from $8\frac{1}{2}$" x 14" paper. The larger sheets allow viewers the room needed to write in character names, descriptions of behavior, etc.

2) Across the top of each sheet is general identification information: the tape number of the show; the show name; the viewer's name and date viewed (the viewer actually watches the show); the coder's name and date coded (coders transfer the viewed material to computer coding forms for punching); and how many pages make up the dimension set for that show and viewer.

3) Column numbers in the following instructions refer to columns on each dimension viewing sheet. These are only to facilitate instructions and do not appear on the actual viewing sheets on which the data are entered.

CATEGORY INSTRUCTIONS

Columns 1-4: All Categories

1 - TS: Time Segment. Each show is viewed in segments of two minutes. Viewers watch an entire segment without stopping the tape. At the end of the segment they go back through, stopping the tape, to write down any relevant behaviors in the three dimensions. Viewers work on all three dimensions at once. If nothing occurs during a time segment it is entered anyway as a check.

2 - Character Name: Whenever an instance of a relevant behavior occurs the viewer enters the name of the character needing support, giving an order, or making a plan.

3-4 - M-F: These are "check" columns. The viewer makes a check mark in the appropriate column identifying the gender (male or female) of the character.

SPECIFIC INSTRUCTIONS: ORDER CATEGORY

Columns 5-6: Give Orders

The viewers enter the following codes in Col. 5: Code. A double code is entered if the order is explained.

Authority = A

Threat = T

Simple = S

Explained = E

A short quote, paraphrase, or action is entered in Col. 6: Describe, as a check on appropriate coding in Col. 5 .

Columns 7 - 9: To Whom

These columns are used for entering the name of the character being ordered; Col. 7, and the appropriate gender: Col. 8: M; Col. 9: F. Col. 8 & 9 are check columns.

Columns 10 - 13: Followed?

These columns are used to indicate whether the order was carried out or obeyed. Col. 10: TS, indicates in which time segment the order was followed or not followed. The number of the time segment in which this occurs is entered in Col. 10. Col. 11: NF and Col. 12: F, are check columns for indicating whether the order was followed.

Col. 13: Describe, is a viewer check on coding and should contain a short quote, paraphrase, or action indicating how the order was followed/not followed.

Columns 14 - 15: Consequences

Actions or verbal behaviors that happen as a result of the order being followed or not followed

are entered in these columns. Col. 14: TS, should contain the number of the time segment of the consequence. Col. 15: Describe, is for any action, quote, or paraphrase which denotes that consequence.

Column 16: Notes

As in the support dimension, this column is for viewer comments noting any questions or "grey area" problems the viewer may have with a particular order instance.

SPECIFIC INSTRUCTIONS: SUPPORT CATEGORY

Column 5: Needs Support

The following letter codes are entered in Col. 5. As many codes as necessary are entered to describe the instance of need for support.

Physical Internal = PI

Physical External = PE

Physical Confinement = PC

Inability to Cope = CC

Humiliation = H

Concern for Others = CO

Psycho Support = PS

Columns 6, 7, 8: Asks Support

Col. 6 & 7 are check columns - the viewer makes a check mark under "N" for no: the person in need of support doesn't or can't ask for it; or under "Y" for yes: the person in need of support does ask

for it. Col. 8: Describe, is a short quote, paraphrase, or action identifying how the person asked for support if "Y" is checked. This is useful for making spot checks on whether the viewers are entering the appropriate codes in Col. 5.

Columns 9 - 14: Response

Col. 9 & 10 are check columns for indicating whether someone reacted to the indicated need for support. If Col. 9: N is checked the remaining columns to the right are to be left blank unless a response occurs in a later time segment. If Col. 10: Y, is checked then a character name is to be entered in Col. 11: Who. Col. 12: M and Col. 13: F, are check columns indicating the sex of the respondent. Col. 14: TS (time segment), indicates when the response was made. The number of the response time segment is entered in Col. 14.

Columns 15 - 17: Support

Col. 15: Given and Col. 16: Not given, indicate whether the response was to assist, Col. 15, or not assist, Col. 16, the character in need. These are check columns. A quote, paraphrase, or action is entered in Col. 17: Describe, to indicate how the support was given or not given The categories that have been identified as not essential to plot development are entered in

Col. 17 by the following codes. They are entered in this column because it is not known until the support is given that a need existed or was perceived by the character giving support to exist.

Compliment = C

Approval = A

Disappointment = D

All columns prior to Col. 17 in these instances are to be left blank.

Columns 18 - 19: Consequences

Any further action or verbal behavior that results from the support behavior is a consequence. The time segment of the consequence is entered in Col. 18: TS. A short description of the consequence is entered in Col. 19: Describe. In many cases the consequence will be another need for support, the giving of an order, or the making of a plan. In these cases the viewers go to the appropriate sheet and enter the consequence as a separate instance of the appropriate dimension.

Column 20: Notes

This column is for viewer comment on any interaction. If a viewer feels uneasy about a code entered or feels the instance of behavior falls in a "grey area," s/he can make notes about it in this column. This is particularly useful during training.

SPECIFIC INSTRUCTIONS: PLAN CATEGORY

Column 5: Makes Plans

The following letter codes are entered in Col. 5 to indicate the type of plan made.

Makes Appointments = A

Housework or Maintenance = H

Social Affairs

Family = SAF

Non-family = SAN

Business Deals = BD

Strategies = ST

Criminal Activities = CAC

Criminal Apprehension = CAP

Construction = C

Acquisition = ACQ

Rescue = R

Behavior Intent

Personal = BIP

Interaction = BII

Other = O

Other is used only when a plan doesn't fit any of the other categories. Plans must be explicit, not implied, by character actions which connote that a plan was made in order to carry those actions out.

Column 6: For self

This check column indicates whether the plans made apply to the character making them.

Column 7 - 9: For Others

If plans are made by a character for other characters these names are entered in Col. 7: Who. The gender is identified in Col. 8: M and Col. 9: F with a check mark. Groups may be entered in both gender columns and a number entered in Col. 7 to indicate how many people are in the group.

Column 10: Complexity

Col. 10: 1 to 5, indicates how involved a plan is, and is scored according to the following codes. This complexity measure was created at viewer suggestion to allow them to reduce redundant coding of very complex plans.

1 = very simple, immediately executed; instructions implicit in the plan; e.g., I'll get the mop to clean up that mess.

2 = simple, executed within the same time segment; very simple set of instructions; e.g., Officer Smith, you cover the back door; Fred and I will break in through the front and catch the burglar.

3 = moderate, instruction necessary for execution which takes place within one or two time segments. It advances the story line but is not a major contribution to the plot; e.g., Plans for a surprise party which require moving and hiding people, coordinating lights, etc.

4 = complex, large set of instructions; carries across more than two time segments. Some of the plot will revolve around the plan and execution; e.g., a bank robbery plan that requires time, people, blue prints, etc.

5 = very complex, requires a major portion of the show to plan and execute. Most of the plot will revolve around the plan and its execution, e.g., a Mission Impossible plot.

Columns 11 - 14: Carries Out

The name(s) of the persons(s) who put the plan into action is entered in Col. 11: Who. Gender is identified in check Col. 12: M and Col. 13: F. The time segment the plan is put into action is entered in Col. 14: TS.

Columns 15 - 16: Execution

These columns were included at viewer suggestion to handle those cases when it is apparent that the plan was put into action but the execution was not shown. Col. 15: Seen and Col. 16: Not Seen, are check columns used to indicate whether the execution was shown.

Columns 17 - 22: Consequences

Consequences in this dimension are the success or failure of the plan. If the plan worked then the time segment in which the successful outcome occurred is entered in Col. 17: TS, and Col. 18: S is checked. A quote, paraphrase, or action is

entered in Col. 19: Describe, to indicate how or why the plan succeeded. Col. 20 - 22 are handled in the same manner for a failure (Col. 21: F, is checked to indicate a failure). In some shows one plan will succeed at first and later fail, or vice versa. A plan may also succeed or fail repeatedly during a show without reformulation of the plan. These instances will show up in the consequences columns. As many successes or failures associated with a single plan as occur should be entered in these columns.

TAPE #: SHOW: Viewer:_____ Date:_____ Page:_____ SUPPORT
Coder:_____ Date:_____ of Pages:_____

TS	Character Name	M	F	Needs Support	Asks Support			Response						Support			Consequences		Notes
					N	Y	Describe	N	Y	Who	N	F	TS	Given	Not Given	Describe	TS	Describe	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20

Viewer: _____ Date: _____ Pages: _____

TAPE #: SHOW: Coder: _____ Date: _____ Of Pages: _____ ORDERS

TS	Character Name	M	F	Give Orders		To Whom			Followed ?				Consequences		Notes
				Code	Describe	Name	M	F	TS	NF	F	Describe	TS	Describe	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16

TAPE #: SHOW: Viewer: _____ Date: _____ Pages: _____

Coder: _____ Date: _____ Of Pages: _____

PLANS

TS	Character Name	M	F	Makes Plans	For Self	For Others			Complexity	Carries Out				Execution		Consequences					
						Who	M	F	1 to 5	Who	M	F	TS	Seen	Not Seen	TS	S	Describe	TS	F	Describe
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22

APPENDIX B

VIEWER TRAINING PACKETS

The following code and definition sheets can be put together to form viewer packets for taining and actual data collection. If used during training the packets become handy references for the viewers during data collection. It is best for each viewer to have his/her own packet in order to make notes during training and data collection. The packet's main function is to provide an anchor for the viewers during training when the scheme is unfamiliar and confusing.

ORDERS-CODES

Gives Orders:

Enter double code if explained

Authority = A

Threat = T

Simple = S

Explained = E

Followed?:

Followed = F

Not Followed = NF

SUPPORT-CODES

Needs Support:

Enter as many codes as necessary

Physical Internal	= PI
Physical External	= PE
Physical Confinement (involuntary)	= PC
Inability to Cope (self-inadequacy)	= CC
Humiliation	= H
Concern for Others	= CO
Psycho Support	= PS

Gives Support:

Enter in "describe" when applicable

Compliments	= C
Approval	= A
Disappointment	= D

PLANS-CODES

Statement of Methods (makes plans):

- Makes Appointments = A
- Housework or Maintenance = H
- Social Affairs
  - Family = SAF
  - Non-Family = SAN
- Business Deals - BD
- Strategies = ST
- Criminal Activities = CAC
- Criminal Apprehension = CAP
- Construction = C
- Acquisition = ACQ
- Rescue = R
- Behavior Intent
  - Personal = BIP
  - Interaction = BII
- Other = O

Complexity:

Enter Number

- Very Simple = 1
- Simple = 2
- Moderate = 3
- Complex = 4
- Very Complex = 5

Consequences:

- Success = S
- Failure = F

Definitions for Sex Role Content Analysis

ORDERS: Directive for others to do, say or think something.

Types of Orders

Threat: an order given with a statement that physical harm will be done if it is not complied with.

Authority: an order to be complied with because of occupational position (boss), social agent (policeman, nurse, doctor), or parent. In some cases by explicit delegate of the above.

Simple: an order given among equals or peers; e.g., husband and wife, brother/sister, friends, co-workers, etc., unless clearly one of the above.

Explanation: a justification for why an order should be followed other than threat or authority.

Definitions for Sex Role Content Analysis

NEEDS SUPPORT: occurs when person is in danger or distress. Does not cover routine request for assistance or social courtesies.

Types of Need for Support

Physical External: person is in danger of being killed, injured, or beaten

Examples:

person is about to be shot, knifed, etc.

person is in danger of being caught in cave-in, landslide, etc.

person is being chased by potential assailant

Physical Internal: person is suffering from disease, illness or internal malady.

Examples:

person has cancer

person has hepatitis

android has malfunctioning circuits

Physical Confinement: person is jailed, trapped or held against their will.

Examples:

robbers lock persons in bank vault

person is jailed

person is trapped in mine cave-in

Inability to Cope: person states that s/he has a problem that s/he cannot solve; is in need of ego support

Examples:

person can't get along with boss, parents, spouse, etc.

person needs money

person has lost something and can't figure out how to find it

NEEDS SUPPORT-2

Humiliation: person states fear that they will be disliked or held in low esteem by others.

Examples:

person feels that others will think s/he is dumb, irresponsible, or funny looking

person fears that someone will reveal that s/he is homosexual, have a criminal record, etc.

person fears that others will make fun of s/he

Concern for Others: person discusses help for friend, relative or associate with a third person. NOTE: at least three people are involved: the person expressing concern, the person to whom concern is expressed, and the person in trouble.

person needs support because someone else is in trouble.

Examples:

person notes that someone is late and expresses worry that s/he is lost

person asks ideas to help a friend who is depressed

person seeks assistance in rescuing someone who is trapped or captured by others

Psycho Support: person has a problem because of the actions of others but does not express inability to cope, fear of humiliation, or concern for others

Examples:

person's spouse has left them

person's son/daughter has flunked out of school

person's dog is causing trouble in the neighborhood

The following categories are occurrences that are not essential to plot development; support is easily given; needs are momentary and easily resolved.

Compliments: person receives praise, compliment or encouragement when not requested or particularly needed.

Approval: person seeks confirmation of ideas, opinions, or actions.

Disappointment: person is visibly upset, depressed, or blue because efforts are unsuccessful; a temporary emotional setback.

APPENDIX C

1975-76 SAMPLE OF TELEVISION PROGRAMS

Name of Show	Top 40 (x)	Type	Time
All in the Family	x	Sitcom	9-11
Barbary Coast		ActAdv	8-9
Baretta		ActAdv	9-11
Barnaby Jones		ActAdv	9-11
Barney Miller		Sitcom	8-9
Beacon Hill		Medfam	9-11
Bionic Woman*	x	ActAdv	8-9
Bob Newhart	x	Sitcom	9-11
Bronk		ActAdv	9-11
Bugs Bunny	x	Cartoon	Sat.
Cannon		ActAdv	9-11
Chico and the Man	x	Sitcom	8-9
Doc		Sitcom	8-9
Doctors Hospital		Medfam	9-11
Ellery Queen		ActAdv	8-9
Emergency	x	Medfam	8-9
Emergency Plus 4	x	Cartoon	Sat.
Family Holvak		Medfam	8-9
Fat Albert	x	Cartoon	Sat.
Fay		Sitcom	8-9
Good Times	x	Sitcom	8-9
Ghost Busters		Noncart	Sat.
Happy Days	x	Sitcom	8-9
Harry O		ActAdv	9-11
Hawaii Five-O	x	ActAdv	9-11
Hong Kong Phooey	x	Cartoon	Sat.
Isis	x	Noncart	Sat.
Invisible Man	x	ActAdv	8-9
Jeffersons*	x	Sitcom	8-9
Joe and Sons		Sitcom	8-9
Joe Forrester		ActAdv	9-11

Name of Show	Top 40	Type	Time
Josie and the Pussy Cats		Cartoon	Sat.
Kate McShane		ActAdv	9-11
Kojak	x	ActAdv	9-11
Land of the Lost	x	Noncart	Sat.
Laverne and Shirley	x	Sitcom	8-9
Little House on the Prairie	x	Medfam	8-9
Lost Saucer		Noncart	Sat.
Marcus Welby		Medfam	9-11
Mary Tyler Moore	x	Sitcom	9-11
M*A*S*H	x	Sitcom	8-9
Matt Helm		ActAdv	9-11
Maude		Sitcom	9-11
Medical Center		Medfam	9-11
Medical Story		Medfam	9-11
Mobile One		ActAdv	8-9
Movin' On		ActAdv	8-9
New Adventures of Gilligan	x	Cartoon	Sat.
Oddball Couple		Cartoon	Sat.
On the Rocks		Sitcom	8-9
One Day at a Time*	x	Sitcom	9-11
Pebbles and Bamm-Bamm	x	Cartoon	Sat.
Phyllis		Sitcom	8-9
Pink Panther	x	Cartoon	Sat.
Police Woman	x	ActAdv	9-11
Return to the Planet of the Apes		Cartoon	Sat.
Rhoda	x	Sitcom	8-9
Rockford Files	x	ActAdv	9-11
Rookies	x	ActAdv	9-11
Run, Joe, Run	x	Noncart	Sat.
Sanford and Son	x	Sitcom	8-9
Scooby Doo, Where Are You	x	Cartoon	Sat.
Secret Lives of Waldo Kitty		Cartoon	Sat.
Shazam	x	Noncart	Sat.
Sigmund and the Sea Monsters		Noncart	Sat.

Name of Show	Top 40 (x)	Type	Time
Six Million Dollar Man	x	ActAdv	8-9
Space 1999		ActAdv	8-9
Speed Buggy	x	Cartoon	Sat.
Starsky and Hutch		ActAdv	9-11
Streets of San Francisco	x	ActAdv	9-11
Swiss Family Robinson	x	Medfam	8-9
Switch		ActAdv	9-11
That's My Mama	x	Sitcom	8-9
Three for the Road	x	Medfam	8-9
Tom and Jerry/Grape Ape		Cartoon	Sat.
Valley of the Dinosaurs	x	Cartoon	Sat.
Waltons	x	Medfam	8-9
Welcome Back Kotter		Sitcom	8-9
When Things Were Rotten		Sitcom	8-9

*Midseason Replacements

Top 40 = Shows viewed regularly by 40% or more of a sample of 4th, 6th, and 8th graders in Fall, 1975.
Sitcom = Situation Comedy
ActAdv = Action Adventure
Medfam = Medical/Family Drama
Cartoon= Animated Cartoon
Noncart= Non-animated Cartoon
8-9 = 8-9 p.m.
9-11 = 9-11 p.m.
Sat. = Saturday morning (8 a.m.-12 p.m.)

APPENDIX D

t-values and standard deviations

Table D1
t-values and standard deviations: Orders Category, All Shows (Table 2)

Order Type

	t-value	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Authority	-6.78	1.12	2.83
Simple	-6.43	2.23	2.67
Authority explained	-4.79	0.34	0.80
Simple explained	-6.73	0.50	0.91
ALL ORDER TYPES	-10.06	2.93	4.48

Receivers

	t-value	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Female receivers	-4.25	1.41	1.92
Male receivers	-9.11	2.26	3.71

Orders Followed

	t-value	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Followed	-10.25	2.01	3.63
Not followed	-6.27	1.27	1.59

Table D2
t-values and standard deviations: Order Types by Program Type (Table 3)

Situation Comedies

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Authority	-0.88	1.60	2.27
Simple	+1.74	3.16	1.89
Authority explained	-1.84	0.34	1.02
Simple explained	+0.38	0.82	1.01
ALL ORDER TYPES	+0.65	3.86	3.87

Action Adventures

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Authority	-3.00	1.54	3.25
Simple	-1.30	2.75	2.94
Authority explained	-0.74	0.77	0.83
Simple explained	+0.57	0.56	0.76
ALL ORDER TYPES	-2.51	3.64	4.87

Medfam Dramas

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Authority	-0.55	1.39	3.16
Simple	+0.27	2.70	2.54
Authority explained	+0.54	0.50	0.41
Simple explained	-2.50	0.48	0.74
ALL ORDER TYPES	-0.48	3.82	4.25

Table D3

t-values and standard deviations: Orders Receivers and Followed by Program Type (Table 4)

Situation Comedies

	t-values	standard deviations	
		females	males
Female receivers	+1.39	3.39	2.34
Male receivers	-0.44	2.68	3.09
Followed	-0.08	2.30	3.28
Not followed	+1.39	2.08	1.36

Action Adventures

	t-values	standard deviations	
		females	males
Female receivers	-2.28	0.79	1.68
Male receivers	-2.26	3.17	4.12
Followed	-2.46	3.11	3.83
Not followed	-1.50	1.36	1.68

Medfam Dramas

	t-values	standard deviations	
		females	males
Female receivers	-0.63	1.14	1.42
Male receivers	-0.12	2.46	2.55
Followed	-1.24	2.36	3.11
Not followed	+0.82	1.54	1.17

Table D4

t-values and standard deviations: Order Types by Broadcast Time (Table 5)

Saturday Morning

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Authority	-3.55	0.44	2.21
Simple	+0.75	3.58	2.74
Authority explained	-2.19	0.20	0.77
Simple explained	-0.99	0.82	1.10
ALL ORDER TYPES	-0.72	3.93	4.00

8-9 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Authority	-1.13	2.11	2.47
Simple	+0.85	3.57	2.42
Authority explained	-0.47	0.70	0.81
Simple explained	-0.08	0.69	0.75
ALL ORDER TYPES	-0.01	4.19	3.85

9-11 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Authority	-5.06	0.82	3.54
Simple	-6.60	1.18	2.87
Authority explained	-3.94	0.20	0.82
Simple explained	-4.63	0.35	0.91
ALL ORDER TYPES	-8.10	1.90	5.46

Table D5

t-values and standard deviations: Orders Receivers and Followed by Broadcast Time (Table 6)

Saturday Morning

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Female receivers	-1.27	0.64	1.58
Male receivers	-0.55	3.94	3.56
Followed	-0.97	3.03	3.34
Not followed	-0.97	1.31	1.39

8-9 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Female receivers	+0.94	2.31	1.59
Male receivers	-0.69	3.60	3.22
Followed	-0.73	2.82	3.14
Not followed	+0.92	2.13	1.42

9-11 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Female receivers	-4.98	1.17	2.41
Male receivers	-7.01	1.19	4.33
Followed	-7.75	1.28	4.34
Not followed	-6.06	0.85	1.91

Table D6

t-values and standard deviations: Order Types by Viewing Preference (Table 7)

Preferred Shows

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Authority	-1.82	1.61	2.90
Simple	+1.39	3.24	2.37
Authority explained	-1.56	0.42	0.89
Simple explained	-1.03	0.77	0.95
ALL ORDER TYPES	+0.26	3.82	4.34

Non-Preferred Shows

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Authority	-6.36	0.97	2.76
Simple	-7.69	1.74	2.90
Authority explained	-4.03	0.31	0.72
Simple explained	-5.92	0.40	0.88
ALL ORDER TYPES	-10.33	2.39	4.60

Table D7

t-values and standard deviations: Orders Receivers and Followed by Viewing Preference (Table 8)

Preferred Shows

	t-values	standard deviations females	males
Females receivers	+1.04	2.76	1.87
Male receivers	-1.12	3.01	3.60
Followed	-0.91	2.78	3.55
Not followed	+1.01	1.84	1.48

Non-Preferred Shows

	t-values	standard deviations females	males
Female receivers	-5.71	0.21	1.03
Male receivers	-9.06	0.63	3.26
Followed	-10.10	0.58	3.37
Not followed	-7.06	0.33	1.26

Table D8

t-values and standard deviations: Support Category, All Shows (Table 9)

ALL SUPPORT TYPES

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
ALL SUPPORT TYPES	-4.64	3.31	3.64

Physical Support Types

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Physical Internal	-5.19	0.66	1.26
Physical External	-6.98	0.72	1.40
Physical Confinement	-4.12	0.40	0.68
ALL PHYSICAL TYPES	-8.73	1.22	2.14

Emotional Support Types

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Ego Support	-0.15	1.43	1.64
Concern for Others	+1.06	0.93	0.68
Psycho Support	-1.50	1.38	1.50
ALL EMOTIONAL SUPPORT	-0.54	2.82	2.64

Support Asked

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Asked	-0.92	2.01	1.81
Not Asked	-7.06	1.27	2.18

Support Responded To

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Response	-2.37	2.47	2.49
No Response	-7.43	0.68	1.43

Table D8 (cont.)

Support Given

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Given	-2.26	1.94	1.93
Not Given	-6.06	1.24	1.78

Respondents

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Female Respondents	-0.66	0.91	0.95
Male Respondents	-2.17	2.02	2.12

Table D9
t-values and standard deviations: Physical Support Types

by Program Type (Table 10)

Situation Comedies

	t-values	standard deviations	
		females	males
Physical Internal	-2.03	0.16	0.93
Physical External	-2.56	0.39	1.13
Physical Confinement	-2.18	0.00	0.33
All Physical Types	-3.44	0.41	1.60

Action Adventures

	t-values	standard deviations	
		females	males
Physical Internal	+0.34	0.98	1.14
Physical External	-1.96	0.93	1.15
Physical Confinement	-2.66	0.30	0.83
All Physical Types	-1.81	1.38	2.13

Medfam Dramas

	t-values	standard deviations	
		females	males
Physical Internal	-1.89	0.59	1.31
Physical External	-0.49	0.79	0.99
Physical Confinement	+0.10	0.46	0.40
All Physical Types	-1.44	1.19	1.86

Table D10

t-values and standard deviations: Emotional Support Types by Program Types (Table 11)

Situation Comedies

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Ego Support	+0.57	1.81	2.93
Concern for Others	+1.81	1.22	0.74
Psycho Support	+0.14	2.44	2.54
ALL EMOTIONAL TYPES	+0.86	4.03	4.50

Action Adventures

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Ego Support	+2.69	1.98	0.82
Concern for Others	+1.48	1.26	0.78
Psycho Support	+1.20	1.17	1.07
ALL EMOTIONAL TYPES	+3.00	2.86	1.69

Medfam Dramas

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Ego Support	+1.80	1.80	1.48
Concern for Others	+1.47	1.41	0.83
Psycho Support	+1.85	1.71	1.22
ALL EMTOIONAL TYPES	+2.57	3.38	2.21

Table D11

t-values and standard deviations: Support Asked and Responded to by Program Type (Table 12)

Situation Comedies

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Asked	+1.20	2.42	2.32
Not Asked	-0.93	1.61	2.67
Response	+0.79	3.04	3.67
No Response	-2.75	0.37	0.91

Action Adventures

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Asked	+2.25	1.73	1.55
Not Asked	+0.21	1.44	1.84
Response	+2.27	2.28	2.17
No Response	-1.04	0.92	1.09

Medfam Dramas

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Asked	+1.91	2.97	1.99
Not Asked	+0.05	1.48	1.45
Response	+1.91	3.26	2.46
No Response	-0.62	0.54	0.83

Table D12

t-values and standard deviations: Support Given and Respondents by Program Type (Table 13)

Situation Comedies

	t-value	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Given	+1.31	2.79	2.66
Not Given	-1.77	1.06	2.03
Female Respondents	+3.03	1.21	0.47
Male Respondents	-0.32	1.79	1.97

Action Adventures

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Given	+2.09	1.58	1.66
Not Given	+0.56	1.44	1.66
Female Respondents	+0.66	0.82	0.86
Male Respondents	+2.32	2.28	1.71

Medfam Dramas

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Given	+2.11	2.52	2.06
Not Given	+0.66	1.51	1.13
Female Respondents	+0.94	1.40	0.94
Male Respondents	+1.82	2.70	1.82

Table D13

t-values and standard deviations: Physical Support Types by Broadcast Time (Table 14)

Saturday Morning

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Physical Internal	-0.62	1.24	1.47
Physical External	-0.96	1.35	1.84
Physical Confinement	+1.09	0.92	0.71
ALL PHYSICAL TYPES	-0.60	2.03	2.32

8-9 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Physical Internal	-1.12	0.72	0.88
Physical External	-1.58	0.83	1.18
Physical Confinement	-2.43	0.31	0.71
ALL PHYSICAL TYPES	-2.45	1.22	1.82

9-11 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Physical Internal	-3.67	0.44	1.34
Physical External	-6.62	0.41	1.08
Physical Confinement	-3.09	0.17	0.59
ALL PHYSICAL TYPES	-6.54	0.73	2.13

Table D14

t-values and standard deviations: Emotional Support Types by Broadcast Time (Table 15)

Saturday Morning

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Ego Support	+0.54	1.13	1.11
Concern for Others	+1.42	0.71	0.29
Psycho Support	+0.27	1.03	0.98
ALL EMOTIONAL TYPES	+0.98	1.87	1.74

8-9 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Ego Support	+0.98	1.56	2.34
Concern for Others	+1.30	1.26	0.78
Psycho Support	-0.57	1.35	2.01
ALL EMOTIONAL TYPES	+0.76	2.92	3.64

9-11 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Ego Support	+0.28	1.38	1.00
Concern for Others	-0.49	0.82	0.79
Psycho Support	-1.09	1.42	1.17
ALL EMOTIONAL TYPES	+2.57	3.38	2.22

Table D15

t-values and standard deviations: Support Asked and Responded to by Broadcast Time (Table 16)

Saturday Morning

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Asked	+2.34	1.86	1.53
Not Asked	-2.32	1.45	2.32
Response	-1.91	1.92	1.81
No Response	+1.72	1.29	1.96

8-9 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Asked	+0.79	2.40	1.92
Not Asked	-0.93	1.34	2.26
Response	+0.70	2.65	3.06
No Response	-2.14	0.68	0.90

9-11 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Asked	-1.85	1.80	1.88
Not Asked	-5.26	1.13	1.82
Response	-2.93	2.34	2.34
No Response	-5.40	0.45	1.11

Table D16

t-values and standard deviations: Support Given and Responded to by Broadcast Time (Table 17)

Saturday Morning

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Given	-0.05	1.63	1.60
Not Given	+0.30	1.35	2.13
Female Respondents	-0.74	0.66	1.07
Male Respondents	+1.37	2.01	1.37

8-9 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Given	+1.32	2.19	2.32
Not Given	-1.64	1.24	1.61
Female Respondents	+1.69	1.25	0.86
Male Respondents	+0.32	2.26	2.82

9-11 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Given	-2.48	1.79	1.76
Not Given	-5.17	1.13	1.55
Female Respondents	-1.52	2.79	0.92
Male Respondents	-2.85	1.84	1.77

Table D17

t-values and standard deviations: Support Types by Viewing Preference (Table 18)

Preferred Shows

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Physical Internal	-4.64	0.63	1.42
Physical External	-2.32	1.05	1.72
Physical Confinement	-2.59	0.38	0.73
ALL PHYSICAL TYPES	-4.76	1.40	2.53
Ego Support	+2.53	1.96	1.87
Concern for Others	+2.74	1.48	0.71
Psycho Support	+2.23	2.15	1.13
ALL EMOTIONAL TYPES	+3.59	3.90	2.43

Non-Preferred Shows

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Physical Internal	-2.44	0.67	1.05
Physical External	-6.74	0.51	0.94
Physical Confinement	-2.85	0.41	0.62
ALL PHYSICAL TYPES	-6.41	1.13	1.57
Ego Support	-1.24	1.03	1.35
Concern for Others	-0.78	0.54	0.65
Psycho Support	-3.71	0.88	1.78
ALL EMOTIONAL TYPES	-2.98	1.88	2.84

Table D18

t-values and standard deviations: Support Asked, Responded to, Given and Respondents by Viewing Preference (Table 19)

Preferred Shows

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Asked	+3.11	2.43	1.70
Not Asked	-2.18	1.75	2.53
Response	+2.51	3.03	2.50
No Response	-3.68	0.94	1.74
Given	+2.48	2.61	2.01
Not Given	-1.70	1.53	2.11
Female Respondents	+2.04	1.22	1.06
Male Respondents	+2.29	2.75	1.98

Non-Preferred Shows

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Asked	-2.98	1.68	1.92
Not Asked	-6.08	0.96	1.69
Response	-4.05	1.96	2.48
No Response	-5.95	0.55	0.97
Given	-4.40	1.41	1.86
Not Given	-5.54	1.06	1.31
Female Respondents	-2.13	0.73	0.81
Male Respondents	-4.00	1.50	2.26

Table D19

t-values and standard deviations: Plans Category, All Shows

(Table 20)

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Makes Plans	-1.42	0.92	1.00

Plans for Others

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
For Females	-1.01	0.35	0.53
For Males	-1.03	0.75	0.93

Executors

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Female Executors	+4.52	0.67	0.20
Male Executors	-6.17	0.68	0.92

Outcomes

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Success	-1.11	0.87	0.90
Failure	-0.40	0.92	0.86

Table D20

t-values and standard deviations: Makes Plans and For Others by Program Type (Table 21)

Situation Comedies

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Makes Plans	-2.38	0.24	0.62
For Females	-0.72	0.33	0.57
For Males	-1.42	0.49	0.55

Action Adventure

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Makes Plans	-0.70	1.13	1.29
For Females	+0.85	0.54	0.55
For Males	-0.55	1.07	1.11

Medfam Dramas

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Makes Plans	+2.07	0.97	0.67
For Females	-1.20	0.32	0.72
For Males	+1.52	0.63	0.51

Table D21

t-values and standard deviations: Plan Executors and Outcomes by Program Types (Table 22)

Situation Comedies

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Female Executors	+3.28	0.62	0.16
Male Executors	-6.17	0.33	0.54
Success	-0.78	0.62	0.82
Failure	-1.13	0.44	0.49

Action Adventures

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Female Executors	+1.72	0.79	0.23
Male Executors	-3.04	0.76	1.08
Success	-1.30	0.79	1.02
Failure	+0.55	0.69	0.91

Medfam Dramas

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Female Executors	+1.76	0.71	0.29
Male Executors	-2.75	0.48	0.75
Success	-0.46	1.23	0.87
Failure	+0.04	0.70	0.59

Table D22

t-values and standard deviations: Makes Plans and For Others by Broadcast Time (Table 23)

Saturday Morning

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Makes Plans	+0.16	1.29	0.96
For Females	-2.20	0.00	0.38
For Males	+0.29	0.88	1.02

8-9 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Makes Plans	-0.82	0.77	0.74
For Females	-0.40	0.43	0.63
For Males	+0.53	0.59	0.67

9-11 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Makes Plans	-1.60	0.75	1.26
For Females	-0.76	0.34	0.54
For Males	-2.14	0.82	1.07

Table D23
t-values and standard deviations: Plan Executors and Outcomes by Broadcast Time (Table 24)

Saturday Morning

	t-values	standard deviations females	males
Female Executors	+1.72	0.70	0.14
Male Executors	-1.24	1.06	1.01
Success	+0.47	0.94	0.84
Failure	+0.33	1.56	1.05

8-9 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	males
Female Executors	+4.00	0.69	0.13
Male Executors	-6.39	0.38	0.72
Success	-0.11	1.00	0.88
Failure	+0.14	0.62	0.65

9-11 p.m.

	t-values	standard deviations females	males
Female Executors	+1.74	0.62	0.30
Male Executors	-4.32	0.58	1.05
Success	-2.59	0.63	0.97
Failure	-1.24	0.62	0.84

Table D24
t-values and standard deviations: Makes Plans and For Others by Viewing Preference (Table 25)

Preferred Shows

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Makes Plans	-0.67	1.08	1.10
For Females	-1.52	0.30	0.63
For Males	-0.14	0.78	1.03

Non-Preferred Shows

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Makes Plans	-1.33	0.77	0.86
For Females	+0.13	0.39	0.37
For Males	-1.45	0.72	0.80

Table D25

t-values and standard deviations: Plan Executors and Outcomes by Viewing Preference (Table 26)

Preferred Shows

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Female Executors	+2.82	0.68	0.10
Male Executors	-4.14	0.72	0.96
Success	-0.61	1.04	0.95
Failure	+0.02	1.15	0.84

Non-Preferred Shows

	t-values	standard deviations females	standard deviations males
Female Executors	+3.42	0.66	0.28
Male Executors	-4.58	0.65	0.88
Success	-0.96	0.70	0.83
Failure	-0.60	0.67	0.88

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