CANADIAN THESES

THÈSES CANADIENNES

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us an inferior photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de qualité inférieure.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

NL 339 (r. 86/01)

Canada

National Library of Canada | Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

235

TC

0-315-23428-8

CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE SERVICE – SERVICE DES THÈSES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE

PERMISION TO MICROFILM – AUTORISATION DE MICROFILMER

• Please print or type – Écrire en lettres moulées ou dactylographier

AUTHOR – AUTEUR

Full Name of Author – Nom complet de l'auteur

NORMA JEAN MACKENZIE

Date of Birth – Date de naissance

SEPT [illegible]

Canadian Citizen – Citoyen canadien

☑ Yes / Oui ☐ No / Non

Country of Birth – Lieu de naissance

CANADA

Permanent Address – Résidence fixe

236 DUNLUCE ROAD
EDMONTON, ALTA
T5X 4P3

THESIS – THÈSE

Title of Thesis – Titre de la thèse

THE CONSEQUENCES of TELEVISION VIEWING ON ADOLESCENT SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING

Degree for which thesis was presented
Grade pour lequel cette thèse fut présentée

M.A

Year this degree conferred
Année d'obtention de ce grade

1985

University – Université

UNIVERSITY of ALBERTA

Name of Supervisor – Nom du directeur de thèse

DR. M. GILLESPIE

AUTHORIZATION – AUTORISATION

Permission is hereby granted to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to **microfilm** this thesis and to **lend** or **sell copies of the film.**

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

L'autorisation est, par la présente, accordée à la BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA de **microfilmer** cette thèse et de **prêter** ou de **vendre des exemplaires du film.**

L'auteur se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans l'autorisation écrite de l'auteur.

ATTACH FORM TO THESIS – VEUILLEZ JOINDRE CE FORMULAIRE À LA THÈSE

Signature

N. MacKenzie

Date

Oct. 7. 1985

NL-91 (r. 84/03)

Canada

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE CONSEQUENCES OF TELEVISION VIEWING ON ADOLESCENT SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING

by

NORMA JEAN MACKENZIE

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF ARTS

IN

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1985

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR NORMA JEAN MACKENZIE

TITLE OF THESIS THE CONSEQUENCES OF TELEVISION VIEWING ON ADOLESCENT SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED MASTER OF ARTS

YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED FALL, 1985

Permission is hereby granted to THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA LIBRARY to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

(SIGNED) N. MacKenzie

PERMANENT ADDRESS:

236 Dunluce Road

Edmonton, Alberta

T5X 4P3

DATED Oct. 3 1985

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled THE CONSEQUENCES OF TELEVISION VIEWING ON ADOLESCENT SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING submitted by NORMA JEAN MACKENZIE in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of MASTER OF ARTS in SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY.

Michael Art. Gillespie

Supervisor

J. Mitchell

Date September 3, 1985

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated with love to my son,

JEFFREY WAYNE HANSON

and to the memory of my husband,

DONALD CALL MACKENZIE

ABSTRACT

The major purpose of this research has been to determine if adolescent relations with television correlate with variations in sex role stereotyping among adolescents. A theoretical perspective conceptualizing television as 'significant other' was developed. Subsequently, a research model based the theoretical discussion and relevant variables from the literature review was created. Hypotheses defining relationships among the model variables outlined was then created. Multiple stage statistical analysis tested each of the individual hypotheses.

Television relations were measured by (a) consumption rates; (b) identification with television levels; and, (c) absorption with television levels. Results reported in this study show the amount of television watching is inversely related to sex role stereotyping among adolescents in the study. Identification with television did not influence stereotyping. As with the consumption measures, absorption with television is also negatively related to sex role stereotyping.

Factors related to family communication patterns were found to be more strongly associated with variations in sex role stereotyping than were the television relations measures. For example, adolescents from authoritarian family environments were more likely to stereotype than adolescents from non-authoritarian families. Family communication patterns also interact with a number of model variables to

explain differences in both sex role stereotyping and television relations.

Place of residence and Sunday television viewing provide the study with interesting and unexpected results. Adolescents sampled who live on acreages were the most likely to sex role stereotype. In addition, Sunday television viewing showed markedly different effects on sex role stereotyping than total weekly television viewing hours. The latter relationship changed signs when included in the overall relationship, however, suggesting the possibility of a surpressor effect.

Studies which focus on more urban samples; the investigation of other family contexts; and, considerations relating to the structure and content of television are recommended as directions for future research.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This thesis could not have been completed without the help of a number of people. I would like to thank the members of my committee for their valuable assistance. Dr. Mike Gillespie assumed the role of principle advisor when Dr. Lyle Larson went on leave during the course of this thesis. I am indebted to both for sharing their considerable knowledge and research experience. Dr. Wayne McVey not only provided a review of the thesis, but was also supportive and encouraging throughout the project. I would also like to thank Dr. John Mitchell who served as my external committee member for his critical assessment of my thesis and the valuable comments he made.

Acknowledgement must be made to the students of J.R. Harris Junior High School for providing the necessary data for this project. Special thanks are due to the teachers who participated in the study by helping with the questionnaire administration. I am particularly indebted to Dr. Harvey Trelevan, Superintendent of Schools, for allowing the study to be conducted in Barrhead. Thanks also go to Mr. Parminder Bashati, Principal of J.R. Harris, for his enthusiastic support of this project.

I owe special thanks to J. Jayachandran for his patient assistance with the data analysis. Thanks must also go to Linda Abbott and Denise Joseph who provided invaluable help in textformatting the tables and manuscript. Cliff Kinzel was also very helpful in the questionnaire preparation and

data cleaning.

Circumstances in my personal life have made this past year a particularly difficult one. Finishing this thesis has required as much emotional support as anything else. This has been generously provided by a number of people. Thanks must go first to my son Jeff for his unselfish love, patience, and understanding. During this past year Jeff has often had to assume the responsibility for everything from major family decisions to the most minor household task. He is always willing to help out and never once has he complained about the "extra" work. Jeff is extremely sensitive to the needs of others and shows a maturity far beyond his years. I, more than anyone, am the recipient of his gentle kindness and enduring strength. For this I am truly grateful.

My mother, Mary Loynachan, and my brother Rod and his wife Barbara have been loving and encouraging throughout. In addition to her generous love and support, my mother has also provided financial assistance to ensure the completion of this project. My sister, Cindy Loynachan, must be credited for her enthusiasm at the prospects of seeing this thesis completed. Her high pressure prodding mixed with gentle cajoling often provided the motivation for continuing with the work.

I am also grateful for the love and support given by my "other" family; Margaret, David and Sean Clouston. Special thanks also go to Ron and Debbie Malach for giving me a home

away from home and a much needed ear to twist from time to time.

I owe special thanks to fellow students and staff of the Sociology Department, particularly those who frequent the Research Room where I work. I was extremely moved by everyone's concern for me and continuing this project was made easier by the friendly smiles and caring words. I am especially grateful to Denise Joseph, Linda Abbott and Elaine Reid for their kindness and support, but most of all, for their friendship. The staff of the Population Research Laboratory have also been extremely kind. Special thanks go to Ilze Hobin, Kerri Calvert and Lynnette Hussain, also valued friends, who are always willing to lend an ear or a helping hand.

My husband Don provided the main impetus for returning to the academic world but this thesis would not have been completed without the wonderful love, support and encouragement I have received from everyone mentioned. Thank-you.

Table of Contents

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

I. INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. Introduction

The advent of television and its subsequent rise in popularity is without precedent. Introduced in the late 40's, most homes had at least one set by the mid 50's (Baranowski, 1971). By the late 70's, almost every home had one or more sets, 50 percent had two or more sets and 70 percent had colour sets (Comstock, 1978). Television is now available 24 hours a day for most of the population. It is found in classrooms, airports, restaurants, churches and school cafeterias. Besides "regular" television, a second explosion of television technology, one that is likely to increase viewing time, is upon us. Cable and pay television satellites, discs, home video recorders and other play back devices, make possible vast amounts of programming in every home. Johnson et. al., (1980) estimate that 80 percent of all homes will be able to receive 100 or more television channels within this century.

The intrusion of television in our lives is no longer debated. The significance of this intrusion however, particularly among young people, is open to question. The sheer amount of exposure to television (anywhere from one to six hours daily (Baranowski, 1971), the nature of some television content (see Sprafkin & Silverman, 1979) and the assumed consequences to exposure, have produced vast amounts

of literature concerning television and social behaviour.

The primary purpose of this thesis is to determine if television exerts a socialization influence on young people. This will be done by considering how, and in what ways, television viewing affects sex role stereotyping. The basic stimulus-response model of direct causality which characterizes much of the communication literature is abandoned here in favour of working within a socialization perspective. The framework demands particular attention be given to the causes and antecedents of viewing behaviour. Another objective is to identify factors that make young people either receptive or resistant to televised messages. Although there are a number of distinctive approaches to questions concerning socialization, this thesis utilizes a symbolic interactionist framework.

Why Study Sex-Role Stereotyping?

To a large extent, socialization is the learning of social roles (Gecas, 1981). Much of the research on role-learning among young people has dealt with the learning of sex roles and concommitant sex role attitudes. Yorburg (1974) defines sex role attitudes as "expectations in the performances of one's role in society on the basis of one's sexual identity" and "sexual identity is the image of the self as a male or female and convictions about what membership in that group implies" (Yorburg, 1976:59). Referring to a relatively fixed set of beliefs, attitudes

and opinions, sex role attitudes may relate to personality (boys are logical, worldly and competitive; girls are romantic, neat and sensitive), occupations (men are doctors, lawyers and truck drivers; women are nurses, secretaries and waitresses), and/or activities (girls like to cook, sew and play house; boys like to rough house and play cops and robbers)(see Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Deux, 1976; Laws & Swartz, 1977; Stockard & Johnson, 1980).

In Western society, traditional sex role differences are manifested most obviously in the division of labour within the family, or as Mason et al.,(1976:78) state: "the gender-based bread-winner versus homemaker specialization." Based on sexual identity, females have traditionally been socialized to play the role of nurturant mother and supportive wife.

The revival of feminism launched almost twenty years ago with the women's liberation movement, has had some impact upon the revision of female sex roles. In addition, more and more women have assumed employment outside the home since World War II extending their roles beyond familial duties. This has been accompanied by a change in prevailing values and beliefs that have supported the traditionally sex based division of labour inside the family. On the other hand, such noteable publications as *The Complete Woman* (1974) by Marabelle Morgan suggest that people today are divided in their opinion toward sex role attitudes. In addition, some (Petras, 1975) feel that the long range

impact of the women's liberation movement remains for the most part, unrecognized.

Lewin (1951) observed many years ago that a phenomenon is best studied while it is changing. Alluding to the changes associated with women's liberation, Tuchman (1978) says the societal need for continuity and transmission of dominant values may be particularly acute in times of rapid change such as our own. She emphasis that individuals may not only need some familiarity with the past, if society is to survive, but they must also be prepared to meet changing conditions. "Nowhere is that need as readily identifiable as in the area of *sex roles* " (Tuchman, 1978). This may be especially relevant for young people. While sex group stereotypes are readily adopted early in life, as children grow older their evaluations of sex groups are not static but seem to be in a general state of flux (Parish & Bryant, 1978).

A further motivation for conducting this study is that currently, little is known about the impact of television viewing on sex role stereotyping. The limited studies available suggest a relationship, but results are often ambiguous, conceptualizations weak and theoretical orientations not clearly articulated. The aim of this research is to overcome some of these difficulties in discerning how young people acquire social beliefs, attitudes, and, eventually behavioural strategies from television. If it can be shown that television influences

sex-role stereotyping, the possibility of its use to promote more balanced social attitudes becomes a realistic goal.

Finally, as a result of this thesis, it will be possible to make several contributions to the existing research on communication behaviour. In the face of American data which overwhelms communication research, this study is Canadian in origin. Rather than employing only social structural variables, the intention of this thesis is to employ several kinds of predictor variables including family communication patterns and attitudinal variables. Lastly, and perhaps the most salient point of interest here, is the fact that the study was carried out in an explicitly rural context. As a result, it will bear great potential for comparison with cross-national and rural/urban participation studies which have preceded it. The following literature review is organized into a several sections. The first two sections review and evaluate the most recent content analytic studies and effects studies that relate to sex role stereotyping and television viewing. The remaining sections review generalizations made from a number of earlier studies that highlight individual and social factors that help shape the viewing experience.

B. Literature Review

Stereotyping on Television - Content Analytic Studies

Clark (1972) says television viewers develop attitudes toward social groups through a two step process of recognition and respect. Recognition is defined as how often a group is represented (or not represented) on television. The implication for social groups seen frequently on television is that they are a relevant segment of society. Conversely, groups never, or rarely, represented on television are seen by audiences as less significant. Degree of respect, designated by occupational and/or social roles, as well as projected personalities, further influences the viewer's impression of the group. In addition, a group seen regularly on television can be assigned an inferior status if its members display undesirable characteristics or occupy a low socioeconomic position.

In terms of both recognition and respect, the accumulated evidence from a number of content studies indicates television portrayals of females are extremely biased. Research shows that females are grossly underrepresented on television. Television males have much broader occupational roles than do females who are often shown as incompetent and as the butt of comedy (Turow, 1974; Tedesco, 1974; Sternglanz & Sebin, 1974; Busby, 1975).

Males and females also project very different personal attitudes and formal roles on television. Females, usually

cast in light or comic roles, are portrayed as attractive, warm, sociable, happy and youthful. They are more often assigned marital, romantic, domestic or family roles than are men. Males not only dominate the action shows, they also tend to dominate women twice as often as women dominate men (Lemon, 1978). Consequently, they are seen as being more powerful, rational, and stable than women. When interactions among the sexes are violent, women are the victimized, men are the victimizers (Gerbner et al., 1978; Tedesco, 1974).

While the women's liberation movement is thought to have been instrumental in changing ideas about sex roles, Beuf (1974) says children are still learning about a role structure that is sex-typed from watching television. "The data indicate that those who are concerned with sex role stereotyping in socialization cannot sit back and put their faith in some 'inevitable' social change. The media to which children are exposed are still stereotyped" (Beuf, 1974:144). This statement is supported by a later study conducted by O'Donnell and O'Donnell (1978) who found the frequency and content of women's roles were about the same in the mid 70's as they were a decade earlier.

Although content analytic studies provide the most complete knowledge about stereotyped television content, they alone cannot bridge the gap linking viewing and sex role attitudes and behaviours. With the exception of counting men and women, and data on occupational and social roles, quantitative content analyses usually generates

disagreement in conceptualization (Cantor, 1980). Other problems relate to sampling and measurement. For instance, television fare changes from week to week depending on ratings and the prevalence of movies, mini-series and sports programming. In addition, the introduction of new season programs in September may differ dramatically from a sample taken at a other times of the year.

Another recurring problem associated with content analytic studies is the emphasis on similarities in television programming over the years. In actual fact, changes have occurred. On television today we are seeing divorced women raising children, unmarried couples living together and career women who are happy to be single. At one time in the not too distant past, these topics were considered taboo for viewing audiences. Due in part to their descriptive nature, looking beyond content analytic studies is necessary to determine concomitant effects between viewing stereotypic television content and attitudes and behaviours toward sex roles.

Effects of Stereotyped Television Content

Research reports examining the impact of television's stereotypic portrayals on young viewers began appearing primarily in the mid-seventies correspond with the peak of the women's movement. Given the number of major protests by special interest groups, the amount of research is surprisingly limited.

The earliest studies reasoned that if children accept television's sex role messages, heavy viewers should have more stereotypic beliefs than light viewers. Beuf (1974) found that over 70% of the boys and 73% of the girls among her sample of pre-schoolers, chose stereotypical careers for themselves. In addition, girls felt blocked from their ambitions because of their sex. Frueh & McGhee (1975) found that heavy television viewers in kindergarten, second, fourth, and sixth grades were more likely to identify with sex-stereotyped roles associated with their own gender than were moderate viewers. Using the same population 15 months later, McGhee & Frueh did a follow-up study that yielded similar results. Between grades 3 and 7, heavy viewing females became increasingly stereotyped in their perceptions as early as first grade. Empirically, sex role attitudes were captured by perceptions of psychological characteristics (McGhee & Frueh, 1980).

In an ongoing longitudinal study, Gross & Jeffries-Fox (1978) found a low, but significant correlation between television viewing and sexist answers to questions about women's roles. In contrast to the McGhee/Frueh (1980) study, however, television was associated with sexist attitudes in boys more than in girls. Using a sample of girls only, Tan (1979) found that an experimental group of adolescents were more likely to think being beautiful was an important characteristic and necessary to attract men than were a control group. The former were exposed to heavy doses of

beauty ads (e.g. soap, shampoo and toothpaste commercials) whereas the latter saw commercials that did not contain beauty messages (e.g. dog food, diaper and soy sauce ads).

Effects studies employing counter-stereotyped models have also been conducted. Flerx, et al., (1976) showed films to kindergarten children which depicted non-stereotypical portrayals over a seven day period. Plotting pre- and post-test scores on occupations for women, activities for children, and beliefs about the relative intelligence of men and women, these researchers found respondents to be less traditional after the week long exposure. Miller and Reeves (1976) also found that grade school children were more likely to accept non-traditional sex roles after viewing non-sex stereotyped programs. In another study, less stereotyped responses on sex role attitudes were given by 5 and 6 year old girls who saw a non-traditional cartoon showing female athletes as competent than were given by those who saw a neutral or sex stereotyped cartoon (Davidson, Yasano & Tower, 1979).

The most ambitious project considering the relationship between television viewing and sex role stereotyping has been *Freestyle*, an American program funded by the National Institute of Education. A series of thirteen episodes, aimed at combating sex role stereotyping in 9 to 12 year old children, *Freestyle* was aired in the Fall and Winter of 1978/79 and has shown positive results. For example, among children who have viewed the series, both boys and girls

became more approving of men and women having non-traditional jobs. Children's perceptions of appropriate male and female family roles also became less traditional. Finally, there has been more acceptance of boys doing traditional female activities and *vice versa* (For a complete description of results see: Johnston, Ettema & Davidson, 1980; Williams, LaRose & Frost, 1981).

While these studies provide insight into the probable relationship between television viewing and sex role stereotyping, results are mixed and open to criticism. For instance, the Beuf (1974), McGhee/Frueh (1980,1975) and Tan (1975) studies are based on extremely small sample sizes. Exact numbers on which comparisons between heavy and light viewers are based are not evident in the Beuf (1974) study. Although the McGhee/Frueh (1980) study used a more current sex role stereotype measure, the It Scale utilized in their original study has been criticized by Kohlberg (1966) and Mischel (1970) as being invalid.

Cultivation theory, the framework employed by Gross & Jeffries-Fox (1978), had been criticized for being equivocal (Williams et al., 1978). On the one hand, they claim children with traditional sex role preferences watch more television than those with non-traditional preferences. Selective exposure, part of the cultivation effects, explains the relationship between viewing and sex role stereotyping (Gerbner et al., 1978). On the other hand, it is also stated that television is watched in ritualistic

fashion without respect to the content (Gerbner & Gross, 1974). In addition, correlations between television viewing and questions about women's roles were dramatically reduced in the Gross/Jeffries-Fox (1978) study when controlling for intelligence. Again, this was more of a factor among boys as intelligence appeared irrelevant to the association for girls.

The studies using counter-stereotypic roles hold out some hope that more balanced portrayals might alter beliefs about real life sex roles. These too, however, produced mixed results and their limited exposure to respondents, as compared to exposure to "regular" television programming, make the durability of their effectiveness questionable. Rarely are the ideal conditions of an experiment duplicated in the real world. These studies leave open the possibility that results reflect patterns of selective exposure or recall. Moreover, one should not be led to the oversimplified assumption that the portrayal of counter-stereotypical roles will automatically change stereotypes.

Modeling or Identification Studies

The effects studies of the seventies and early eighties have their origins in the earlier modeling or identification studies. As indicated earlier, socialization through modeling or identification implies copying the behaviour of others. Modeling occurs either through conscious attempts to

emulate a socialization agent or simply because the agent's behaviour is the most salient alternative open to the individual (McLeod & O'Keefe, 1972). Proponents of modeling believed the role of parent, particularly the same sex parent, was crucial to the development of self. Empirical studies have not substantiated this notion (see Angrilli, 1960; Heller, 1959) leading to the speculation that an emotional bond may not necessarily be a prerequisite for modeling (Frieze et al., 1978). Stockard & Johnson (1980) propose that while modeling theory may not explain the development of sex roles when applied to children and parents, it may be more effective when applied to television viewing. In this medium, larger than life stereotypes are presented for children to copy.

In terms of empirical studies, Eleanor Maccoby has pioneered the work in this area. She and her colleagues (Maccoby & Wilson, 1957; Maccoby, Wilson & Burton, 1958) found children preferred to watch characters of their own gender and manifested greater imitation, and recall, for the behaviour of same-sex models. In romantic movie scenes they show that male viewers spend more time watching the hero and female viewers spend more time watching the heroine.

More recent studies provide further evidence that youngsters identify with behaviour they see on television. Sprafkin & Liebert (1978) sought to discover how closely children pay attention to boys and girls engaged in sex-typed or neuter activities and whether children identify

with television characters. They use attention and identification as two components through which gender identity is formed. Findings showed that members of each sex preferred to watch characters of their own gender. In addition, there was greater appeal for sex-typed programs among their sample of thirty-two first and second graders. That is, children's selection of, and attention to, characters of their own sex tended to be even more strongly evidenced when the characters' actions were sex-typed than when they were not. This finding lends support to an earlier study that concluded: "Boys generally seemed to show an earlier preference than girls for action programs, which incidentally, usually feature strong male characters. The girls in the first grade were already fond of family situation comedies" (Lyle & Hoffman, 1972a:410).

Further evidence that youngsters model behaviour they see on television is provided by McArthur & Eisen (1976). The results of this study, however, indicate an interesting twist of events. In their investigation of Saturday morning television, the main objective of their three stage study was to examine the effects on pre-school children's behaviour of exposure to sex-stereotyped versus non-stereotyped behaviour by television models. While children did indeed recall and reproduce more of the activities of a same sex model than an opposite televised model, this phenomena also held true even when the same-sex model manifested sex inappropriate behaviour. "Boys were

more likely to engage in nuturance, domesticity, and artistic behaviours than in leadership, bravery, and problem solving when former activities were performed by a male model and the latter by a female" (McArther & Eisen, 1976:349). Although the authors indicate there is cause for concern over the conflicting findings, they say it does not diminish the influence of television viewing. Still, it does alert us to possible shortcomings in research that require more thorough investigation.

What these studies fail to explicate is whether the subjects perceive the behaviours or the models to be appropriate. In the Maccoby/Wilson (1957) and Sprafkin/Leibert (1978) studies, the sex of the model is projected as most salient. In contrast, McArthur & Eisen (1976), Barkley et al., (1977) and Bryan & Luria (1978) indicate it is the sex appropriateness of the modeled behaviour that is important, rather than the sex of the model. For instance, Bryan & Luria (1978) found 5-6 year old and 9-10 year old respondents recalled more same-sex tasks than opposite-sex tasks regardless of the sex of the model. Barkley et al., (1977) show the same results. Girls in their study tended to imitate female behaviour more than masculine behaviour regardless of the model's biological sex.

Williams et al., (1981) summarized the conflicting findings by concluding it is the observer's overall perception of the models' sex role orientation and its match with the observer's own that will ultimately determine

whether the model is similar enough to the observer to act as an effective model.

Social Integration Contexts

The social interaction view of learning holds that the characteristic social norms involved in the person's interactions with relevant others shape his behaviour including his communication style and preferences. (McLeod & O'Keefe 1972) There is speculation that children under stress or whose relations with parents and peers are less harmonious tend to seek out television to a greater extent than others (von Feiltzen & Lineé, 1975). Youngsters from constant television viewing families do less well in school, have less privacy, and are less likely to have controls put on their television consumption. They are described as being more neurotic and introverted, less involved in sports or other social groups, more likely to be mistrustful and afraid, and rank higher on established indices reflecting anomie and alienation. They feel pessimistic about the future, and, with the exception of media use, are less active than others (Wade, 1971; Hendry & Patrick, 1977; Gross & Jeffries-Fox, 1978; Medrich, 1979; Jackson-Beeck & Sobel, 1980). The exception to this is a study conducted by Weigel and Jessor (1973), in that they found high involvement with television to be associated with significantly greater value on academic recognition, greater intolerance of deviance, less social criticism, and stronger

negative attitudes towards drugs.

Although investigators have been interested in the topic of television within the family context for some time (for example, Maccoby, 1951), theory and research in this area are limited. The major findings are based on a four dimensional family communications typology developed by researchers at the University of Wisconsin's Mass Communication Research Center (Chaffee et al., 1971, 1973; McLeod, et al., 1972; McLeod & Brown, 1976; Chaffee & Tims, 1976).

Based on the premise "what a parent knows may be less important than how he transmits it to his child" (Chaffee et al., 1973:349), each dimension reflects either (a) the emphasis parents place on social harmony and the expectation that children be deferential to elders in striving to maintain harmonious personal relations (socio-orientation); or, (b) emphasis on intellectual expression and the expectation that children should be encouraged to develop their own ideas about the world (concept-orientation).

Laissez-faire families emphasize neither type of relation. Children are not prohibited from challenging parental views but neither are they exposed to the world of independent and contending ideas. In Protective families, the child is encouraged to get along with others at the expense of concept -relations that would expose him to the controversial world of ideas. Not only is he prohibited from expressing dissent, but he is given little chance to

encounter information on which he might base his own views.

Pluralistic families emphasize the development of strong and varied concept-relations in an environment comparatively free of social restraints. The child is encouraged to explore new ideas and is exposed to controversial material. He can make up his own mind without fear of endangering social relations with his parents.

Consensual families attempt to stress both orientations. While the child is exposed to controversy and told he should enter into it, he is paradoxically constrained to develop concepts that are consonant with existing socio relations. He is, in effect, encouraged to learn his pareent's ideas and adopt their values (Chaffee, McLeod & Aiken, 1971).

Major research findings show that both adolescents and parents from laissez-faire families seem generally uninterested in any type of television programming though adolescents in this group report heavier involvement with characters on action shows (McLeod & Brown, 1976; Chaffee et al., 1977). Teenagers from protective families are most susceptible to persuasive television messages and are more likely to say television presents a chance for them to learn behaviour. Both parents and children in this group are the heaviest consumers of television but low in terms of news content (McLeod & Brown, 1976; Chaffee et al., 1971; Stone & Chaffee, 1970). McLeod & Brown, (1976) speculate that adolescents from protective families spend more time with

television than any other group in order to escape the intense relationship with their parents.

Adolescents from pluralistic families are more knowledgeable about public affairs, make better marks in school, are more active in school and political activities, and watch less television than adolescents in other groups. Viewing patterns center on news and public affairs programming. Young people in this group are the least likely to say television presents a chance for them to learn behaviour from television (McLeod and Brown, 1976; Chaffee et al., 1976, 1971). Extremely heavy television viewing is reported among youngsters in consensual families. People in this family group also exhibit signs of stress and do less well in school despite devoting a lot of time to homework. While they are likely to orient to public affairs and news programming, they do so solely by means of knowing and adopting parential views. Their knowledge of current events is lower than that of adolescents from pluralistic families although each report about the same exposure to news shows. These viewers are the most likely to see a similarity between the real world and what they watch on television (Chaffee et al., 1971, 1973; McLeod & Chaffee, 1972; McLeod & Brown, 1976).

Retaining the two dimensional model of socio & concept orientations Lull, (1980) shows that socio-orientated individuals report they employ television for social purposes far more than concept-orientated individuals.

People who had high cumulative scores on the concept-orientation measures said they did not use television for companionship, to illustrate experiences, to give them something to say, to reduce anxiety, to make consumer decision, or to gain conversational entrance. While not using the same typology, Johnstone (1974) found adolescents most strongly orientated to parents show higher levels of television consumption. He also found levels of orientation to parents to be lower among those in the older age grades, in part confirming the contention by Chaffee et al., (1971) that socio-orientation decreases during the adolescence period.

Although studies in this area are less copious, some researchers have attempted to assess the influence of the peer group on the process and effects of television consumption. Earlier studies (Riley & Riley, 1951; Schramm et al., 1961) found youngsters lacking in integration with a peer group showed a preference for action and violence in the media.

More recently, Johnstone (1974) examined the relationship between adolescents' social integration into the peer group and their rates of exposure to television. Those classified as leaders had the strongest self-image and watched the least amount of television. Those classified as aspirants had the weakest self-image and tended to view television more than anyone else. Drawing on the conclusion that television viewing is in part a deprivation-based

response that permits the user to escape from a context which generates feelings of inadequacy, Johnstone (1974) concluded that all teenagers watch some television, however, heavy consumption within this group may function as a substitute for interpersonal gratification. These findings are similar to an earlier study conducted by Wade (1971). He found that the leisure time of a creative adolescent is full and the edited experience of television is shunned in favour of spending time with others.

Chaffee and Tim (1976) have looked at adolescent/peer/television processes by extending the family communication typology outlined earlier, to adolescent/peer communication patterns. Their findings support those of Johnstone's (1974). Strong peer orientations are associated with conformity to peer viewing norms but only when viewing with friends. Otherwise, measures of social learning suggest that television influence is greatest when the youngster is viewing with parents.

Age and Socio-Economic Contexts

There is evidence that viewing time decreases with age and that the decrease becomes more dramatic for adolescents (Lyle & Hoffman, 1972; Johnstone, 1974; McLeod & Brown, 1976; Brown & Linné, 1976; Hedinsson, 1981).

In their 1976 study, McLeod and Brown isolate early and middle adolescent stages in considering the effects of television violence on aggression. Using a number of

cognitive reaction measures, they found there was less reaction to televised violence among older adolescents, especially with girls who were less likely to see television as a source of aggressive learning, or as a link to real life as they grew older, than were boys. In addition, they found there was a substantive decrease in viewing time from early to middle adolesence corresponding with changes in content preferences. Variety and comedy shows became less popular with age, while news and public affairs program desirability increased (McLeod & Brown, 1976).

Johnstone's (1974) high school sample was divided into Freshmen (age 15), Sophomores (age 16), Juniors (age 17) and Seniors (age 18). This study also indicates a sharp decline in television viewing between the two extremes of the sample. "Television consumption is cut just about in half within this brief four year period" (Johnston, 1974:43). Similarly, Johnstone notes the decline for girls is somewhat sharper and like McLeod and Brown (1976) concludes this is an indication that girls generally mature earlier than boys. These findings are only partially substantiated by the Gross/Jeffries-Fox (1972) study. While they found television viewing did decrease with age there were no substantial differences for girls.

Although socio-economic status is seldom of central importance to communication research, it is inevitably considered in socialization analyses. The life experiences of young people are based on the economic and social

resources of the family. Discussed in terms of upper, middle and working class formations, socio-economic status is usually measured in terms of parental education, occupation and/or income.

Weiner (1975) states sex role patterns are assumed to take a more traditional form among the lower strata with the upper group having the most egalitarian sex role norms. In terms of communication research it appears that members of the lower class also engage in more television viewing than other groups (see Bower, 1971; McLeod et al., 1972; Comstock et al., 1978; Lull, 1980; Hedinsson, 1981). Comstock et al., (1978:20) say the data are clear. "Viewing is inversely related to social class for which we take income and education as surrogate". Hedinsson (1981) speculates that the middle class are lighter viewers because they have more diversified leisure activities than working class people. For Meyersohn (1965) lighter viewing is attributable to the fact middle class people have a stronger orientation to 'book culture' which leads to a more negative disposition towards television.

Concentrating on adolescent television viewing, both Comstock et al., (1978) and McLeod et al., (1972) found that middle class adolescents are lighter viewers than their lower class counterparts. Comstock et al., (1978) believe there are indicators whereby age may modify the predictive powers of social class but data on this are highly tentative since few studies have compared age and social class. Of the

studies available, Lyle & Hoffman (1972) found no differences in television viewing by 6th graders from middle and working class homes. Differences were found, however, in 10th grade viewing habits with working class adolescents viewing more television than middle class adolescents. In their sample of fifteen year olds, Hendry and Patrick (1977) did not find any significant differences between high and low frequency viewers.

Hedinsson (1981) has attempted to link the family typology discussed earlier to the social position of the family. He confirmed that pluralistic families are heavily represented in the highest social classes; consensual families in the middle classes; protective families in the working classes; and, laissez-faire families in different, marginal social classes. In addition, he found working class parents stress a socio-orientation even as the adolescent comes into middle and late adolecence while middle class parents seem to stress the concept-orientation of more autonomous participation in society (Hedinsson, 1981).

Summary

To date, television viewing and sex role stereotyping have not been studied extensively. Consequently, relationships between selected variables, television viewing and stereotyping have been discussed in this chapter.

The evidence on behalf of the proposition that television is a primary agent of socialization and

instrumental in affecting sex role stereotyping seems convincing. What remains uncertain is the degree of influence and whether or not this influence is positive or negative. Rather than inquire if television is 'good' or 'bad', the main purpose of this investigation is to establish whether or not television is an important predictor variable of sex role stereotyping among young people. This will be accomplished by treating television viewing as an intervening process through which influence is dependent on a number of other factors such as age, gender, place of residence, religiosity and family communication patterns.

Chapter II presents the theoretical frame of reference to guide this study. Based on the symbolic interactionism of George Herbert Mead, television is conceptualized as a 'significant other' and having a number of properties which may influence the attitudes and behaviours of its audience.

II. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

A. Introduction

George Herbert Mead is credited with developing a fully sociological view of socialization. He took as a point of departure, the ideas of his predecessor, Charles Horton Cooley, that self is not conceived in isolation and then guided into social interaction, but is a product of social interaction to begin with. Cooley wrote: "there is no sense of 'I' . . . without a corresponding sense of you, or he, or they" (Cooley, 1902:182). Similarly, Mead states that the self arises in a process of social experience and activity and develops in a given individual both as a result of the relations to that process as a whole, and to other individuals within that process (Mead, 1934).

To Mead, this process is accomplished in two stages: the play stage and the game stage. The first stage of the development of self involves simply putting oneself in the place of the other. In the second stage of full development, Mead stipulates that the individual will take society's attitudes, in the form of 'generalized other', as her or his own. Alternately labeled 'significant other,'[1] it is defined as the "organized community or social group which gives to the individual his unity of self" (Mead, 1934:137).

---

[1] Cooley (1902) used the term "looking-glass self"; Mead (1934) used "generalized other"; Sullivan (1940) coined the term "significant other". All are the same in that they reflect appraisals of others (Kuhn, 1964)

Role-taking is the key concept in this picture of developing self. Obtained through reflecting on self from the standpoint of others, the term has been defined in a number of ways. Stone (1962:89) describes it as the process of "placing one's self in the attitude or incipient action of the other and representing one's own symbolic production to oneself from that attitude." Another definition is "the capacity to engage in the mental activity of imagining or perceiving what is in the mind of another person" (Burr et al., 1979:62). Laurer and Boardman (1971:139) say it is "the process whereby an individual imaginatively constructs the attitudes of the other and thus anticipates the behaviour of the other."

To Mead, the emergence of self involves increasing role-taking capabilities. The result is that the self becomes a reflection of the social structure of which it is part. The self, emerges through the internalization of social roles. This in turn, is accomplished through identification which reflects one's sense of self. As a key process in socialization, identification can be seen as an emotional and psychological attachment one has with an agent of socialization. This attachment makes him more receptive to their influence and motivated to be socialized in accordance with their standards (Gecas, 1981).

B. Television as an Agent of Socialization

Socialization is variously defined but typically refers to the process by which individuals learn to internalize their culture and the social roles expected of them (Goodman & Marx, 1978). Hoult (1977) says the term is at times used synonymously with learning but is usually reserved for the type of learning that involves group approval. The term, therefore, always has added meaning to learning and performing expected roles. An integral part of the definition is that the distinctive patterns that fit an individual into the particular place and subgroup in which he lives are dependent on learning through other people and agencies.

Because television is a relatively new human condition, it has not traditionally been considered an agent of socialization. Now, more and more writers believe it has brought about many changes to family life and the rearing of no children including new patterns of interaction, alteration of activities and vicarious socialization (Comstock, 1978).

Conferring socialization status on television rests on a number of considerations. One of the main considerations is the inordinate amount of time young people spend watching television. It appears the typical child watches about thirty hours of television a week (Baranowski, 1971; Gross & Jeffries-Fox, 1978, McGhee & Frueh, 1980). Moody (1980) says babies start watching television as early as three months

old, often because their mothers feed them while watching soap operas or talk shows. "By the time a child finishes high school he will have spent some 18,000 hours with the television curriculum and only 12,000 hours with the school curriculum" (Moody, 1980:4). The probability that exposure has dramatic short term effects is low, however, the daily ingestion of television material over long periods could influence the perception of social reality (Brown, 1976; McQuail, 1976).

Another consideration is that television is the construction of works that have exactly the same symbolic character as ordinary communications. For example, much of the television programming we are exposed to unfolds human predicaments and shows the consequences of making certain decisions. It shows how different responses affect the whole course of events and it commonly heightens the viewers sense of involvement and participation by cleverly engaging his or her interest. People routinely cheer, advise, admonish or otherwise respond to television performers as they would in face-to-face contact. In short, television draws the viewer into on-going action, gives him account of it, and simultaneously presents him with a description of the consequences of the actions; the circumstances leading to the actions; and, the personal and social relatedness of the actions to each other (Ellis et al., 1982).

A related, yet slightly different concept that is fundamental to the discussion, is that some socialization

processes have always been mediated to a certain degree. That is, objects, events and personalities have been communicated, in one form or another, if they have been outside the range of direct experience (Lang & Lang, 1981). By providing electronic unity, plugging millions of people into the same experience, television has replaced smoke signals, the pony express and the telegraph in helping people pool information concerning events and issues that are likely to affect them. The power of television, however, lies not only in the messages it transmits but also in the messages it creates, produces, disseminates and/or sustains (Gans, 1979). Like other agents of socialization, television provides a continuous orientation and a common point of reference.

C. Television as Significant Other

While there are a number of strong arguments for considering television as a significant other, there are also some difficulties which must be addressed. These are interrelated problems and hinge on the central issue of role taking which is based on interaction and the evaluation of another's appraisal in the development of self. On the face of it, the inanimate nature of television does not seem to lend itself well to this type of activity.

For Cooley (1902), the most important source of reaction facilitating role taking occur in face-to-face interaction. Help with the problem of picturing interaction

between an individual and the inanimate television set is provided by two sources. The first is Horton and Wohl's (1956) concept of "para-social" interaction; the second is Vaihinger's (1924) "as if" statement.

Levy (1979:71) defines para-social interaction as a "relationship of intimacy at a distance in which audiences experience the illusion of face-to-face primary relations with actually remote mass media communicators." Vaihinger (1924) contended that in a social world where knowledge of the other is incomplete, an individual must proceed "as if" this were not the case. The role taking process has two distinguishable "as if" elements: (a) A hypothetical assumption: "suppose I were John Doe?"; and, (b) A consideration of the consequences of the assumption, "What would I do if I were John Doe?" (Sarbin, 1954:225). Conceivably, John Doe could be substitued for Mr. T., Remington Steele or a host of other television characters.

This generates the question of whether or not an individual is obliged to role-take all salient others with whom he or she interacts. Cooley (1902:170) clearly indicates a degree of choice. He writes: "Of the new persons that a child sees, it is evident that some make a strong impression and awaken a desire to interest and please them, while others are indifferent or repugnant. . ." Presumably, the elements that would make one television character more signficant than another are the same as those which make one human more significant than another. Laurer and Handel

(1977) suggest these elements might include salience, power, affect and one's goals or plans of action. Alternately, television characters who most resemble social significant others may also be more salient to the viewer.

The logic developed to this point suggests that viewers see the reflections of their attitudes and actions from the perspective of television "others" through a process of "para-social interaction" and the capacity to treat an object or event "as if" it were something else. Remaining unanswered, however, is the question of *why* television is needed, wanted, or otherwise used as a facilitator of interaction.

When Cooley and Mead wrote about the development of self there was no television. Family, friends, and peers were the important agents of socialization because they alone provided the framework for interaction. In addition, schools and churches were among the first organizations to have an impact on an individual's life. The preceding remarks by Moody (1980) and others indicate that this is no longer the case.

One of the major complaints is that television viewing reduces the time people spend doing things together. Studies show that high television viewing families eat fewer meals together, play fewer family games together, and spend less time in conversation (Comstock, 1978; Moody, 1980). If this is so, para-social interaction may represent an alternative for social relationships in the absence of opportunities for

face-to-face interaction. "The more opportunities an individual has for social interaction, the less likely he or she will engage in a para-social relationship"(Levy, 1979:78). The converse is also true.

Finally, the notion of "significant other" does not require the "other" to be either physically present or human (Ellis et al., 1982). Attention is drawn to the aforementioned definitions of role taking. All that is required is "the imagination of his judgement of that appearance" (Cooley, 1902:231). People routinely evaluate their behaviour from the point of view of such "others" such as deceased parents, former friends and enemies, or even God (Ellis et al., 1982). It is not unreasonable to add television characters to the list of potential significant others. To the extent that the viewer imagines how a character would evaluate his or her own behaviour as a hypothetical fabrication is irrelevant. Researchers have long accepted W.I. Thomas' statement "Whatever a man defines as real is real in its consequences" (Thomas & Znaniecki, 1931).

D. Summary

From a symbolic interaction point of view, socialization is a continuous process of negotiated interactions out of which the self is created (Gecas, 1981). With this in mind, viewers will be considered as conscious, creative individuals existing in a number of interacting

social and psychological contexts involved in interaction rather than reaction in attempting to make their lives meaningful.

A further implication is that attention must be given to the contexts within which socialization takes place. Gecas (1981) says contexts include such things as families, schools and peer groups as well as attributes such as age and sex composition, educational level, economic status, etc. of these groups.

The number of contexts in contemporary complex society is limitless. The strategy here will be to consider the most salient contexts, and their dimensions, that may be expected to influence television viewing and its role in the socialization process among young people.

Hypotheses that test this type of relationship are developed and discussed in Chapter III. These hypotheses consider a number of contexts generated from the preceeding literature review and the proposed theoretical perspective that may influence the viewing experience and have possible effects on sex role stereotyping. These include family relations,[2] age, gender and place of residence, religiosity and socio-economic status. The successful combination of these constructs is aimed at a general assessment of television's role in people's lives. The study, therefore, should be regarded as descriptive and exploratory in nature. It is intended to clarify concepts, test the utility of the

[2]The impact of the school is recognized but not studied in order to reduce the complexity of the research undertaking...

proposed orientation and establish priorities for future research.

III. RESEARCH PROBLEM AND HYPOTHESES

A. Introduction

In Chapter I, television viewing was discussed as being a possible factor contributing to sex role stereotyping among adolescents. To explain this association theoretically, a socialization perspective designating television as a 'significant other' was presented in Chapter II. Variables to be used in the empirical investigation of this relationship are presented here. Suggested variable relationships are developed and hypotheses to be tested are outlined in the concluding sections of this chapter. Operational definitions are provided in the next chapter.

B. The Research Model

A more general concern of this project is to develop a conceptual scheme that will explain adolescent's television use and any consequences thereof in addition to uncovering predictor variables which account for the greatest portion of variance in sex role stereotyping.

Figure 3.1 presents a conceptual model of adolescent's television use. This graphic presentation represents the major variable relationships that will be examined here. The arrows indicate causal links hypothesized between the different boxes in the model. Although television viewing may have direct effects on sex role stereotyping, it is also

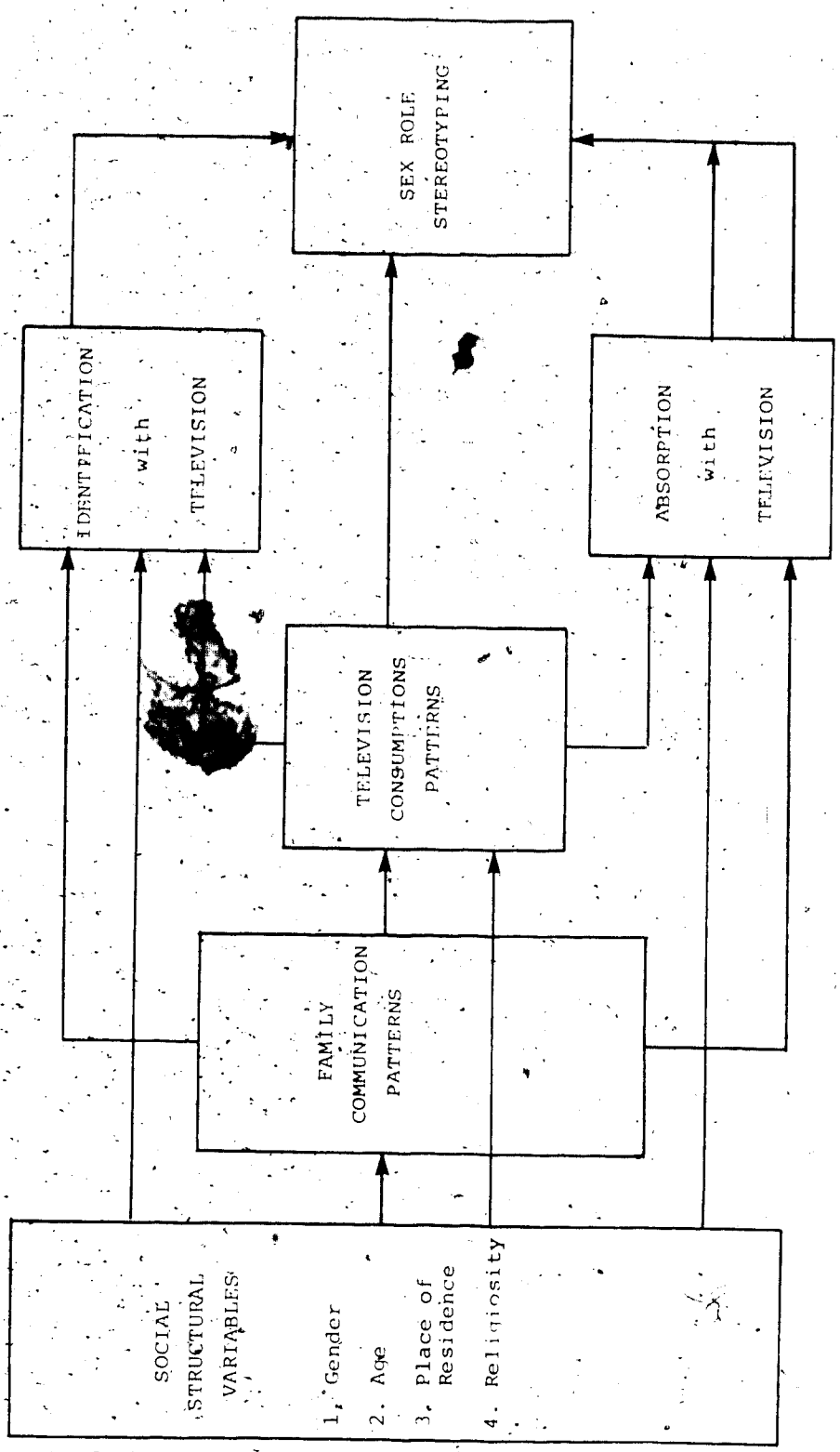

FIGURE 3.1

CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF ADOLESCENT'S TELEVISION USE

viewed as a force that combines with other variables to influence sex role stereotyping. For instance, the model stresses television viewing operating as an intervening process through which social structural variables operate to influence sex role stereotyping. Each have the potential to be either socialization agents or cause variations in the process.

These relationships, and their consequences, have been suggested by both the literature review and the proposed theoretical perspective. Structural variables include gender, age, place of residence and religiosity. The literature suggests that males and females relate differently to television content. In addition, there appear to be systematic changes in both television viewing and sex role stereotyping during the adolescent years. Rural/urban differences and religiosity have not been studied extensively in communications research but have traditionally been considered in the area of sex-roles. Those who live in rural areas and those who adhere strongly to religious ideology are seen as more conservative and more likely to engage in sex role stereotyping.

The social variables employed in the model comprise of family communication patterns. Based on the premise "what a parent knows may be less important than how he transmits it to this child" (Chaffee et al., 1973:349), this two dimension typology reflecting either (a) the emphasis parents place on social harmony and the expectation that children be

deferential to elders in striving to maintain harmonious personal relations (socio-orientation); or, (b) emphasis on intellectual expression and the expectation that children should be encouraged to develop their own ideas about the world (concept-orientation).

For the purposes of this study, involvement with television is measured in three different ways. First, total number of viewing hours per week is seen as extremely important. The second and third television measures are identification and absorption with television respectively. Identification refers to the degree of social learning the viewer perceives from watching television. Absorption refers to the illusionary face-to-face primary relation an individual experiences with television programming.

Levels of sex role stereotyping may be influenced by certain factors associated with the aforementioned variables. These factors, as well as the interrelationships between the model component will be discussed in subsequent sections. Theoretical definitions for each of these variables are now presented in detail.

C. The Model Components

Social Structural Variables

The first variables used in the model are social structural in nature. Dembo & McCron (1976) point out that this kind of information is necessary to uncover social

relationships and patterns of meaning to individuals in specific settings. "It provides insight into the stocks of knowledge held by them, and the relevance of particular features of their life-style for them -- essential ingredients in understanding how and why they engage in meaningful action" (Dembro & McCron, 1976:138). Direct influence accounts of media behaviour rely almost exclusively on social structural explanations to interpret communication behaviour. Although a socialization perspective retains an emphasis on social structural variables, the influence is seen as indirect through their effects on the practices of various socialization agents, "the practices in turn altering communication behaviour" (McLeod & O'Keefe, 1972:210).

Age, gender, place of residence and religiosity have been selected for investigation here. Age is seen as an extremely important variable because it is associated with a particular life-style or life stages. In attempting to meet the general goal of relating what is known about television viewing and social behaviour to issues and problems in socialization, attention here is focused on the adolescent. Those between the ages of 12 and 17 are not only in a position to be influenced by a host of socialization agents due to increasing freedom and independence (McLeod & Brown, 1976); they are also among the first to be socialized in the new climate surrounding the women's liberation movement and its concomitant re-definition of sex roles.

It is widely accepted that an individual's gender is one of the most important determinants of interpersonal behaviour and attitudes (see Frieze et al., 1978; Brooks-Gunn & Mathews, 1979). Striking gender differences on a number of television viewing dimensions are evident in the literature review. In spite of recent changes in social attitudes regarding sex roles, studies support Brofenbrenner's (1961) observation that some families may emphasize differences in sex roles more than others (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). Socialization studies by definition, therefore, should look at differences among the sexes whenever possible.

Place of residence is also seen as having possible implications. Miller (1974) has shown that this variable generally reflects special group interests, variations in life style and general ideological differences. This study was conducted in a rural area where a large number of respondents live on a farm as opposed to residing in the town proper. Place of residence also influences the type and number of television programs available to some of the respondents.

Finally, religiosity was selected for investigation. Some of our most pervasive sexual attitudes are derived from the Judeo-Christian tradition where the inferiority of women is well established (Frieze et al., 1978). Although the use of religiosity as a variable is almost non-existent in communication literature, it has traditionally been used to

investigate sex role attitudes and perceptions.

Family Communication Variables

The socialization role of the family is of central importance to this study.[3] Family communication patterns are employed here as social variables. It is likely that the family constitutes the foremost agent that systematically molds the behaviour patterns of adolescents. Coleman (1980) argues that as an interactional system its internal structure and relationships provide the earliest and probably the most important context in which adolescents develop. That parent-child communication is one of the most prevalent forces in adolescent development is a basic assumption behind the family communication typology discussed within the social interaction section of the literature review. In fact, this typology is a specific example of trying to treat social interaction processes as variables (McLeod & O'Keefe, 1972). This study employs the family communication typology developed by reseachers at the University of Wisconsin's Mass Communication Research Center discussed earlier in the literature review.

While the social origins of family communication patterns are unclear, researchers (Chaffee et al., 1972) have found there are two general dimensions of communication structure in the family. "The concept-orientation involve

---

[3]While the impact of the school and the peer group are recognized as important social variables, they are not studied here in order to reduce the complexity of the research undertaking.

positive constraints to stimulate the child to develop her or his own views about the world, and to consider more than one side of an issue" (McLeod & Brown, 1976:213). This environment not only exposes a child to controversey but encourages him to challenge the beliefs of others and to express his own ideas. "The socio-orientation involves parental expectations that the child should be deferential to his elders, maintain harmonious personal relationships and withhold his feelings." (McLeod & Brown, 1976:213). The main element here is conformity although researchers have at time dichotomized each dimension (see literature review). Others (Lull, 1982; Wade, 1973) have found it more useful to retain the two dimensional model. It is the latter that will be employed here.

Television Relations Variables

The successful link between the conceptual model and the theoretical frame of reference is dependent upon the successful designation of television as an agent of socialization. From a symbolic-interactionist perspective, this is best accomplished by conceiving television as a 'significant other' and by relating some form of interaction between it and the viewer.

Significant others are those persons who exercise major influence over the attitudes of individuals (Woelfer & Haller, 1971). One of the attributes of a television viewing society is an unprecedented sharing of the same experience

thereby standardizing and legitimizing cultural patterns. In addition to its widespread availability, television cultural penetration is secured because unlike radio, it can show as well as tell; unlike the movies, television is (relatively) free, and unlike the print media, television does not require literacy from its audience (Gross & Jeffries-Fox, 1978).

This study employs three measures of television relations or interactions a viewer may have with his television set. These included are total number of television hours consumed per week, identification and absorption with television.

Television Consumption. Every study written on the effects of television includes consumption patterns in sheer numbers of hours per day or week. In order to achieve this, researchers at one time had to determine accessibility or availability of television. This is no longer the case. Comstock (1978) reports that today almost every home has one or more television sets, 50% have two or more sets and 70% have colour sets. Closer to home, Ishwaran (1975) estimates 99.9% of the Canadian population are exposed to television on a regular basis. It is available twenty-four hours a day to most of the population. With over 4 million hours of programming a year, Gerbner and Gross (1980) say television is now our common and constant learning environment. "It is the first mass-produced and organically composed symbolic environment into which all children are born and in which

they will live from cradle to grave." (Gerbner & Gross, 1980:177).

It appears the typical child watches television for upward of thirty hours per week--more time than he spends with parents, peers or attending school. Baronowski (1971) reports young people are exposed to television from 1.5 to 6 hours daily. Gross & Jeffries-Fox (1978) found children grades six through nine watched an average of 4.3 hours per day. Heavy viewers in the McGhee/Freuh (1980) study watched in excess of 25 hours per week. In many households, the television is turned on for most of the day whether or not anyone is watching making it a background to family activities throughout the day and evening.

Identification with Television. The theoretical perspective offered earlier demands going beyond measures of consumption in determining the possible learning mechanisms involved in television viewing.

From the myriad of images, events and patterns emanating from television, a world emerges that often intermingles with our own. No one really questions the basic "reality" of the world of television yet we know it is often based on artistic conventions rather than governed by facts of life. While it may seem to be an accurate relection of real life, it contains systematic distortions and biases such as the under-representation of women and minorities and exaggerated relationships between various forms of success, sex, age, and occupation (Hawkins & Pingree, 1981). While on

the one hand a normal adult viewer is likely to be aware of the ficticious nature of television drama, on the other hand the extent to which viewers suspend their disbelief in television reality is unknown. The premise of realism may predispose people, particularly young people to falsely assess the status of images they observe.

The proposition that adolescents interact with the television content they see rests on the premise that television viewing is an alternative for actual human interaction. Interaction here is measured by two distinct concepts. One is the perceived reality of television. A subjective measure, it seeks to determine if television is a potent source of incidental learning by assessing the relative importance television has on the adolescent's world view. The assumption is that people's belief in the true-to-life nature of television content will increase the prediction of television's effects (Reeves, 1978, Greenberg & Reeves, 1976:685). "Perceiving program content to be realistic is presumed to make TV information more socially useful and more likely to be assimilated equitable with information from non-television sources" (Reeves, 1978). More than an alternative to actual human interaction, Sebald (1968) suggests television has taken over, with some force, from human interaction. He says the superior strength, imagination and achievements of television heros (as well as villians) make parents seem pale and unimaginative in comparison causing them to decline in efficacy as role

models.

Absorption with Television. The third measure of interaction is more objective and based on the concept of para-social interaction developed by Horton & Wohl (1956) and modified by Rosengren & Windahl (1976, 1974, 1972). Para-social interaction refers to a situation whereby a viewer feels a close rapport with the television model who is presented by design, as an intimate confident and friend in a simulated face-to-face exchange.

Neither Rosengren et. al., (1976) nor Hedinsson (1981) found the four-fold typology of para-social interaction discussed in the literature review to be extremely significant, therefore, some alterations have been made for its use here. Labelled absorption, this dimension of interaction attempts to measure the extent to which a person recognized self in a television program or wishes to be another and becomes involved in that individual, vicariously participating in his or her activities, thoughts and feelings. This concept measures the desire to be or be like the hero or heroine in the program.

Sex-Role Stereotyping Variables

Launched in the early sixties, the outset of the women's liberation movement produced a decade of rapid fire attacks on the status quo and received such massive public attention that the tenets of the movement, as well as its proponents, became familiar to the majority of the

population. The long range impact of women's liberation, for the most part unrecognized, is yet to be felt (Petras, 1975). It is, however, not restricted to females or female sex roles. Serious academic interest has developed in all aspects of the topic including male sex roles, the development of sex role identity among children, and the ways mass media reflect, or fail to reflect, these changes.

In spite of the intense social turmoil regarding women's rights and the accompanying increase in social science research on male-female relations, there is little academic on approaching or defining sex role stereotyping. Alternately called 'sexism,' 'sex-typing', or 'sex-discrimination', the implications of sex role stereotyping can suggest something negative; i1 Cameron's (1977) words: "a prejudicial attitude or discriminatory behaviour based on presumed inferiority or difference of women as a group." Consequently, sex role stereotypes, are seen by some as mechanisms that deny equal opportunity and resources to individuals and impose unnecessary differentiations between men and women.

In the empirical literature, sex role stereotyping is usually tapped by responses to attitudinal measures regarding traditional vs. non-traditional behaviour and/or psychological dimensions of male/female roles or attributes. Studies show men are consistently characterized as logical, worldly, active, competitive, more aggressive, independent and ambitious. They are also stereotyped as less emotional,

excitable and dependent than are women. On the other hand, females are characterized as being more sensitive, talkative, neat, religious, and gentle than men. On behavioural dimensions, women are seen as having more responsibility for domestic chores, including the rearing of children while men occupy more responsible occupational positions (see Udry, 1965; Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974; Stockard and Johnson, 1980).

Sex role development as well as concomitant sex role stereotyping are aspects of the socialization process, mediated by various social groups and agencies, by which an individual acquires information and forms attitudes that enable comprehension of male and female roles. It is a major contention of this investigation that television is both a direct influence and a mediating agency in sex role stereotyping among adolescents.

D. Variable Relationships

In Chapter I, television relations were discussed as important factors associated with sex role stereotyping. For the purposes of this study, "television relations" mean the amount of time a viewer spends watching television, the amount of identification with television a viewer has and the degree of abosoption one has. It is proposed that the more intense these relationships are, the more likely the viewer is to have stereotypic sex role perceptions.

It is suggested that family is one of the most important agencies insofar as sex role development is concerned. Adolescents from families that emphasize conformity and lack of individual thought are believed to engage more heavily in television relations than adolescents from concept-orientated families. The combination of family communication orientation and intense television relations are seen as influencing sex role stereotyping among adolescents.

A number of social structural variables which may influence television interactions and sex role sterotyping have also been proposed. Gender is one important factor. The literature suggests boys are heavier television consumers than girls. It is proposed that males identify and are more strongly absorbed with television than are girls. Additionally, boys are believed to have stronger sex role stereotyping perceptions than girls.

As children grow older, their activities increase and become more diversified. The literature suggests older adolescents not only watch less television but their attitudes, including their sex role attitudes, become more relaxed. Older adolescents are seen as being less involved with television and less likely to engage in sex role stereotyping than younger adolescents.

There is no evidence that adolescents living in rural areas watch more television than adolescents living in town. In fact, there are less viewing hours available to those

living in rural arease due to the unavailability of cable and pay T.V. services. Generally speaking, however, rural residents are more conservative and less favourable to change than those living in more populated areas and are therefore perceived as more likely to engage in sex role stereotyping. It is proposed that adolescents living in rural areas have more intense televsion relations and are more likley to sex role stereotype than adolescents living in town.

Finally, it is suggested that religiosity is an important variable in that it has traditionally been considered a key factor influencing a host of social attitudes and values. Usually, the dogmatic nature of a religious denomination and the degree of involvement one has with his or her church determines the scope of influence religiosity has. It is proposed that religiosity is positively related to sex role stereotyping.

E. Research Problem and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study is to establish whether television viewing may be an important predictor of sex role stereotyping among adolescents. In addition, a socialization frame of reference, such as the one proposed, seeks to establish the connection between adolescent television consumption and the social and structural constraints that operate to shape adolescent sex role perceptions. Finally, any interplay between social and structural constraints and

the possible consequences thereof are sought.

The variables to be employed in an empirical investigation of this research problem have been discussed and several relationships between the variables have been proposed. Within the confines of the available data and on the theoretical and empirical work outlined earlier, the following hypotheses represent the expected outcomes of this study.

1. Sex-role stereotyping among adolescents is directly related to their television interactions with the highest stereotypic levels associated with the most intense interactions.

    1.1 Adolescents who are heavy television viewers are more likely to sex role stereotype than are light viewers.

    1.2 Adolescents who identify with television are more likely to sex role stereotype than those who do not identify with television.

    1.3 Adolescents who are absorbed with television are more likely to sex role sterotype than those who are not absorbed with television.

2. Sex-role stereotyping among adolescents is directly and indirectly related to their family communication patterns with the highest stereotypic levels with authoritarian family patterns and the lowest stereotypic levels associated with non-authoritarian family patterns.

2.1 Adolescents from authoritarian families are more likely to sex role stereotype than are adolescents from non-authoritarian families.

2.2 Adolescents from authoritarian families are more likely to be heavy television viewers than adolescents from non-authoritarian families.

2.3 Adolescents from authoritarian families are more likely to identify with television than are adolescents from non-authoritarian families.

2.4 Adolescents from authoritarian families are more likely to sex role stereotype than are adolescents from non-authoritarian families.

3. Sex-role stereotyping among adolescents is directly and indirectly related to gender with males having the highest stereotyping levels.

3.1 Adolescent males are more likely to sex role stereotype than adolescent females.

3.2 Adolescent males are more likely to be heavy television viewers than adolescent females.

3.3 Adolescent males are more likely to identify with television than are adolescent females.

3.4 Adolescent males are more likely to be absorbed with television than are adolescent females.

4. Sex-role stereotyping among adolescents is directly and indirectly related to age with younger adolescents having the highest stereotypic levels.

4.1 Younger adolescents are more likely to sex role stereotype than older adolescents.

4.2 Younger adolescents are more likely to be heavy television viewers than older adolescents.

4.3 Younger adolescents are more likely to identify with television than are older adolescents.

4.4 Younger adolescents are more likely to be absorbed with television than are older adolescents.

5. Sex-role stereotyping among adolescents is directly and indirectly related to place of residence with adolescents living in rural areas having the highest stereotypic levels.

5.1 Adolescents who live in rural areas are more likely to sex role stereotype than adolescents who live in town.

5.2 Adolescents who live in rural areas are more likely to be heavy television viewers than adolescents who live in town.

5.3 Adolescents who live in rural areas are more likely to identify with teleivsion than are adolescents who live in town.

5.4 Adolescents who live in rural areas are more likely to be absorbed with television than are adolescents who live in town.

6. Sex-role stereotyping among adolescents is directly and indirectly related to religiosity with the highest stereotypic levels associated with the highest church participation.

6.1 Adolescents who participate in church are more likely to sex role stereotype than adolescents who do not participate in church.

6.2 Adolescents who participate in church are more likely to be heavy television viewers than adolescents who do not participate in church.

6.3 Adolescents who participate in church are more likely to identify with television than adolescents who do not participate in church.

6.4 Adolescents who participate in church are more

likely to be absorbed with television than are adolescents who do not participate in church.

F. Summary

In Chapter III, a research model that includes the variables to be employed in this study has been presented. These variables have been theoretically defined and from this discussion, a research problem was developed and hypotheses to be tested were outlined. Chapter IV now includes operational definitions of variables contained in the research model, an outline of the sampling procedures, and the first stage of the data analysis using descriptive statistics.

IV. THE SAMPLE AND METHODOLOGY

A. Introduction

The opening sections of this chapter outline the procedures used for data analysis and the operational definitions of the variables employed in the study. This is followed by a discussion of the sampling methodology and a descriptive summation outlining important sample characteristics relevant to the study. Because the television relations variables are so central to this study, their characteristics and relationships with other variables in the model are discussed at length at the end of this chapter.

B. The Sample

A school setting may be the best environment to study adolescents primarily because such a large portion of their day is spent there. Basic data for the study was provided by a self-administered, questionnaire completed by students enrolled in the Barrhead Junior High School. Anonymity was assured by numbering the questionnaires rather than have students put their names on them. Barrhead is a rural community located approximately 75 miles North West of Edmonton. It has a combined town and rural population of approximately 10,000. A large percentage of the residents engage in farming or farm related activities. Students in

the Barrhead school system have excellent athletic, music and dramatic arts programs and are offered a variety of studies including matriculation, business, vocational, diploma and occupational vocations.

The questionnaire contained a diverse array of questions regarding family background; parental employment, income, occupation and education as well as occupational and educational aspirations of respondents. It also attempted to determine the relative influence of parents, teachers, peers and television on a variety of issues.

A pre-test and revision of the questionnaire was conducted one week before its final administration. Then, random samples from each of the five grades seven, eight and nine yielded 226 responses from a total population of 425 students. Because the rooms are not segregated for specialized programs, the sample is representative and directly comparable on a number of characteristics. The questionnaire was designed so that each student, regardless of academic ability, was able to complete it within one class period. At the principal's suggestion, the questionnaire was administered during the first class period of the day. Not only did the Superintendent of Schools and the Junior High School Principal give their approval to the study, they, along with the teaching staff, were supportive and helpful both in streamlining the questionnaire as well as its administration.

C. Analysis of the Data

The analysis of the data occurs in a number of parts. SPSSX (Nie & Hull, 1981) computer programs were utilized in testing the hypotheses. Initial analysis consist of correlational methods; factor analysis, reliability and one way anova. The main analysis use multiple regression.

Pearson Corr was applied to the data in order to obtain zero-order correlations between the dependent variable (sex role stereotyping) and each of the independent variables in the model. Although limited by the lack of control over outside influences, Pearson correlation coefficients "summarize the strength of association between a pair of variables and provides an easy means for comparing the strength of the relationship between one pair of variables and a different pair" (Nie et al., 1975:279).

Factor Analysis was used when appropriate to achieve simpler and theoretically more meaningful indices capable of measuring some of the concepts of the model. Based on the assumption that observed correlations are mainly the result of some underlying regularity in the data, scales are built using only those variables that have substantial loadings on a given factor. For this study, variables with coefficients of .6 or greater were selected for scale construction. The factor procedure used here is varimax rotation with pairwise deletion of missing data. For exploratory purposes, each scale was dichotomized at their mid points to reflect high and low categories.

Reliability was used to insure the legitimacy of scales constructed. "In general, the computations performed by the subprogram are designed to be used in those situations where the goal is to assess how reliable a sum or weighted sum across variables is as an estimate of a case's true score"(SPSSX, 1983:248). If all the variation in the observed scores is due to error, the reliability coefficient will be 0. If there is no measurement error, the reliability coefficient will be 1. Without exception, alpha coefficients for all of the scales constructed are above 0.7.

Anova is very similar to **Crosstabs** but the former yields more concise information and also allows for a test of linearity. The program calculates the means and variances for a dependent variable over subgroups of cased defined by independent and/or control variables. Significant differences between eta squared and R squared indicates non-linearity. Since the relationship between variables in a regression model are presupposed to be linear and additive (Nie et al., 1975), the test for linearity is important. Should curvilinear relationships emerge, transformations may be accomplished through the creation of dummy variables. "Since the dummy variables have arbitrary metric values of 0 & 1, they may be treated as interval variables and inserted into a regression equation" (Nie et al., 1975:374).

Crosstabulations are a prominent analytical tool in social science research due to their ease in presentation and interpretation. The main bases for using crosstabs in

this study is for clarity of presentation, particularly among nominal level variables.

Multiple Regression is a general statistical technique that analyzes the relationships between a dependent variable and a set of independent variables by specifying the amount of variation in the dependent variable that can be accounted for by all the independent variables acting together. It summarizes the relationship of variables and breaks down those relationships in order to assess the importance of particular independent variables in terms of their effect on the dependent variable. Standard and forward stepwise method with listwise deletion of missing data listed in *New Regression* (SPSSX, 1983)* is used. With the stepwise method, each variable is added to the regression equation in a separate step until all have been included. After the first most powerful variable is entered, the contribution of each successive variable is composed of the independent and interactive effects due to whichever variable has previously been entered. As a further check for interaction effects, backward elimination procedures have also been conducted.

A regression coefficient represents the slope of the regression line of the dependent variable on an independent variable "that would be obtained by holding out or holding constant each of the remaining independent variables considered in the regression equation" (Blalock, 1972). Such

---

* The tolerance criterion was set at 0.0001 with the probability of F to enter as 0.1 and the probability of F to remove as 0.15 (Nie & Hull, 1981:107)

coefficients are constants and indicate the expected change in the dependent variable with one unit of change in an independent variable. This study utilizes both the standardized partial regression coefficient (Beta) and the unstandardized B. Beta represents the slope of the line when all the variables are Z transformed to have means of zero and standard deviations of one (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973).

The coefficient of determination or multiple R squared indicates the amount of variation in the dependent variable that can be accounted for by all of the independent variables acting together. A high R squared would in general indicate that the explanatory power of the chosen set of independent variables vis-a-vis the dependent variables is good.

D. Operational Definitions and Frequency Distributions for Model Variables

In this section, the selection and operational definitions of the model variables are discussed along with a summary of various frequency distributions. For the most part, variables are discussed in the order they appear in the model presented on page 37. The exception to this is with the television relations variables which are discussed in more detail at the end of the chapter.

Social Structural Variables and Characteristics

The first four variables, gender, age, place of residence and religiosity, are social structural in nature. In estimating sex role stereotyping as a function of these variables, age and religiosity have been dichotomized at the mid point for easier presentation.

Gender is measured in the usual way by responses to the question:

Are you? ___Male ___Female

Table 4.1 shows there are slightly more females in the sample (53.5%) than males (46.5%).

Age is operationalized by the number of years the respondent has lived from birth to enumeration. These scores were employed for the initial descriptive analyses and later dichotomized to reflect those adolescents 13 years of age and under (referred to thoughout the study as younger adolescents) and those 14 years of age and over (referred to as older adolescents). The age range is 12 to 17 with a mean age of 13. After dichotomizing the age variable, 43.8% fall into the young age category and 56.2% are classified as older.

Place of residence is determined by answers to the question:

Where do you live?

1. ___In Town
2. ___On an Acreage
3. ___On a Farm

Table 4.1

Frequency Distribution for Social Structural Variables

	%	N
Gender		
1) Male	46.5	105
2) Female	53.5	121
Age		
1) Twelve	14.2	32
2) Thirteen	29.6	67
3) Fourteen	34.5	78
4) Fifteen	13.7	31
5) Sixteen	6.6	15
6) Seventeen	1.3	3
Place of Residence		
1) Town	29.2	66
2) Acreage	21.7	49
3) Farm	47.8	108
Religiosity		
1) More than once a week	3.5	8
2) Once a week	22.6	51
3) Two or three times a month	13.7	31
4) Once a month	7.1	16
5) Once or twice a year	24.8	56
6) Not at all	26.5	60

The majority of those surveyed, almost half (47.8%) live on farms. Twenty-nine percent of the respondents live in town and 22% live on acreages.

Religiosity refers to the extent one adheres to the religious ideology of their choice. It is operationalized according to self-reported, "actual" frequencies of attending church services. The question was presented as:

> In the past year, how often have you attended church?
>
> 1. ___More than once a week
> 2. ___Once a week
> 3. ___Two or three times a month
> 4. ___Once a month
> 5. ___Once or twice a year
> 6. ___Not at all

The variable was recoded for crosstabs so that the first two categories represent high religiosity and the remaining categories indicative of low religiosity. Table 4.1 shows that 51.8% of the sample have low religiosity scores and 48.2 score high on religiosity measures.

Family Communication Patterns

Chapter I presented a theoretical discussion of family communication patterns developed by researchers at the University of Wisconsin's Mass Communication Research Center. This study employs the concepts developed from that research.

Socio-orientation stresses conformative family relations. "The socio-orientation involves parental expectations that the child should be deferential to his

elders, maintain harmonious personal relationships and withhold his feelings" (McLeod and Brown, 1976). For simplification, socio-orientated families are referred to here as authoritarian[5] families.

Concept-orientations are built on a self-reliance factor. "The concept-orientation involves positive constraints to stimulate the child to develop her or his own views about the world, and to consider more than one side of an issue" (McLeod and Brown, 1976). Socio-orientated families in this study are referred to as non-authoritarian families.

Responses to questions listed in Appendix A were recoded and then additively constructed to form the family communication scale. Reliability tests were then conducted and the scale was dichotomized to represent each family category. The scale was divided at the mid point so there is an equal distribution of adolescents in each family groups. Low scores represent non-authoritarian families and high scores represent authoritarian families.

Family Communication Pattern Characteristics

Table 4.2 summarizes the descriptive statistics for the family communication patterns variable. After dichotomizing

---

[5]While the term "authoritarian" embraces a number of concepts (punitiveness as a response to deviance; chauvinistic nationalism; social prejudice and discriminatiopn; restriction of civil liberties, etc.), for the purposes of this study, it refers strictly to the orientation definitions outlined.

Table 4.2

Characteristics of Family Communication Patterns

	Non-Authoritarian %	Non-Authoritarian N	Authoritarian %	Authoritarian N
Total Sample	49.8	108	50.2	109
Gender				
1) Male	40.6	41	59.4	60
2) Female	58.6	68	41.4	48
Age				
1) Less than 13	47.4	45	52.6	50
2) Greater than 14	52.5	64	47.5	58
Place of Residence				
1) Town	56.7	34	43.3	26
2) Acreage	50.0	24	45.8	24
3) Farm	45.8	49	54.2	58
Religiosity				
1) Low	46.5	53	53.5	61
2) High	54.4	56	45.6	47

the scale, 49.8% of the adolescents surveyed are from non-authoritarian homes and 50.2% are from authoritarian homes. Males are more likely to come from authoritarian homes than are females which may have implications for sex role stereotyping. Of the males surveyed, 59.4% are from authoritarian homes compared with only 41.4% of females. Predictably, younger adolescents report being from authoritarian homes more often than older adolescents.

Adolescents living in town are more likely to be from non-authoritarian environments than are adolescents living on farms. There is an equal split of family communication pattern types for those living on acreages. Adolescents who score high on religiosity are more likely to come from non-authoritarian than authoritarian homes.

Sex Role Stereotyping

For the purposes of this study, sex role stereotyping is considered to be an attitude towards male and female social roles as opposed to 'sex', 'sex-differences and/or 'sex role identification'. The process of stereotyping may be defined at the attibution of psychological characteristics to persons on the basis of group membership rather than on individual behaviours (Williams et al., 1975). A short multi-dimensional scale developed by Rombough & Ventimglia (1978) measuring attitudes toward sex roles in three broad areas is employed here. The items submitted for factor analysis are found in Apppendix B.

Factor analysis reduced the 17 items to three scales. The first scale reflected an external division of labour element and consisted of VAR'S 481, 482, 485 and 496. The second factor included VAR'S 489, 490, 493 and 494. and reflected internal division of labour. The third represents the nurturing role of women and includes VAR'S 483, 484, 487 and 494. Initial analysis showed the first and third factor to be ineffective, therefore, the decision to use a unidimensional measure reflecting sex role stereotyping was made. The measure is represented by the second factor which is the weighted score of VAR'S 489, 490, 493 and 494. They are as follows:

VAR489 A husband should handle the money.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR490 A woman should wait until her children are out of school before she goes to work.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR493 Women should have the same freedom as men.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR494 Men are more emotionally suited for politics than women.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

This scale will be referred to throughout this thesis as sex role stereotyping or sex role attitude.

Sex Role Stereotyping Characteristics

Based on the sex role stereotyping scale developed, frequency distributions outlined in Table 4.3 indicate that

Table 4.3

Characteristics of Sex-Role Stereotyping

	Low		High	
	%	N	%	N
Total Sample	51.8	117	48.2	109
Family Communication Patterns				
1) Non-Authoritarian	67.9	74	32.1	35
2) Authoritarian	35.2	38	64.8	70
Gender				
1) Male	39.0	41	61.0	64
2) Female	62.8	76	37.2	45
Age				
1) Less than 13	56.6	56	43.4	43
2) Greater than 14	48.0	61	52.0	66
Place of Residence				
1) Town	65.2	43	34.8	23
2) Acreage	42.9	21	57.1	28
3) Farm	47.2	51	52.8	57
Religiosity				
1) Low	47.9	56	56.0	61
2) High	52.1	61	44.0	48

52% of the adolescents sampled are classified as low and 48% classified as high in terms of sex role stereotyping. Among those who have high sex role stereotyping scores, there is an equal split between heavy and light television viewing for total television hours. For Sunday television viewing however, those with high sex role stereotyping scores tend to be light television viewers. Table 4.4 a similar patterns for identification scores. In terms of absorption with television, 54.4% of those with high sex role stereotyping scores also highly absorbed with televrsion.

Adolescents from authoritarian families have higher sex role stereotyping scores than adolescents from non-authoritarian homes (65% compared with 35%).

Males in this study have higher sex role stereotyping scores than females. As Table 4.3 shows, 63% of the males scored high on sex role stereotyping scores compared with 37% of the females, Surprisingly, older adolescents score higher on stereotyping measures than younger adolesents. Of the older adolescents surveyed, 52% have high sex role stereotyping scores compared with 43% of the younger adolescents. Adolescents who live in rural areas are more likely to sex role stereotype than their counterparts living in town. Adolescents living on acreages have the highest sex role role stereotyping scores. As Table 4.3 shows, 57% of those living on acreages have high stereotyping scores compared with 53% of those living on farms and 35% of those living in town. Surprisingly, high religiosity scores do not

Table 4.4

Characteristics of Sex-Role Stereotyping & Television Viewing

	Low		High	
	%	N	%	N
Total Hours				
1) Low	50.9	56	49.1	54
2) High	52.6	61	47.4	55
Sunday Television				
1) Low	52.		50.0	43
2) High	47.		50.0	43
Identification				
1) Low	51.5	52	54.3	63
2) High	48.5	49	45.7	53
Absorption				
1) Low	58.5	48	45.6	62
2) High	41.5	34	54.4	74

necessarily mean high sex role stereotyping scores. Table 4.3 also shows that 44% of those scoring high on religiosity also score high on sex role stereotyping. Among those scoring low on religiosity, 52% also score high on sex role stereotyping.

Television Relations

The argument presented earlier suggests people watch television as an alternative to actual human interaction, hence, television may be considered a 'significant other'. Presumably, a human 'significant other' would be most influential to a young person if (a) they spent a lot of time together; (b) if the young person learns from the 'significant other'; and, (c) if the young person imagines what his behaviour would be like if he were the 'significant other.'

The television relation measures are intended to tap the interaction a viewer has with his television set. Each measure has similar attributes as a human 'significant other.' Hours of television watched per week represents the time element; identification has a learning component and absorption is indicative of the imaginary, or capture element, that television may have.

Television Consumption

Hours of television viewing per week was determined by responses to the question:

About how many hours do you spend watching television each day of a typical week?

1.___ hours Monday
2.___ hours Tuesday
3.___ hours Wednesday
4.___ hours Thursday
5.___ hours Friday
6.___ hours Saturday
7.___ hours Sunday

Table 4.5 outlines the descriptive statistics for daily television hours consumed by the respondents surveyed. Originally, the intention was to create a weekly television viewing scale by adding up the total hours of television viewed per day. Pearson correlation coeffiecients presented in Table 4.6, however, indicated that there were differences among the variables in direction and strengths for Sunday viewing. The decision to employ two television consumption scales was made. One reflects total viewing from Monday to Saturday inclusive and the other reflects only Sunday viewing hours. The former may at times be referred to as total viewing hours or total weekly viewing hours, however, at no point in the analysis will it include Sunday viewing.

For ease of presentation, respondents who report watching television 16 hours per week or less are classified as a light viewer and those watching 17 hours per week or more are classified as heavy viewers. For Sunday television viewing, heavy viewers are considered to be anyone watching 3 hours or more.

Table 4.5

Characteristics of Daily Television Consumption

	Mean	Median	Std Dev	Range
Monday	2.757	3.0	2.334	8
Tuesday	2.965	3.0	1.574	8
Wednesday	2.619	2.0	1.717	10
Thursday	3.004	3.0	1.719	8
Friday	3.482	3.0	2.380	12
Saturday	3.907	3.0	3.075	20
Sunday	2.447	2.0	2.046	12

N = 226

Table 4.6

Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Television Consumption & Variables Comprising Sex-Role Stereotyping Scale

	MON TEL	TUE TEL	WED TEL	THR TEL	FRI TEL	SAT TEL	SUN TEL	VAR489	VAR490	VAR491	VAR492
MON TEL	1.0000 (226)	.3702 (226) P= .000	.7021 (226) P= .000	.3270 (226) P= .000	.4997 (226) P= .000	.5586 (226) P= .000	.1011 (226) P= .065	-.0421 (226) P= .265	-.1038 (226) P= .060	-.0244 (226) P= .358	-.0737 (226) P= .135
TUE TEL		1.0000 (226)	.6757 (226) P= .000	.7505 (226) P= .000	.6178 (226) P= .000	.3987 (226) P= .000	.3719 (226) P= .000	.0129 (226) P= .423	.0160 (226) P= .406	.0902 (226) P= .088	.0410 (226) P= .270
WED TEL			1.0000 (226)	.6239 (226) P= .000	.6161 (226) P= .000	.5321 (226) P= .000	.2890 (226) P= .000	.0271 (226) P= .343	-.0576 (226) P= .194	-.0085 (226) P= .449	-.0198 (226) P= .384
THR TEL				1.0000 (226)	.6132 (226) P= .000	.3902 (226) P= .000	.2812 (226) P= .000	.0475 (226) P= .239	-.0569 (226) P= .197	.0264 (226) P= .347	-.1014 (226) P= .064
FRI TEL					1.0000 (226)	.6506 (226) P= .000	.3069 (226) P= .000	-.0740 (226) P= .134	-.0738 (226) P= .135	.0405 (226) P= .272	-.0018 (226) P= .489
SAT TEL						1.0000 (226)	.3465 (226) P= .000	-.0826 (226) P= .108	-.0502 (226) P= .226	.1024 (226) P= .062	-.0578 (226) P= .194
SUN TEL							1.0000 (226)	.0763 (226) P= .127	.0534 (226) P= .212	.0642 (226) P= .168	.0665 (226) P= .160
VAR489								1.0000 (226)	.2982 (226) P= .000	.4181 (226) P= .000	.1964 (226) P= .002
VAR490									1.0000 (226)	.3997 (226) P= .000	.3019 (226) P= .000
VAR491										1.0000 (226)	.3869 (226) P= .000
VAR492											1.0000 (226)

Television Viewing Characteristics

Television Consumption. In general, adolescents surveyed watched 3 hours of television, on average, per week night. Based on a dichotomy of heavy and light television viewers, 49% of the sample are light viewers and 51% are heavy viewers. (See Table 4.7) Males are more likely to be classified as heavier television viewers than females (56% compared with 47% for total television viewing hours and 42% compared with 35% for Sunday television viewing hours - see Table 4.8). Adolescents 13 years of age and under are the heaviest television consumers. Respondents who live in rural areas watch slightly less television per week than their more urban counterparts, however differences are extremely slight. In spite of the fact there is more television available to those living in town with the accessibility of cable and pay television there is only an average of five percent difference in total weekly television consumption between those living in town, those living on acreages, and those living on farms. People who score high on religiosity measures tend to watch less television than those who score low on religiosity to total television viewing hours. For Sunday television viewing, however, those scoring high on religiosity also score high on consumption.

As the literature suggests, adolescents from authoritarian families are heavy television consumers. Table 4.7 shows 59% of adolescents from authoritarian families are classified and heavy television viewers and only 41% of

Table 4.7

Characteristics of Total Weekly Television Consumption

	Light Viewers %	Light Viewers N	Heavy Viewers %	Heavy Viewers N
Total Sample	48.7	110	51.3	116
Gender				
1) Male	43.8	46	56.2	59
2) Female	52.9	64	47.1	57
Age				
1) Less than 13	37.4	37	62.6	62
2) Greater than 14	57.5	73	42.5	54
Place of Residence				
1) Town	45.5	30	54.5	36
2) Acreage	49.0	24	[illegible].0	25
3) Farm	50.9	55	49.1	53
Religiosity				
1) Low	43.6	51	56.4	66
2) High	54.1	59	45.9	50
Family Communication				
1) Non-Authoritarian	58.7	64	41.3	45
2) Authoritarian	40.7	44	59.3	64

Table 4.8

Characteristics of Sunday Television Consumption

	Light Viewers		Heavy Viewers	
	%	N	%	N
Total Sample	61.9	140	38.1	86
Gender				
1) Male	58.1	61	41.9	44
2) Female	65.3	79	34.7	42
Age				
1) Less than 13	56.6	56	43.4	43
2) Greater than 14	66.1	84	33.9	43
Place of Residence				
1) Town	53.0	35	47.0	31
2) Acreage	61.2	30	38.8	19
3) Farm	67.6	73	32.4	35
Religiosity				
1) Low	63.2	74	36.8	43
2) High	60.6	66	39.4	43
Family Communication				
1) Non-Authoritarian	70.6	77	54.6	59
2) Authoritarian	29.4	32	45.4	49

those from non-authoritarian families are classified as heavy viewers. Table 4.8 shows a reverse trend for Sunday television viewing. Here, adolescents from authoritarian families are less likely to be heavy viewers than those from non-authoritarian families.

Identification with Television. This is the second television interaction variable. This too is an additively constructed scale that indicates the extent to which television is a vehicle for learning among young viewers. To some extent, this scale also represents the perceived reality of television. A total of 26 possible variables were submitted to factor and reliability analysis. Items yielding the best possible measures with which to construct the identification scale are listed in Appendix C.

Overall, 45% of the sample fall into the low identification category and 51% identify strongly with television. Data in Table 4.9 show females are more likely to have higher identity with television scores than males but the differences are only slight. As expected, younger adolescents score higher on identification with television scores than older adolescents. In spite of the fact that adolescents watch similar amounts of television regardless of their place of residence, the data shows that adolescents who live in rural areas have higher identification scores than other adolescents. Those living on acreages have the highest identification scores while those living on farms have the next highest scores followed by adolescents who

Table 4.9

Characteristics of Identification With Television

	Low Identification		High Identification	
	%	N	%	N
Total Sample	46.5	101	53.5	116
Gender				
1) Male	50.0	51	50.0	51
2) Female	43.5	50	56.5	65
Age				
1) Less than 13	39.6	38	60.4	58
2) Greater than 14	52.1	63	47.9	58
Place of Residence				
1) Town	54.1	33	45.9	28
2) Acreage	40.8	20	59.2	29
3) Farm	44.2	46	55.8	58
Religiosity				
1) Low	46.5	53	46.6	48
2) High	53.5	61	53.4	55
Family Communication				
1) Non-Authoritarian	49.0	51	51.0	53
2) Authoritarian	40.4	42	59.6	62

live in town. There is no difference in absorption with television scores between high and low categories of religiosity.

In terms of family communication patterns, adolescents from non-authoritarian homes are more likely to identify strongly with television than adolescents from authoritarian homes (60% compared with 51%, see Table 4.9).

Absorption with Television. Similar steps were taken to create a scale reflecting the imaginary or capture element viewers may develop as part of the interaction process with television. In the final analysis, variables listed in Appendix C combined to make the scale reflecting the capture dimention. For clarity this scale is referred to throughout the discussion as absorption with television.

Overall, 60% of the sample are highly absorbed with television. In spite of the fact that males are the heaviest consumers of television, it is females who have the highest absorption scores. As Table 4.10 shows, 73.5% of the females sampled are highly absorbed with television compared with only 49.5% of the males. Younger adolescents, those 13 years of age and under, have higher absorption scores than older adolescents but this was expected.

For some reason, adolescents living on acreages are more likely to have high absorption rates than those living on farms or in town. Table 4.10 shows 69% of those living on acreages have high absorption rates compared with 63% of those living in town and 59% of those living on farms. No

Table 4.10

Characteristics of Absorption With Television

	Low Absorption		High Absorption	
	%	N	%	N
Total Sample	37.6	82	62.4	136
Gender				
1) Male	50.5	51	49.5	50
2) Female	26.5	31	73.5	86
Age				
1) Less than 13	24.7	23	75.3	70
2) Greater than 14	47.2	59	52.8	66
Place of Residence				
1) Town	36.9	24	63.1	41
2) Acreage	31.1	14	68.9	31
3) Farm	41.0	43	59.0	62
Religiosity				
1) Low	37.8	42	62.2	69
2) High	37.4	40	62.6	67
Family Communication				
1) Non-Authoritarian	46.2	49	53.8	57
2) Authoritarian	27.9	29	72.1	75

differences were found in absorption rates between categories of religiosity.

As Table 4.10 shows, adolescents from authoritarian homes have higher absorption with television scores than adolescents from non-authoritarian homes. Among adolescents from non-authoritarian families, 72% fall into the high absorption category compared with 54% of those from non-authoritarian homes.

E. Summary

This chapter has outlined the operational definitions, sampling procedures and analytic techniques employed in this investigation. In addition, a number of measures describing social structural, sex role stereotyping and television characteristics have been provided.

These preliminary analysis yield some interesting, and in some cases, unexpected results. First of all, older adolescents in this sample have higher sex role stereotyping scores than younger adolescents. The literature review suggests the reverse trend is more usual; as adolescents get older their sex role attitudes become more liberal. Secondly, people who score high on religiosity score low on total television viewing hours but high for Sunday television viewing. This could be due to the emphasis of religious programming on Sunday, or, to the fact that Sunday is considered a day of rest, therefore, more time for leisurely activities. It is also interesting to note that

adolescents living on farms have the highest identification with television scores and the lowest abosorption scores. At the same time, adolescents living on acreages have higher sex role stereotyping scores than either those living in town or on farms.

In the next chapter statistical procedures including multiple regression are used to test the hypotheses developed from the research model. The findings that have resulted from the initial descriptive analysis will be elaborated upon with the use of more powerful multivariate statistical techniques.

V. TESTING THE HYPOTHESES

A. Introduction

The major aim of this chapter is to determine whether there is statistical support for any of the hypotheses presented in Chapter III. Analysis of the effects of the independent variables on sex role stereotyping suggested by the research model are examined and statistical support for each hypothesis developed from the model is thereby assessed. An examination of possible interaction effects among the variables is also included in this analysis. The rationale for these inclusions, as well as their effects, will be discussed with the progression of the data analysis.

B. Summary of the Correlations

Pearson's correlation coefficient is used to measure the strength and direction of the more linear relationships and those involving nominal variables sub program **Breakdown** is employed so that differences in means may be compared. In some instances, crosstabs are used for clarity of presentation. In the second part of the analysis, the dependent variable, sex role stereotyping is regressed on all remaining model variables using standard and stepwise regression procedures. Findings are discussed in the order the hypotheses are presented in Chapter III.

Television Consumption and Sex-Role Stereotyping

Table 5.1 summarizes the zero-order correlations for sex role stereotyping, total weekly television viewing and Sunday television viewing hours. Perhaps the most important finding is the high correlation between total television viewing hours and Sunday television. In spite of this (or perhaps because of it), each consumption variable influences sex role stereotyping in a different direction.

Contrary to the main argument of this thesis, that television and sex role stereotyping are positively correlated, there is in fact, an inverse relationship between the two. That is, as television viewing hours increase, sex role stereotyping decreases. Although the direction is totally unexpected, the relationship is not statistically significant.

As indicated, the results are different for Sunday television viewing. There is a positive, significant relationship, between sex role stereotyping and television viewing on Sunday. There is no obvious reason as to why any one particular viewing day would have a different effect than any other day. There seems to be more emphasis on religious programs on Sundays which may account for some of the variation. Otherwise, the finding is difficult to interpret.

Based on the findings for total weekly television viewing hours, which include Monday to Saturday viewing, there is little statistical support for hypothesis 1.1 which

Table 5.1

Pearson Correlation Coefficients For Model Variables

	SEX	AGE	ACRE	REL	FAMCOM	TOTALHR	SUNTEL	IDENT	ABSORB	SRS
SEX	1.0000 (226)	-.1730 (226) P= .005	.0619 (223) P= .179	.1399 (223) P= .018	-.0717 (217) P= .147	-.1219 (226) P= .034	-.1524 (226) P= .011	.0852 (217) P= .106	.3166 (218) P= .000	-.2043 (226) P= .001
AGE		1.0000 (226)	-.0245 (223) P= .358	-.0703 (223) P= .148	-.1510 (217) P= .013	-.2327 (226) P= .000	-.1433 (226) P= .016	-.1118 (217) P= .050	-.2044 (218) P= .001	.0901 (226) P= .088
ACRE			1.0000 (223)	-.1475 (220) P= .014	-.0207 (215) P= .381	.0542 (223) P= .210	.0424 (223) P= .264	.0741 (214) P= .140	.0934 (215) P= .086	.1603 (223) P= .008
REL				1.0000 (223)	-.1130 (215) P= .049	-.1565 (223) P= .010	-.1323 (223) P= .024	.0351 (214) P= .305	.0466 (216) P= .248	-.1000 (223) P= .068
FAMCOM					1.0000 (217)	.1135 (217) P= .048	.1438 (217) P= .017	.0438 (208) P= .265	-.0132 (210) P= .424	.2416 (217) P= .000
TOTALHR						1.0000 (226)	.3549 (226) P= .000	.2541 (217) P= .000	.1867 (218) P= .003	-.0369 (226) P= .291
SUNTEL							1.0000 (226)	.2110 (217) P= .001	.0737 (218) P= .139	.0919 (226) P= .084
IDENT								1.0000 (217)	.1538 (209) P= .000	.0061 (217) P= .464
ABSORB									1.0000 (218)	-.0248 (218) P= .358
SRS										1.0000 (226)

states: *Adolescents who are heavy television viewers are more likely to sex role stereotype than are light viewers.*

Identification with Television and Sex-Role Stereotyping

Data summarized in Table 5.1 show a positive relationship between identification with television and sex role stereotyping. Adolescents who identify highly with television are more likely to stereotype than adolescents who do not. Although the relationship is in the expected direction, the results are not statistically significant.

Findings reported here provide little statistical support for hypothesis 1.2 which states: *Adolescents who identify with television are more likely to sex role stereotype than adolescents who do not identify with television.*

Absorption with Television and Sex-Role Stereotyping

The data indicate the relationship between absorption with television and sex role stereotyping is not statistically significant, however, the direction is unexpected. Pearson's correlation coefficient indicate that as absorption with television increases, sex-role stereotyping decreases.

These results provide little statistical support for hypothesis 1.3 which states: *Adolescents who are absorbed with television are more likely to sex role stereotype than adolescents who are not absorbed with television.*

Family Communication Patterns and Sex-Role Stereotyping

Data summarized in Table 5.1 indicate a strong, significant relationship between family communication patterns and sex role stereotyping among adolescents. The Pearson r of .242 is significant at the 1% level. Table 5.2 further clarifies the relationship. Among adolescents from authoritarian families, 65% have high sex role stereotyping scores compared with only 32% of those from non-authoritarian families. More than twice as many adolescents from authoritarian families, than non-authoritarian families, engage in sex role stereotyping.

These results provide strong statistical support for hypothesis 2.1 which states: *Adolescents from authoritarian families are more likely to sex role stereotype than are adolescents from non-authoritarian families.*

Family Communication Patterns and Television Consumption

In terms of television consumption patterns, there is a positive relationship between both television consumption measures and family communication patterns. Adolescents from authoritarian homes watch more television than adolescent from non-authoritarian homes. Pearson's r is significant at the 5% level for total television viewing and at the 1% level for Sunday television viewing hours.

These results lend strong statistical support for hypothesis 2.2 which states: *Adolescents from authoritarian families watch more television than adolescents from*

Table 5.2

Crosstabulation of the Television Relations Variables & Sex-Role Stereotyping by Gender

	Male %	Male N	Female %	Female N	Pearson r
Total Hours					
1) Light	41.8	46	58.2	64	-.091*
2) Heavy	50.9	59	49.1	57	
Sunday Television					
1) Light	43.6	61	56.4	79	-.072
2) Heavy	51.2	44	48.8	42	
Identification					
1) Low	50.4	60	49.6	59	.075
2) High	42.9	42	57.1	56	
Absorption					
1) Low	61.9	65	38.1	40	.301****
2) High	31.9	36	68.1	77	
Sex-Role Stereotyping					
1) Low	35.0	41	65.0	76	-.237****
2) High	58.7	64	41.3	45	

Note: The level of statistical significance of each estimate under the one tailed t-test is indicated by ****, ***, **, and * for one, two, five and ten percent levels respectively.

non-authoritarian families.

Family Communication Patterns and Identification with Television

As expected, adolescents from authoritarian families are more likely to identify with television than are adolescents from non-authoritarian families. Pearson r values for this relationship is, however, not statistically significant.

There is little statistical support for hypothesis 2.3 which states: *Adolescents from authoritarian families identify with television more than adolescents from non-authoritarian families.*

Family Communication Patterns and Absorption with Television

Data summarized in Table 5.1 show an unexpected, inverse relationship between family communication patterns and absorption with television. That is, Pearson r values suggest absorption with television is higher among adolescents from non-authoritarian families than among those from authoritarian family homes. The literature suggests otherwise. The relationship is, however, not statistically significant therefore there is little statistical support to hypothesis 2.3 which states: *Adolescents from authoritarian families are more absorbed with television than are adolescents from non-authoritarian families.*

Gender and Sex-Role Stereotyping

The relationship between gender and sex role stereotyping is summarized in Table 5.2 with mean differences outlined in Table 5.3. Results show there is a significant relationship between gender and sex role stereotyping. Boys are almost twice as likely as girls to have high stereotyping scores. As Table 5.2 shows, 61% of the boys have high sex role stereotyping scores compared with only 37% of the girls.

These findings give strong statistical support for hypothesis 3.1 which states: *Adolescent males are more likely to sex role stereotype than adolescent females.*

Gender and Television Consumption

Summary statistics for gender and television consumption are also found in Table 5.3. In addition to stereotyping more, boys also watch more television. This is true for both total weekly television viewing and Sunday television viewing hours. Table 5.4 shows only 47% of the girls are heavy television viewers compared to 56% of the boys for total weekly television viewing hours. Percentage differences are almost identical for Sunday television viewers. These findings offer considerable statistical support for hypothesis 3.2 which states: *Adolescent males watch more television per week than do adolescent females.*

Table 5.3

Breakdown of Sex-Role Stereotyping by Place of Residence, Gender and Age

	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
PLACE OF RESIDENCE			
Total Sample	1.4843	.5009	223
1) Town	1.3485	.4801	66
2) Acreage	1.5714	.5000	49
3) Farm	1.5278	.5016	108
GENDER			
Total Sample	1.4823	.5008	226
1) Male	1.6095	.4902	105
2) Female	1.3719	.4853	121
AGE			
Total Sample	1.4823	.5008	226
1) Less than 13	1.4343	.4982	99
2) Greater than 14	1.5197	.5016	127

Table 5.4

Crosstabulation of the Television Relations Variables & Sex-Role Stereotyping by Age

	< 13 %	< 13 N	> 14 %	> 14 N	Pearson r
Total Hours					
1) Light	33.6	37	66.4	73	-.199****
2) Heavy	53.4	62	46.6	54	
Sunday Television					
1) Light	40.0	56	60.0	84	-.098*
2) Heavy	50.0	43	50.0	43	
Identification					
1) Low	39.5	47	60.5	72	-.105*
2) High	50.0	49	50.0	49	
Absorption					
1) Low	31.4	33	68.6	72	-.219****
2) High	53.1	60	46.9	53	
Sex-Role Stereotyping					
1) Low	47.9	56	52.1	61	.085
2) High	39.4	43	60.6	66	

Note: The level of statistical significance of each estimate under the one tailed t-test is indicated by ****, ***, **, and * for one, two, five and ten percent levels respectively.

Gender and Identification with Television

Crosstabulations presented in Table 5.2 indicate that girls are more likely to identify with television than boys even though they watch less television per week. 49% of the girls surveyed have high identification scores compared with 41% of the boys. Bivariate statistics show, however, that the relationship is not statistically significant.

Based on these findings, there is little statistical support for hypothesis 3.3 which states: *Adolescent males are more likely to identify with television than are adolescent females.*

Gender and Absorption with Television

Table 5.2 indicates a strong relationship between gender and absorption with television. Again, it is girls who are more likely to be absorbed with television than boys even though they watch less television. Sixty-six percent of the girls, compared with 36% of the boys have high absorption rates.

The assumption was that boys would be more absorbed with television because they watch more of it. Clearly the two variables are not related in a positive manner. There is little statistical support for hypothesis 3.4 which states: *Adolescent males are more likely to be absorbed with television than are adolescent females.*

Age and Sex-Role Stereotyping

Table 5.4 indicates there is a positive relationship between age and sex role stereotyping. The literature review presented in Chapter II, and subsequent hypothesis, suggest that younger adolescents are more likely to sex role stereotype than older adolescents. The finding here show, that for this sample at least, older adolescents, i.e. those 14 years of age and over, are the most likely to stereotype. Crosstabs show that 52% of older adolescents have high sex role attitude scores compared with 43% of younger adolescents. In view of these findings there is little statistical support for hypothesis 4.1 which states: *Younger adolescents are more likely to sex role stereotype than are older adolescents.*

Age and Television Consumption

The relationship between total television viewing and sex role stereotyping is a negative but significant one. This is true for both consumption measures. As expected, as age increases the time spent viewing television decreases. With age comes an increase of diverse activities for adolescents so time spent on any one activity is minimized.

These findings lend support to hypothesis 4.2 which states: *Younger adolescents are more likely to be heavy television viewers than older adolescents.*

Age and Identification with Television

Data summarized in Table 5.4 show there is an inverse relationship between identification with television and age. Younger adolescents are more likely to identify with television than are older ones. Given the fact they watch more television, this finding is consistent. Table 5.1 verifies the finding that total hours watched and identification with television are highly correlated.

These findings lend statistical support for hypothesis 4.3 which states: *Younger adolescents are more likely to identify with television than are older adolescents.*

Age and Absorption with Television

As expected, there is also an inverse relationship between age and absorption with television. As adolescents grow older they are less likely to be absorbed with television. This finding is even stronger than the previous one. Significant at the 1% level, these findings provide statistical support for hypothesis 4.4 which states: *Younger adolescents are more likely to be absorbed with television than are older adolescents.*

Place of Residence and Sex-Role Stereotyping

Table 5.1 indicates that adolescents who live on acreages are more likely to engage in stereotyping than those either living on a farm or living in town. Statistically, the relationship is significant at the 1%

level. When the hypothesis was formulated, however, the assumption was that rural living would refer basically to farming. While in a sense acreage living is rural, other than perhaps hobby farming, it does not apply to farming in the traditional sense of the word.

Because of the unusual nature of the findings, confirmation cannot be given to hypothesis 5.1 which states: *Adolescents who live in rural areas are more likely to sex role stereotype than adolescents who live in town.*

Place of Residence and Total Television Consumption

Table 5.1 summarizes the relationship between place of residence and the television relations variables. The relationships between the television consumption variables and sex role stereotyping are not statistically significant. It has already been pointed out in the earlier descriptive analysis that adolescents surveyed watch approximately equal amounts of television regardless of where they live, or the accessibility of television.

These results lend little statistical support for hypothesis 5.2 which states: *Adolescents who live in rural areas watch more television than adolescents who live in town.*

Place of Residence and Identification with Television

Similar findings are evident when looking at place of residence and identification with television measures. Table

5.1 shows there is little statistical support for hypothesis 5.3 which states: *Adolescents who live in rural areas are more likely to identify with television than are adolescents who live in town.*

Place of Residence and Absorption with Television

Although the other television measures do not have significant relationships with place of residence, absorption with television does. Table 5.6 shows adolescents who live on acreages are more likely to be absorbed with television than adolescents either living on farms or those living in town. As with the relationship between sex role stereotyping and acreage living, there is no reasonable explanation for this unexpected relationship.

In view of these unusual findings, little statistical support is given to hypothesis 5.4 which states: *Adolescents who live in rural areas are more likely to sex role stereotype than adolescents who live in town.*

Religiosity and Sex-Role Stereotyping

Due to the traditional nature of religious dogma, it was assumed the more one is involved with his or her church, the move likely that person would be to have high sex role stereotyping scores. For this sample, at least, the reverse is be true. Table 5.1 shows there is an inverse relationship between religiosity as measured by frequency of church attendance, and sex role stereotyping. The relationship is

only slightly significant.

These findings do not lend statistical support for hypothesis 6.1 which states: *Adolescents who participate in church are more likely to sex role stereotype than adolescents who do not participate in church.*

Religiosity and Television Consumption

It was expected that if religiosity scores were high, television consumption would also be high. This is based on on the argument that adolescents who are not encouraged to be expressive and creative are more likely to be open to suggestion and engage in more passive activities. Using Pearson correlation coefficient as the most important indicator of the relative strengths of the variable relationships, Table 5.1 shows the opposite to be true for both television consumption measures. There is a significant, but inverse relationship for both total television viewing hours and Sunday television viewing. That is, as religiosity increases, television consumption decreases.

These findings do not lend statistical support for hypothesis 6.2 which states: *Adolescents who participate in church are more likely to be heavy television consumers than adolescents who do not participate in the church.*

Religiosity and Identification with Television

Results summarized in Table 5.1 indicate the relationship between religiosity and identification with television are not statistically significant. For the most part, the identification measure has not yielded any important analytical results to date. There is little statistical support for hypothesis 6.3 which states: *Adolescents who participate in church are more likely to identify with television than adolescents who do not participate in church.*

Religiosity and Absorption with Television

As with the other television measures, the relationship between religiosity and absorption with television are negative. That is, as religiosity increases, absorption with television decreases. This result is unexpected, however, not statistically significant. There is no statistical support for hypothesis 6.4 which states: *Adolescents who participate in church are more likely to be absorbed with teleivision than adolescents who do not participate in church.*

Summary

The major argument of this thesis is that television viewing operates to increase sex role stereotyping among adolescents. Initial results show this is not the case for total weekly television viewing hours which comprise Monday

to Saturday viewing. In fact, the opposite is true. Heavy television consumption scores are related to low sex role stereotyping scores. This relationship is not, however, statistically significant.

The trend for Sunday viewing is different. Here a more expected result is evident, i.e., as television viewing increase, sex role stereotyping increases. Statistically, the relaltionship barely reaches significance and, as stated earlier, there is no obvious reason as to why Sunday viewing should yield different results. The other television measures have not contributed significantly to the variation in sex role stereotyping among adolescents in this study.

Boys in this sample are almost twice as likely as girls to have high sex role stereotyping scores and are also the heaviest television consumers. In spite of this, girls are actually more absorbed with television than are boys. Age also appears to be an important factor. As predicted, older adolescents don't watch as much television, do not identify with television and are not absorbed with television to the same extent younger adolescents are. What is unexpected, however, is the fact that as adolescents grow older they tend to stereotype more, instead of less, than younger adolescents.

Place of residence yielded interesting results in the bivariate analysis with both measures of sex role stereotyping and television relations. Those living on acreages are more likely to engage in sex role stereotyping

than other adolescents in the study. Although all groups seem to watch about equal amounts of television, adolescents living on acreages are more absorbed with television than their counterparts living in town. Those living on farms have the lowest absorption rates.

Religiosity plays a minor albiet unexpected role in sex role stereotyping. As religiosity increases, sex role stereotyping decreases. Moreover, there is an unexpected, inverse relationship between religiosity and television consumption. The other television measures are not significantly useful to explain any of the variation.

The most significant relationships in this analysis involve the family communication patterns measures. Adolescents from authoritarian families, as predicted, are much more likely to have high sex role stereotyping scores than are adolescents from non-authoritarian families. Adolescents from authoritarian families are also much more likely to be heavy television viewers. Surprisingly, they were less likely to be absorbed with television than adolescents from non-authoritarian families in spite of the heavier consumption. Although the correlation between family communication and absorption with television is not significant, the direction is unexpected and hopefully the relationship will be clarified with further analysis.

Statistical findings summarized to date suggest that other variables, or combinations of variables, may be stronger predictors of sex role attitudes than the

television relations variables. Statistical analysis employing controls for the model variables are tested in the next section.

C. The Importance of Television Relations Variables as Predictors of Sex-Role Attitudes

In this section, variable relationships suggested by the research model presented in Chapter III are further tested by using multiple regression analysis. The purpose of this section is to evaluate which of the model components are likely to be stronger predictors of sex role stereotyping levels by controlling for the confounding effects of the other independent variables of the model.

The dependent variable, sex role stereotyping, is regressed on all remaining model variables using both standard and stepwise regression methods. With the standard procedure, all the predictor variables being examined are entered into the regression equation at once. With the stepwise procedure, predictor variables are added one by one so that the independent contribution of each variable to the overall variance can be assessed (Wonnacott and Wonnacott, 1977). The discussion will emphasis only those variables that yield maximum predictability.

The variable, place of residence, is transformed into a a dummy variable for regression purposes. Dummy variables are not only useful in regression equations because they represent the effects of a discrete, independent variable,

they are also helpful in testing for interaction effects. For the purposes of this study, the main contrast will be between those living on an acreage and the other two residential categories of town and farm.

Initially, regression analysis was conducted using all of the model variables. Both forward and backward stepwise methods indicate that the variables Sunday television viewing, identification with television, and age, have little utility as predictor variables. With regards to Sunday television vewing and identification, Table 5.5 shows they are highly correlated with other independent variables in the model suggesting the possibility of a supressor effect. Sunday television viewing correlates highly with total television viewing hours and identification with television correlates highly with absorption with television. Both have opposite effects on sex role stereotyping, however, only the consumption measures are statistically significant.

Age was predicted to play an important role in the analysis, however, did not contribute to the analysis. One possible explanation is the likelihood of a cohort effect overriding any developmental effect as emphasized in the literature review. Age is not simply a measure, or symptom of development; it also tells us something about a young persons social situation. Varying social and historical conditions often mean differences in cohorts' world views and life's conditions. Although Elder (1975) points out that

all events do not impinge uniformly on members of a cohort, one cannot ignore the shared experience of a generation. Age could be a proxy for social change indicating higher tolerance toward social roles among successive cohorts.

In subsequent regression analysis, the seven remaining independent variables in the model account for 15% of the variation in the dependent variable, sex role stereotyping. Although it was predicted that television viewing would be the most important predictor of sex role stereotyping it is in fact the least. Moreover, when holding family communication patterns, gender, and place of residence constant, the inverse relationship between television viewing and sex role stereotyping remains.

Family communication patterns explain the most variation in sex role stereotyping. As expected, the authoritarian family environments produce higher sex role stereotyping scores than non-authoritarian families. Confirming earlier findings, boys are more likely to engage in sex role stereotyping than girls. Adolescents living on acreages are also uniformly higher on sex role stereotyping scores than either adolescents living in town, or those living on farms. These findings are summarized in Table 5.5.

The strong impact of family communication patterns and gender warrants further examination of each of the sub-groups in these categories. Table 5.6 summarize the results for boys. Family communication patterns are the most significant variable. Boys from authoritarian families are

Table 5.5

Standard Multiple Regression Coefficients of Model Variables Upon Sex Role Stereotyping

$R^2 = .161$ N=189

	GENDER	FARM	ACREAGE	RELIG	FAMCOM	TOTALHR	ABSORB
a.	-2.043 (****)	.819	2.834 (****)	-.152	.144 (****)	-.068 (**)	.014
b.	- .213	.085	.244	-.053	.251	-.141	-.022

Stepwise Multiple Regression Coefficients of Model Variables Upon SRS

$R^2 = .153$ N=192

	GENDER	ACREAGE	FAMCOM	TOTALHR
a.	-2.094 (****)	2.412 (****)	.150 (****)	-.064 (**)
b.	- .218	.208	.261	-.133

a. Metric coefficients
b. Standardized coefficients

Note: The level of statistical significance of each estimate under the one tailed t-test is indicated by ****, ***, **, and * for one, two, five and ten percent levels respectively.

Table 5.6

Standard Multiple Regression Coefficients of Model Variables Upon Sex Role Stereotyping for Boys

$R^2 = .241$ N=84

	AGE	FARM	ACREAGE	RELIG	FAMCOM	TOTALHR	SUNTEL	IDENT	ABSORB
a.	.286	1.338	1.620	.0062	3.401 (****)	-.068	.074	.0042	-.089
b.	.085	.164	.160	.0026	.407	-.169	.141	.0054	-.163

Stepwise Multiple Regression Coefficients of Model Variables Upon SRS

$R^2 = .188$ N=91

	FAMCOM	ABSORB
a.	3.620	-.102 (**)
b.	.433	-.186

a. Metric coefficients
b. Standardized coefficients

Note: The level of statistical significance of each estimate under the one tailed t-test is indicated by ****, ***, **, and * for one, two, five and ten percent levels respectively.

more likely to stereotype than boys from non-authoritarian families. Absorption is also a significant variable but the direction of the relationship is unexpected. As absorption with television increase, sex role stereotyping decreases. Standard regression shows all the variables in the model account for .24% of the variation in sex-role stereotyping among boys. The family communication and absorption with television variables themselves explain 19% of the variation. Neither total number of television hours watched nor acreage living has any influence on sex role stereotyping among boys.

For girls, family communication patterns are also important, however the slope in not as strong as for boys. Girls living on acreages are the most likely to sex role stereotype and girls living in town are the least likely. As Table 5.7 shows, standard regression shows that 18% of the variation in sex role stereotyping among girls is accounted for by all of the variables in the model. Of this, family communication patterns and acreage living account for 15% of the variation.

When looking at the sub-groups within family communication patterns, adolescents from non-authoritarian families have the most amount of variation in their sex role attitudes explained by religiosity, total weekly television viewing hours and acreage living (see Table 5.8). As expected, among this group the relationship between total television viewing hours and sex role stereotyping is

Table 5.7

Standard Multiple Regression Coefficients of Model Variables Upon Sex Role Stereotyp Girls

$R^2 = .181$ N=94

	AGE	FARM	ACREAGE	RELIG	FAMCOM	TOTALHR	SUNTEL	ABSORB
a.	.054	.717	4.221 (****)	-.397	2.521 (****)	-.058	.030	.060
b.	.011	.069	.345	-.122	.237	-.106	.012	.082

Stepwise Multiple Regression Coefficients of Model Variables Upon SRS

$R^2 = .149$ N=100

	ACREAGE	FAMCOM
a.	4.016 (****)	2.571 (****)
b.	.328	.242

a. Metric coefficients
b. Standardized coefficients

Note: The level of statistical significance of each estimate under the one tailed t-test is indicated by ****, ***, **, and * for one, two, five and ten percent levels respectively.

Table 5.8

Standard Multiple Regression Coefficients of Model Variables Upon Sex Role Stereotyping for Non-Authoritarian Family Communication Patterns

$R^2 = .152$ N=89

	GENDER	AGE	FARM	ACREAGE	RELIG	TOTALHR	SUNTEL	IDENT	ABSORB
a.	-1.261	-.311	.535	2.015	-.560 (**)	-.108	-.186 (***)	-.052	.092
b.	-.136	-.080	.060	.194	-.212	-.233	-.077	-.061	.152

Stepwise Multiple Regression Coefficients of Model Variables Upon SRS

$R^2 = .115$ N=95

	ACREAGE	RELIG	TOTALHR
a.	1.782 (*)	-.534 (**)	-.100 (***)
b.	.084	.042	.030

a. Metric coefficients
b. Standardized coefficients

Note: The level of statistical significance of each estimate under the one tailed t-test is indicated by ****, ***, **, and * for one, two, five and ten percent levels respectively.

negative. Encouraged to develop and express their own ideas as well as be open to the ideas of others, television viewing was not expected to positively effect the sex role perceptions of this group. The importance of religiosity and its negative relationship with sex role stereotyping among this group is harder to explain. On the face of it, one could speculate the influence of more liberal theologies may be emerging, however, churches in the area where the data were collected tend to be over represented by stricter fundamentalist ideologies.

Among adolescents from authoritarian family environments, those living on acreages and farms are the most likely to have high sex role stereotyping scores. Table 5.9 shows there is almost a two point difference between those living on farms and those living on acreages, with the latter having the most stereotypic scores. Authoritarian family communication patterns also seem to enhance the effect of Sunday television viewing on sex role stereotyping. This finding was expected, however, the inverse relationship between absorption and sex role stereotyping for this group was not. Possibly this group use television to escape the authoritarian nature of their environments and absorption with television is actually operating to promote more balanced social attitudes toward gender roles.

The most noteable effect yielded by regression analysis are the differences in partial tables when controlling for

Table 5.9

Standard Multiple Regression Coefficients of Model Variables Upon Sex Role Stereotyping for Authoritarian Family Communication Patterns

$R^2 = .206$ N=88

	GENDER	AGE	FARM	ACREAGE	RELIG	TOTALHR	SUNTEL	IDENT	ABSORB
a.	-.756	.406	1.972 (*)	3.735	.310	-.058	.542	.035	-.116
b.	-.080	.101	.213	.320	.108	-.123	.262	.048	-.193

Stepwise Multiple Regression Coefficients of Model Variables Upon SRS

$R^2 = .158$ N=93

	FARM	ACREAGE	SUNTEL	ABSORB
a.	2.081 (**)	3.854 (****)	.417 (**)	-.139 (***)
b.	.224	.330	.201	-.231

a. Metric coefficients
b. Standardized coefficients

Note: The level of statistical significance of each estimate under the one tailed t-test is indicated by ****, ***, **, and * for one, two, five and ten percent levels respectively.

other variables in the model. For example, authoritarian family communication patterns seem to enhance the pro-stereotypic effects of some of the other variables including Sunday television viewing, religiosity and acreage living. Similarly, the effect of acreage living is much more prominant for girls than for boys. These differences make it difficult to talk exclusively about main effects because interaction effects are, in all likelihood, operating. Stated another way, the magnitude of the impact of X1 on Y is conditional on the current value of X2 (Hayduk and Wonnacott, 1980).

A cursory examination of Table 5.8 show the main interactions involve family communication patterns with Sunday television viewing, religiosity, acreage living, absorption with television and total television viewing hours; and, gender with acreage living, family communication patterns and absorption with television. The possibility of interactions between these variables was tested through the inclusion of relevant multiplicative terms in the regression equation.

The hiearchical F Test (Nie et. al., 1975) was used to evaluate the contribution of each of the eight interactions. The model was also tightened up by introducing more stringent limits (PIN=0.04). In doing so, interactions between gender and family communication patterns; gender and absorption with television; and, family communication patterns and total television viewing hours became

non-significant and dropped from the analysis.

Table 5.10 summarizes the final regression equation including interaction terms. The overall explained variance has almost doubled from 15% (see Table 5.7) to 26% (see Table 5.9). All of the indirect interactions are statistically significant. In addition, the analysis yields several tentative conclusions.

Perhaps the most relevant finding to this study, and the most interesting, is the relationship between television consumption and sex role stereotyping. In spite of the convincing arguments to the contrary and the rigorous testing procedures, television viewing does not operate to increase sex role stereotyping. For this sample, sex role stereotyping decreases as television viewing increases. Although the coefficient for total television viewing hours remain within an acceptable level of statistical significance, it is clearly not as large as those for several other variables in the equation. Gender, absorption with television religiosity and the interaction variables created are more significant.

In terms of the other television relations variables, identification with television did not contribute statistically to the overall model. Absorption with television and Sunday television viewing hours, on the other hand, both had significant main effects and interaction effects when combined with family communication patterns. When holding all other variables constant, absorption with

Table 5.10

Standard Multiple Regression Coefficients of Model Variables With Interaction Terms Upon Sex Role Stereotyping

$R^2 = .279$ N=180

	ABSORB	FAMCOM	SUNTEL	RELIG	GENDER	ACRE	FAM-SUN	FAM-REL	GEN-ACR	GEN-FAM	TOTALHR	FAM-ACR	GEN-ABS	FAM-ABS	FAM-TEL
a.	.038	.225	-1.370 (**)	-2.129 (***)	-4.269	-15.274 (****)	.040 (**)	.049 (**)	3.650 (***)	-.046	.116	.312 (****)	.165 (**)	.008	-.004
b.	.061	.390	-.597	-.738	-.444	-1.316	.697	.653	.521	-.219	.239	1.011	.627	-.541	-.442

Stepwise Multiple Regression Coefficients of Model Variables Upon SRS

$R^2 = .260$ N=183

	ABSORB	FAMCOM	SUNTEL	RELIG	GENDER	ACRE	FAM-SUN	FAM-REL	GEN-ACR	TOTALHR	FAM-ACR	FAM-ABS
a.	.400 (***)	.089	-1.330 (*)	-2.459 (****)	-2.494 (****)	-13.761 (****)	.038 (**)	.060 (***)	3.486 (***)	-.063 (*)	.279 (****)	-.010 (***)
b.	.629	.154	-.580	-.852	-.259	-1.186	.683	.796	.498	-.130	.904	-.755

a. Metric coefficients
b. Standardized coefficients

Note: The level of statistical significance of each estimate under the one tailed t-test is indicated by ****, ***, **, and * for one, two, five and ten percent levels respectively.

INTERACTIONS
FAM = Family Communication
SUN = Sunday Television
GEN = Gender
ACR = Acreage Living
ABS = Absorption with Television
Tel = Total Weekly Viewing

television correlates positively with sex role stereotyping but when combined with family communication patterns the effects of absorption on sex role stereotyping are inhibited.

D. Summary

Family communication patterns appear to play the most dominant role in the analysis. As Table 5.10 shows, in the presence of the variables' net effects, it can be concluded that the zero-order relations between family communication patterns and sex role stereotyping is the spurious product of their relations with other variables, particularly religiosity, Sunday television viewing, absorption with television and place of residence. It appears the more authoritarian family communication patterns enhance the pro-stereotypic effect of these variables. Otherwise, the main effects of family communication patterns constitute little unique explanatory power to the understanding of adolescent sex role stereotyping.

Another finding which calls for some comment is the observed interaction between gender and place of residence. Females who live on acreages are more likely to have higher stereotyping scores than anyone else. The other male/female differences are limited to those adolescents living on farms or in town. Among these adolescents, males are more likely to engage in sex role stereotyping than females. Perhaps females living on acreages are socialized differently but

this is highly speculative and there is no theoretical rationale for these differences.

Although the interaction terms do much to enhance the analysis as a whole, a word of caution is in order when interpreting individual cross-product terms due to the multicollinearity among independent variables (see Table 5.10). Blalock (1972) point out that when multicollinearity exists between original variables and the cross-product terms (the correlations here are all higher than 0.8), it is reasonable to measure the extent to which the entire set of cross-product terms adds significantly to the explained variance since the assessment of the effects of particular cross-product terms may be too risky given the large sampling errors involved.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

A. Introduction

The primary aim of this study has been to determine the relative importance of television as a major source of validating information within the broad context of socialization. Results show that the influence of television does not increase sex role stereotyping among this sample of rural adolescents. In fact, the results imply that television viewing may reduce sex role stereotyping among adolescents. In addition, other variables worthy of future consideration have emerged as important factors influencing sex role stereotyping and television relations. The implications of these findings along with theoretical and methodological considerations are discussed in subsequent sub-sections. Suggestions for future research are found in the concluding section of this chapter.

B. General Implications

Television Relations

Perhaps the most obvious outcome is that the relationship between television relations and sex role stereotyping is more complex than generally assumed. In fact, the socialization process itself is complex and long term making it difficult for researchers to attribute

changes in attitude to any single experience. Determining the specific effects of television is an enormously difficult task. Although this study is unable to make any conclusive statements about the influence of television on adolescents, a number of findings justify the effort.

First of all, findings that indicate an inverse relationship between television viewing and sex role stereotyping show that our greatest fears about the monumental impact of television are unfounded. Television is not a perfectly developed medium and the categorical conclusion that television is bad for young people is probably counter productive. The finding here suggest the possibility of positive influences. Ellis et al., 1983 believe vicarious role-taking through television viewing can be thought of as a tool which can be useful for improving social competence. This is consistent with a small but growing number of researchers investigating the possible pro-social effects of television viewing. (Baran et al., 1978, 1974, Sprafkin et al., 1975) In relation to this study, this may be particularly important for those who view sex role stereotyping as having negative connotations, or for those who believe it must be discussed in terms of prejudices toward women. For this sample, television appears to be encouraging more balanced sex role attitudes than originally believed.

Another conclusion is that television functions as only one element in a highly complex social system; its effects

are mediated and moderated by numerous other factors. The argument presented earlier was that in the absence of face-to-face human interaction, television would act as surrogate. Television viewing is obviously not mutually exclusive of inter-personal interaction; and realistically, human beings are rarely, if ever, totally devoid of interactions with other people.

Another finding which calls for some comment was the observed negative relationship between absorption with television and sex role stereotyping. These findings could reinforce the likelihood that television viewing provides pro-social influences but it also suggests that TV does not imply escapism as many authors claim.

While television viewing accounts for part of the variation in sex role stereotyping, albeit in a negative fashion, its effect within this sample are much less important than some of the other variables. The data show that family communication patterns are much more important than any of the television relations variables in predicting sex role stereotyping among adolescents. Family communication patterns obviously have mediating effects on television use. These and other features of the family context on television relations are worthy of attention in future research.

Gender, acreage living and religiosity were also more critical than were the television relations variables. While it is useful to establish the demographic factors relating

to television relations, it is analytically imperative to relate these variables to the television experience through the family communication orientations of the viewer.

Theoretical Considerations

Rather than present a structural representation of what people get out of television watching, the application of symbolic interactionism has been an attempt to introduce concepts and arguments that emphasize the dynamics of television viewing as a process. McQuail (1976) says that media researchers are more often asked for facts rather than theories but theories are essential if we are to understand the processes by which television can influence young people.

Evaluating a theory is more difficult because you cannot empirically test a theory. Stockard and Johnson (1980) say all one can do is examine the evidence for and against certain hypothesis that one might develop on the basis of a particular theory. When a particular hypothesis fails to hold up, one may question the theory itself but frequently the fault is with the hypothesis formulation rather than with the underlying theory. The phenomenon predicted by the theory may indeed exist, but not exactly as specified in a concrete hypothesis (Stockard & Johnson, 1980).

Inspite of a lack of statistical support for the hypothesis presented, confidence in the theoretical

rationale remains high for a number of reasons. First, the model is genuinely concerned with influence in that it takes the interaction of sender and receiver and the outcome of that interaction, into account. Rather than assuming the viewer is the passive recipient of television messages, the creative relationship between the viewer and his environment is stressed. Secondly, it captures a variety of range of television situations. One potential danger is that many studies concentrate strictly on the number of television hours watched. Knowledge of consumption data alone does not demonstrate the net effect this has on attitudes and behaviour.

Another argument recommending this approach has already been touched upon. If television can influence the expression of anti-social behaviour it can undoubtedly affect other behaviour patterns as well. This approach does not embody a negative image of television viewing and is, therefore, useful as a framework which can be applied to the evaluation and planning of the positive uses of television. While there are advantages to adopting this model it is recognized that there is room for alternative perspectives; all can further both the public and scientific debate regarding the effects of television. By encouraging more systematic research, effects of equal or greater, social significance than those currently under investigation, might be revealed.

Methodological Considerations

There are a number of methodological issues that should not go unnoticed. Many are common to all social science research; others specific to this study. First of all caution must be used in generalizing from any study taken in isolation, especially when sample sizes are modest and from specific school populations. This study is in double jeopardy because it was conducted in a small rural community making comparisons with other studies difficult. The majority of studies are based either on large national samples or, conducted in larger urban centers where the impact of different variables are more pronounced. Generalizations from the present data, therefore, remain speculative.

It was suggested earlier that the present study is open to criticism in that young people will often respond to questionnaires in a socially acceptable or stereotyped manner. Though every attempt was made to eliminate this and other common questionnaire problems, it may be that some of the correlations reflect response set rather than a true correlation between conceptually different variables. This combined with prohibitive costs, time restrictions and the need to gather data amenable to statistical analysis and numerical presentation prohibit the richness in description and detail a viewer can provide when he can talk about his or her personal experiences.

There are a myriad of other television experiences that were measured but not included in the analysis because of the usual restrictions. Favorite television shows and characters as well as parental viewing habit and conditions under which a viewer watches may provide more insight into the influence of television. In addition, the existing knowledge one brings to bear on the interpretation of the programs they watch could also be important. For example, the level of knowledge young people have concerning attempts made to change traditional behaviours by the womens' liberation movement is important and relevant information.

While the data analysis included some interaction terms, second or even higher order interactions are possible. Lack of a sound theoretical rationale as well as time restrictions negated further investigation in this direction.

Finally, subsequent research must fulfill at least two more methodological requirements: (1) In order to investigate the long-term effects of television viewing, as well as the adequacy of the theoretical stance, longitudinal data is needed. (2) Cross-sectional data is both useful and necessary particularly for determining age group differences.

C. Suggestions for Future Research

The results of this study give rise to suggestions for future research. It is clear television plays an important, yet poorly understood role as an agent of socialization. Future research will require more conceptual development as well as more empirical work. The schematic framework shown in Figure III has guided the present research but some of the concepts are too general for guiding empirical research. For example, standardized measures for the absorption and identification with television could be developed. In addition, research is needed to clarify disparaties between the present data and other research undertakings. For example, most scientific reports suggest a positive correlation between sex role stereotyping and television viewing. These data do not.

Other essential factors which have not been taken into consideration relate to the structure and content of television, i.e. broadcasting times, program scheduling and types of programs, favorite shows and the like.

The importance of the family communication variables suggest that other family contexts should be more thoroughly examined in future studies that provide a place for television as an agent of socialization. The empirical significance of sex composition, age differences, family size, occupational histories and parental viewing habits are but a few of the possibilities for examination.

VII. BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adler, Richard
1975 Understanding television: an overview of the literature of the medium as a social and cultural force. In Douglas Carter and Richard Adler (eds.), Television as a Social Force. New York: Praeger Publishers p. 23-48.

Ashmore, Richard D. and Frances K. DelBoca
1979 Sex-stereotypes and Implicit Personality Theory: Toward a Cognitive-Social Psychological Conceptualization. Sex Roles 5(2):219-249.

Baggaley, Jon and Steve Duck
1976 Dynamics of Television. England: Saxon House, Teakfield Limited.

Baker, Wm J. and Bruce L. Derwing
1982 Response coincidence analysis as evidence for language acquisition strategies. Applied Psycholinguistics 3(3)

Ball, S.
1976 Methodological problems in assessing the impact of television programs. Journal of Social Issues 32(4):8-17.

Bandura, Albert
1974 Behaviour theory and the models of man. American Psychologist 29(12):859-869.

Bandura, Albert
1969 Social-learning theory of identification process. In D.A. Goslin (ed.), Handbook of Socialization - Theory and Research. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Bandura, A., D. Ross and S.A. Ross
1961 Transmission of aggression through imitation of aggressive models. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 63(3):575-582.

Baran, S.J.
1980 The Viewer's Television Book: A Personal Guide to Understanding Television and Its Influence. Cleveland, Ohio: Penrith Publishing Company.

Baran, S.J.
1979 Television drama as a facilitator of pro-social behaviour "The Waltons." Journal of Broadcasting 23(3):277-284.

Baran, S.J.
1974 "Pro and antisocial television content and modelling by high and low self-esteem children," Journal of Broadcasting 18 481-495.

Baranowski, Marc D.
1971 Television and the adolescent. Adolescence 6(23):369-396.

Barkley, R.A., D.G. Ullman, L. Otto and J.M. Brecht
1977 The effects of sex typing and sex appropriateness of modeled behavior children's imitation. Child Development 48:721-22

Bauer, R.A.
1964 The obstinate audience: the influence process from the point of view of social communication. American Psychologist 19(May):319-328.

Beelde, Steven L., Eunice P. Jordan, Viola and Herbert J. Cross
1979 Sex-role orientations of high school and college students. A brief report. Sex Roles 5(3):363-364.

Berman, D.R. and J.A. Stookey
1980 Adolescence, television, and support for government. Public Opinion Quarterly 44(3):330-340.

Beuf, A.
1974 Doctor, lawyer, household drudge. Journal of Communication 24(2):142-145.

Blalock, H.
1972 Social Statistics. New York: McGraw-Hill

Blumler, J.G.
1979 The role of theory in uses and gratification studies. Communication Research 6(1):9-36.

Blumler, J.G. and E. Katz (eds.)
1974 The Uses of Mass Communication. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

Bower, Robert T.
1973 Television and the Public. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

Brody, Gene H. and Zolinda Stoneman
1983 The influence of television viewing on family interaction: a contextualist framework. Journal of Family Issues 4(2):329-348.

Brooks-Gunn, Jeanne and Wendy Schempp Mathews
1979 He & She: How Children Develop Their Sex-Role Identity. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Brown, J.R.
1976 Children's use of television. In Ray Brown (ed.), Children and Television. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc. pp. 116-136.

Brown, J.R. and Olga Linné
1976 The family as a mediator of television effects. In Ray Brown (ed.), Children and Television. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc. pp. 184-198.

Brown, Ray (ed.)
1976 Children and Television. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Bryan, J.W., and Z. Luria
1978 Sex-role learning: A test of the selective attention hypothesis. Child Development 49:13-23

Bryce, Jennifer W. and Hope Jensen Leichter
1983 The family and television: forms of mediation. Journal of Family Issues 4(2):309-328.

Buerkel-Rothfuss, Nancy L., Bradley S. Greenberg, Charles K. Atkin and Kimberly Neuendorf
1982 Learning about the family from television. Journal of Communication 191-201.

Burr, Wesley R., Gregory K. Leigh, Randall D. Day and John Constantine
1979 Symbolic interactionism and the family. In Wesley R. Burr, Rueben Hill, F. Ivan Nye and Ira L. Reiss (eds.), Contemporary Theories About the Family. Vol. II. New York: The Free Press.

Busby, Linda J.
1975 Sex-role research on the mass media. Journal of Communication 25(3):107-131.

Canadian Radio-Television and Telecommunications Commission
1982 Images of Women. Report of the Task Force on Sex-Role Stereotyping in Broadcast Media. Hull, Quebec: Canadian Government Publishing Center.

Cantor, Muriel G.
1980 Prime-Time Television Content and Control. Volume 3. The Sage CommText Series. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications.

Carter, Douglas and Richard Adler (eds.)
1975 Television as a Social Force. New York: Praeger Publishers.

Carter, Douglas
1975 Television and thinking people. In Douglas Carter and Richard Adler (eds.), Television as a Social Force. New York: Praeger Publishers, pp. 1-8.

Chaffee, S.H.
1972 The interpersonal context of mass communication. In E.G. Kline and P.J. Tichenor (eds.), Communication Research. Vol. 1. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Chaffee, S.H., J.M. McLeod and C. Atkin
1971 Parental influences on adolescent media use. American Behavioral Scientist 14:323-340.

Chaffee, S.H. and A.R. Tims
1976 Interpersonal factors in adolescent television use. Journal of Social Issues 32(4):98-115.

Charon, Joel
1970 Symbolic Interactionism. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Churchill, Gilbert A., Jr. and George P. Mosches
1979 Television and interpersonal influences on adolescent consumer learning. Journal of Consumer Research 6(June):23-35.

Clark, C.
1972 Race, identification, and televised violence. In G.A. Comstock, E.A. Rubinstein, and J.P. Murray (eds.), Further Explorations. Television and Social Behaviour, Vol. 5. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Coleman, James M. and Donald Cressey
1980 Social Problems. New York: Harper and Row.

Collins, W.A., H. Wellman, A.H. Keniston and S.D. Westby
1978 Age-related aspects of comprehension and inference from a televised dramatic narrative. Child Development 49(2):389-399.

Comstock, George
1980 Television in America. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Comstock, George
1978 The impact of television on American institutions. Journal of Communication 28(2):12-28.

Comstock, George A., Eli A. Rubenstein and John P. Murray (eds.)
1972 Television and Social Behaviour. Volume 5. Rockville, Maryland: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Health Services and Mental Health Administration. National Institute of Mental Health.

Constantinople, Anne
1979 Sex-role acquisition: in search of the elephant. Sex Roles 5(2):121-133.

Cooley, C.H.
1902 Human Nature and the Social Order. New York: Charles Scribner.

Coppa, Frank J.
1979 The explosion of the eye: an introduction to the promise and problems of television. In Frank J. Coppa (ed.), Screen & Society. The Impact of Television Upon Aspects of Contemporary Civilization. Chicago: Nelson-Hall. pp. 1-30.

Coppa, Frank J.
1979 The global impact of television: an overview. In Frank J. Coppa (ed.), Screen & Society. The Impact of Television Upon Aspects of Contemporary Civilization. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

Coppa, Frank J. (ed.)
1979 Screen & Society. The Impact of Television Upon Aspects of Contemporary Civilization. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

Courtright, J.A. and S.J. Baron
1980 The acquisition of sexual information by young people. Journalism Quarterly 107-114.

Cowan, Philip A.
1978 Piaget: With Feeling. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Davidson, E.S., A. Yasuna and A. Tower
1979 The effects of television cartoons on sex-role stereotyping in young girls. Child Development 50:597-600.

Davis, Dennis K. and Robert Abelman
1983 Families and television: an application of frame analysis theory. Journal of Family Issues 4(2):385-404.

Deaux, Kay
1976 The Behaviour of Women and Men. Monterey, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Defleur, Melvin L. and Lois B. Defleur
1967 The relative contribution of television as a learning source for children's occupational knowledge. American Sociological Review 32(5):777-789.

Dembo, Richard and Robin McCron
1976 Social factors in media. In Ray Brown (ed.), Children and Television. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Pulications, Inc. pp. 137-166.

DeMott, Benjamin
1975 The viewers experience: notes on TV criticism and public health. In Douglas Carter and Richard Adler (eds.), Television as a Social Force. New York: Praeger Publishers. pp. 49-62.

Desmond, R.J.
1978 Cognitive development and television comprehension. Communication Research 5(2):202-220.

Dominick, Joseph R.
1979 The portrayal of women in prime time, 1953-1977. Sex Roles 5(4):405-411.

Doyle, Elisabeth Joan
1979 Commercial and noncommercial television in American & Europe. In Frank J. Coppa (ed.), Screen & Society. The Impact of Television Upon Aspects of Contemporary Civilization. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

Dragustin, S.E. and G.H. Elder (eds.)
1975 Adolescence in the Life Cycle: Psychological Change and Social Context. New York: Halsted.

Elder, Glen H., Jr.
1975 "Adolescence in the Life Cycle: An Introduction." In Sigmund E. Dragustin & Glen H. Elder, Jr. (eds.) Adolescence in the Life Cycle: Psychological Change and Social Context. New York: Halsted.

Elliott, P.
1974 Uses & gratification research: a critique and sociological alternative. In J.G. Blumler and E. Katz (eds.), The Uses of Mass Communication. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications.

Ellis, Godfrey J., Sandra Kay Streeter and JoAnn Dale Engelbrecht
1983 Television characters as significant others and the process of vicarious role taking. Journal of Family Issues 4(2):368-384.

Ellis, Godfrey J.
1983 Television and the family: an emerging area. Journal of Family Issues 4(2):275-278.

Ellis, Godfrey J., JoAnn Engelbrecht and Sandra Kay Streeter
1982 Building family strengths through the positive use of television. In Nick Stinnett and John De Frain (eds.), Building Family Strengths. Vol. 4. Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press.

Emery, F. and M. Emery
1975 A Choice of Futures: To Enlighten or Inform. Canberra, Australia: The Australian National University.

Erickson, E.
1968 Identity: Youth and Crisis. New York: W.W. Norton and Co.

von Feilitzen, C. and O. Linné
1975 Identifying with television characters. Journal of Communications 25:51-55.

von Feilitzen, Cecilia
1976 The functions served by media. In Ray Brown (ed.), Children and Television. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc. pp. 90-115.

Flerx, V.C., D.S. Fidler and R.W. Rogers
1976 Sex-role stereotypes: Developmental aspects and early intervention. Child Development 47:998-1007.

Fowles, B.R.
1977 A child and his television set: what is the nature of the relationship? Education and Urban Society 10(1):89-102.

Fow, W. and W. Philliber
1978 Television viewing and the perception of affluence. Sociological Quarterly 19:103-112.

Frank, Ronald E. and Marshall G. Greenberg
1980 The Public Use of Television. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Friedrich-Cofer, L.K.
1979 Environmental enhancement of prosocial television content: effects on interpersonal behaviour, imaginative play, and self regulation in a natural setting. Developmental Psychology 15(60):637-646.

Frieze, Irene H., Jacqueline E. Parsons, Paula B. Johnson, Diane N. Ruble and Gail L. Zellman
1978 Women and Sex Roles: A Social Psychological Perspective. New York: W.W. Norton & Company.

Fuchs, Douglas A. and Jack Lyle
1972 Mass media portrayal - sex and violence. In F.G. Kline and P.J. Tichenoe (eds.), Communication Research. Vol. 1. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Frueh, T. and P. McGhee
1975 Traditional sex role development and amount of time spent watching television. Development Psychology 11:109.

Gans, Herbert J.
1979 Deciding What's News: A study of CBS evening news, NBC nightly news, Newsweek, and Time. New York: Pantheon Books.

Gecas, V.
1981 Context and understanding: An inquiry into socialization theory. Contemporary Sociology 10(5)642-644

Gerbner, G. and L. Gross
1974 Violence Profile Number 6. Trends in Network Drama and Viewer Conceptions of Social Reality. Phildelphia: Annenberg School of Communication.

Gerbner, G., L. Gross, M. Jackson-Beeck, S. Jeffries-Fox and N. Signorielli
1978 Cultural indicators: violence profile number 9. Journal of Communication 28:176-207.

Goldsen, R.K.
1979 Review of the plug-in drug television, children, and family. American Journal of Sociology 84(4):1054-1056.

Goodhart, G.L., A.S.C. Ehrenberg and M.A. Collins
1975 The Television Audience: Patterns of Viewing. England: Saxon House, D.C. Heath Ltd.

Goodman, Irene F.
1983 Television's role in family interaction: a family systems perspective. Journal of Family Issues 4(2):405-424.

Goodman, Norman and Gary T. Marx
1978 Society Today. 3rd Edition. New York: Random House.

Greenberg, Bradley
1973 British children and televised violence. Paper presented to the Association for Education in Journalism, Fort Collins, Colarado cited in Ray Brown (ed.), Children and Television. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Greenberg, B.S. and B. Reeves
1976 Children and the perceived reality of television. Journal of Social Issues 33-97.

Gross, Larry and Suzanne Jeffries-Fox
1978 What do you want to be when you grow up, little girl? Approaches to the study of media effects. In G. Tuchman, A. Daniels and James Benét (eds.), Hearth and Home. Images of Women in the Mass Media. New York: Oxfod University Press.

Gutman, J.
1973 Self-concept and television viewing among women. Public Opinion Quarterly 37:388-397.

Hale, G.A., L.K. Miller and H.W. Stevenson
1968 Incidental learning of film content: A development study. Child Development 39:69-77.

Harmond, Richard
1979 Sugar daddy or ogre? The impact of commercial television on professional sports. In Frank J. Coppa (ed.), Screen & Society. The Impact of Television Upon Aspects of Contemporary Civilization. Chicago: Nelson-Hall. pp. 81-136.

Hawkins, R.P. and S. Pingree
1980 Some processes in the cultivation effect. Communications Research 7(2):193-226.

Hayduk, Leslie A. & Thomas H. Wonnacott
1980 "Effect equations" or "effect coefficients": a note on the visual and verbal presentation of multiple regression interactions' Canadian Journal of Sociology. 5(4)

Hedinsson, Elias
1981 TV Family & Society; The Social Origins and Effects of Adolescents' TV. use Sweden: Almquist & Wiksell.

Heller, Celia S. (ed)
1969 Structured Social Inequality New York: The MacMillan Co.

Hendry, L.B. and H. Patrick
1977 Adolescents and television. Journal of Youth & Adolescence 6(4):325-336.

Hoffman, M.I. and L.W. Hoffman (eds.)
1964 Review of Child Development Research. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Horton, D. and R.R. Wohl
1956 Mass communication and para-social intera{action: Observations on intimacy at a distance. Psychiatry 19(3);215-219.

Hoult, Thomas F.
1977 Dictionary of Modern Sociology. Totowa, New Jersey: Littlefield, Adams & Co.

Howitt, Dennis
1976 The effects of television on children. In Ray Brown (ed.), Children and Television. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc. pp. 320-342.

Howitt, Dennis and Guy Cumberbatch
1976 The parameters of attraction to mass media figures. In Ray Brown (ed.), Children & Television. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc. pp. 167-183.

Hurowitz, L. and E.G.
1976 Adolescent erotica and female self-concept development. Adolescence 11(44):497-508.

Hyman, H.H.
1973-74 Mass communication and socialization. Public Opinion Quarterly 37(4):524-540.

Ishwaran, K. (ed.)
1979 Childhood and Adolescence in Canada. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson Ltd.

Jackson-Beeck, M. and J. Sobal
1980 The social world of heavy television viewers. Journal of Broadcasting 24(1):5-11.

Jackson-Beeck, M.
1977 The non-viewers: who are they? Journal of Communication 65-72.

Johnson, A.W.
1980 The new communications technology: magic or menace? A paper by A.W. Johnson, President of the C.B.C. for the Ritchie Lecture delivered at The University of Guelph.

Johnston, J. J. Ettema and D. Davidson
1980 An Evaluation of "Freestyle": A Television series designed to reduce sex-role stereotypes. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research.

Johnstone, John C.
1974 Social Integration and Adolescents: a case study in J.G. Blumler & E. Katz (eds). The uses of Mass Communication. Beverly Hills, California. Sage Publications pp.35-45.

Kalba, Kas
1975 The electronic community: the new environment for television viewers and critics. In Douglas Carter and Richard Adler (eds.), Television as a Social Force.. New York: Praeger Publishers. pp. 141-163.

Katz, E., J.G. Blumler and M. Gurevitch
1974 Utilization of mass communication by the individual. In J.G. Blumler and E. Katz (eds.), The Uses of Mass Communications. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications.

Katz, Elihu, Hadassah Haas and Michael Gurevitsh
1973 On the use of mass media for important things. American Sociological Review 38(2):164-181.

Katz, Phyllis A.
1979 The development of female identity. Sex Roles 5(2):155-178.

Kerlinger, F.N. and Pedhazur, E.J.
1973 Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research New York: Holt, Reinhart, and Winston

Kibby, Winston L.
1979 The influence of television on social relations: somer personal reflections. In Frank J. Coppa (ed.), Screen & Society. The Impact of Television Upon Aspects of Contemporary Civilization. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

Klapper, J.T.
1960 The Effects of Mass Communication. New York: Free Press.

Kline, F. Gerald and Philip J. Tichenor (eds.)
1972 Current Perspectives in Mass Communication Research. Vol. 1. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Kline, F. Gerald
1972 Theory in mass communication research. In F.G. Kline and P.J. Tichenor (eds.), Communication Research. Vol. 1. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Kniveton, Bromley H.
1976 Social learning and imitation in relations to TV. In Ray Brown (ed.), Children & Television. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc. pp. 199-234.

Kohlberg, Lawrence
1966 A cognitive-developmental analysis of children's sex-role concepts and attitudes. In E.E. Maccoby (ed.), The Development of Sex Differences. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press. pp. 82-173.

Kovaleff, Theodore
1979 Television as big business. In Frank J. Coppa (ed.), Screen & Society. The Impact of Television Upon Aspects of Contemporary Civilization. Chicago: Nelson-Hall. pp. 173-185.

Kuhn, Manford H.
1972 Major trends in symbolic interaction theory in the past twenty-five years. In J.G. Manis and B.N. Meltzer (eds.), Symbolic Interactionism. 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.

Lang, G.E and Lang, K.
1981 Does Mass Communication change public opinion after all a new approach to Effects Analyses. Public Opinion Quarterly 45(4):643-648

Lauer, Robert H. and Warren H. Handel
1977 Social Psychology: The Theory and Application of Symbolic Interactionism. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Lauer, Robert H. and Linda Boardman
1971 Role-taking: theory, typology, and propositions. Sociology and Social Research 55:137.

Laws, Judith Long and Pepper Schwartz
1977 Sexual Scripts. The Social Construction of Female Sexuality. Hinsdale, Illinois: The Dryden Press.

LeMasters, E.E.
1977 Parents in Modern America. 3rd ed. Homewood, Illinois: The Darsey Press.

Lemon, J.
1978 Dominant of dominated? Women in prime time television. In G. Tuchman, A.K. Daniels and J. Benét (eds.), Hearth & Home: Images of Women in the Mass Media. New York: Oxford University Press.

LeVeness, Frank Paul
1979 The political use and abuse of television abroad. In Frank J. Coppa (ed.), Screen & Society. The Impact of Television Upon Aspects of Contemporary Civilization. Chicago: Nelson-Hall. pp. 59-80.

Levy, M.R.
1979 Watching TV news as para-social interaction. Journal of Broadcasting 23(1):69-79.

Lewin, K.
1951 Field Theory in Social Science. New York: Harper & Bros.

Lewis, Michael and Marsha Weinraub
1979 Origins of early sex-role development. Sex Roles 5(2):135-153.

Liebert, R.M., J.M. Neale and E.S. Davidson
1973 The Early Window: Effects of Television on Children and Youth. New York: Permagon Press Inc.

Liebert, Robert M., Joyce Sprafkin and Emily S. Davidson
1982 The Early Window: Effects of Television on Children and Youth. Second ed. New York: Permagon Press.

Littlejohn, David
1975 Communicating ideas by television. In Douglas Carter and Richard Adler (eds.), Television as a Social Force. New York: Praeger Publishers. pp. 63-80.

Lueptow, Lloyd B.
1981 Sex-typing and change in occupational choices of high school seniors: 1964-1975. Sociology of Education 54(January):16-24.

Lull, J.
1980 Family communication patterns and the social uses of television. Communication Research 7(3):319-334.

Lull, James
1982 How families select television programs: A mass observational study. Journal of Broadcasting 26(4):801-811.

Lyle, Jack and Heidi Hoffman
1972a Childrens's use of television and other media. In E.A. Rubinstein, G.A. Comstock and J.P. Murphy (eds.), Television in Day to Day Life: Patters of Use. Television and Social Behavious. Vol. 4. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Lyle, Jack and Heidi Hoffman
1972b Explorations in patterns of television viewing by pre-school-age children. In E.A. Rubinstein, G.A. Comstock and J.P. Murphy (eds.), Television in Day to Day Life: Patters of Use. Television and Social Behavious. Vol. 4. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Maccoby, Eleanor Emmons and Carol Nagy Jacklim
1974 The Psychology of Sex Differences. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press.

Maccoby, E.E.
1964 Effects of the media. In M.I. Hoffman and Lois W. Hoffman (eds.), Review of Child Development Research. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Maccoby, E.E., W.C. Wilson and R.V. Burton
1958 Differential movie-viewing behaviour of male and female viewers. Journal of Personality 26:259-267.

Maccoby, E.E. and W.C. Wilson
1957 Identification and observational learning from films. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 55:76-87.

Mamay, Patricia D. and Richard L. Simpson
1981 Three female roles in television commercials. Sex Roles 7(12):1223-1233.

Mander, Jerry
1978 Four Arguments for the Elimination of Television. New York: William Morrow and Comany, Inc.

Manis, Jerome G. and Bernard N. Meltzer (eds.)
1972 Symbolic Interaction. 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Mason, Karen John L., Crajka and Sara Arber
1976 Change in U.S. Women's Sex role attitudes, 1964-1974 American Sociological Review 41:573-596.

McArthur, Leslie Zebrowitz and Susan V. Eisen
1976 Television and sex role stereotyping. Journal of Applied Social Psychology 6(4):329-351.

McCormack, Thelma
1979 Television and the changing cultures of childhood. In K. Ishwaran (ed.), Childhood & Adolescence in Canada. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson Limited. pp. 302-321.

McDavid, J.W. and H. Harari (eds.)
1968 Social Psychology, Individuals, Groups, Societies. New York: Harper Row, Publishers.

McGhee, Paul E. and Terry Frueh
1980 Television viewing and the learning of sex-role stereotypes. Sex Roles 6(2):179-189.

McLeod, J.M. and J.D. Brown
1976 The family environment & adolescents, television use. In R. Brown (ed.), Children and Television. London: Macmillan.

McLeod, Jack M. and Garrett J. O'Keefe, Jr.
1972 The socialization perspective and communication behaviour. In F.G. Kline and P.J. Tichenor (eds.), Communication Research. Vol. 1. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

McQuail, Denis
1976 Alternative models of television influence. In Ray Brown (ed.), Children and Television. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc. pp. 343-360.

Mead, G.H.
1934 Mind, Self and Society. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Medrich, E.A.
1979 Constant television: a background to daily life. Journal of Communication 29(3):171-176.

Meltzer, Bernard M.
1972 Mead's social psychology. In J.G. Manis and B.N. Meltzer (eds.), Symbolic Interaction. 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.

Messaris, Paul
1983 Family conversations about television. Journal of Family Issues 4(2):293-308.

Miller, C.W. and T. Beck
1976 How do T.V. parents compare to real parents? Journalism Quarterly 53(2):324-328.

Miller, Joanne
1974 The social determinants of women's attitudes toward abortion: 1970 analysis. Working paper 74-8. Laboratory of Socioenvironmental Studies, National Institute of Mental Health. Bethesda, Maryland, USA.

Miller, M.M. and B. Reeves
1976 Dramatic T.V. content and children's sex-role stereotyping. Journal of Broadcasting 20:35-50.

Mills, Carol J.
1981 Sex roles, personality, and intellectual abilities in adolescents. Journal of Youth & Adolescence 10(2):85-111.

Minnigerode, Fred A. and Judith A. Lee
1978 Young adults' perceptions of social sex roles across the life span. Sex Roles 4(4):563-569.

Mischel, Walter
1970 Sex typing and socialization. In P. Mussen (ed.), Carmichael's Manual of Child Psychology. Vol. 2. New York: Wiley.

Mischel, Walter
1966 A social-learning view of sex differences in behaviour. In E.E. Maccoby (ed.), The Development of Sex Differences. Stanford: Stanford University Press. pp. 56-81.

Moody, Kate
1980 Growing Up On Television. The T.V. Effect. New York: Times Books.

Moorfoot, Rex
1982 Television in the Eighties. The Total Equation. London: British Broadcasting Corporation.

Muccigrosso, Robert
1979 Television and urban crisis. In Frank J. Coppa (ed.), Screen & Society. The Impact of Television Upon Aspects of Contemporary Civilization. Chicago: Nelson-Hall. pp. 31-58.

Murray, John P.
1980 Television and Youth. 25 Years of Research. Washington: The Boys Town Center for the Study of Youth Development.

Murray, Lawrence L. and Clinton Hollow
1979 Universality and uniformity in the popular arts: the impact of television on popular culture. In Frank J. Coppa (ed.), Screen & Society. The Impact of Television Upon Aspects of Contemporary Civilization. Chicago: Nelson-Hall. pp. 157-172.

Mussen, P. (ed.)
1970 Carmichael's Manual of Child Psychology. Vol. 2. New York: Wiley.

Newcomb, A.F. and W.A. Collins
1979 Children's comprehension of family role portrayals in television drama: effects of socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and age. Developmental Psychology 15(4):417-423.

Nie, Norman H. (ed.)
1983 SPSSX Users Guide. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Nie, Norman H., C.H. Hull, J.G. Jenkins, K. Steinbrenner and D. Bent (eds.)
1975 Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Novak, Michael
1975 Television shapes the soul. In Douglas Carter and Richard Adler (eds.), Television as a Social Force. New York: Praeger Publishers. pp. 9-22.

Nye, Ivam and Iral Reiss (eds.)
1979 Contemporary Theories About the Family. Vol. II. New York: The Free Press.

O'Bryant, S.L. and C.R. Corder-Bolz
1978 The effects of television on childrens stereotyping of women's work roles. Journal of Vocational Behaviour 12:233-244.

O'Bryant, Shirley L., Mary Ellen Durrett and James W. Pennebaker
1978 Student's ratings of occupational dimensions of traditionally male and traditionally female occupations. Journal of Vocational Behaviour 12:297-304.

O'Donnell, William J. and Karen J. O'Donnell
1978 Update: sex-role messages in TV commercials. Journal of Communication 28(1):156-158.

Palmer, Edward L., Anne B. Hockett and Walter W. Dean
1983 The television family and children's fright reactions. Journal of Family Issues 4(2):279-292.

Parish, Thomas S. and William T. Bryant
1978 Mapping sex group stereotypes of elementary and high school students. Sex Roles 4(1):135-140.

Parsons, T.
1951 The Social System. New York: Free Press.

Peevers, Barbara Holland
1979 Androgyny on the TV screen? an analysis of sex-role portrayal. Sex Roles 5(6):797-809.

Perkins, Bryce
1979 Education in the video age: learning via television. In Frank J. Coppa (ed.), Screen & Society, The Impact of Television Upon Aspects of Contemporary Civilization. Chicago: Nelson-Hall. pp. 109-136.

Perloff, R.M.
1977 Some antecedents of children's sex-role stereotypes. Psychological Reports 40(2):463-466.

Petras, John W. (ed.)
1975 Sex: Male/Gender: Masculine Selected Readings in Male Sexuality. Port Washington, NY: Alfred Publishing Co., Inc.

Poulas, R.W., E.A. Rubenstein and R.M. Liebert
1975 Positive social learning. Journal of Communication 25(4):90-97.

Quarforth, J.M.
1979 Children's understanding of the nature of television characters. Journal of Communication 29(3):210-218.

Reeves, B.
1978 Perceived T.V. reality as a predictor of childrens social behaviour. Journalism Quarterly 55(4):682-689,695.

Rivers, William R. and Wilbur Schramm
1969 Responsibility in Mass Communication. Revised Ed. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers.

Rombough, Shirley and Joseph C. Ventimiglia
1981 Sexism - a tri-dimensional phenomenon. Sex Roles 7(7):747-755.

Rose, A.M. (ed.)
1962 Human Behaviour and Social Processes: An Interactionist Approach. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Rosenblatt, P.C. and M.R. Cunningham
1976 Television watching and family tensions. Journal of Marriage and the Family 105-111.

Rosengren, K.K., S. Windahl, P.A. Hankansson and S.U. Johnsson
1976 Adolescents' T.V. relations: three scales. Communication Research 3(4):347-366.

Ross, Laurie, Daniel R. Anderson and Patricia A. Wisocki
1982 Television viewing and adult sex-role attitudes. Sex Roles 8(6):589-592.

Rubinstein, E.A., G.A. Comstock and J.P. Murphy (eds.)
1972 Television in Day to Day Life: Patterns of Use. Television and Social Behaviour. Vol. 4. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Rubin, Alan M.
1978 Child and adolescent television use and political socialization. Journalism Quarterly 55:125-129.

Schellenberg, James A.
1978 Masters of Social Psychology. New York: Oxford University Press.

Schramm, Wilbur
1973 Men, Messages, and Media. A Look at Human Communication. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers.

Schramm, Wilbur and Donald F. Roberts (eds.)
1971 The Process and Effects of Mass Communicaation. Chicago: University of Illinois Press.

Sebald, Hans
1968 Adolescence: A Sociological Perspective. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Skidmore, William
1975 Theoretical Thinking in Sociology. London: Cambridge University Press.

Smith, D.M.
1975 Mass media as a basis for interaction: an empirical study. Journalism Quarterly 52(1):44-49.

Smith, D.M.
1970 Adolescence: a study of stereotyping. Sociological Review 18(2):197-212.

Smith, F. Leslie
1979 Perspectives on Radio and Television: An Introduction to Broadcasting in the United States. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers.

Spence, Janet T. and Robert L. Helmreich
1979 On assessing androgyny. Sex Roles 5(6):721-738.

Sprafkin, Joyce N. and Robert M. Liebert
1978 Sex-typing and children's television preferences. In G. Tuchman, A. Daniels and J. Benét (eds.), Hearth & Home. Images of Women in the Mass Media. New York: Oxford University Press.

Sprafkin, J.N., L.T. Silverman and E.A. Rubenstein
1980 Reactions to sex on television: an exploratory study. Public Opinion Quarterly 44(3):303-315.

Sprafkin, Joyce N. and L. Theresa Silverman
1979 Update: physically intimate and sexual behavior on prime-time television, 1978-1979. Journal of Communication 29(1):34-40.

Sprafkin, Joyce Robert, Liebert and Rita Poulos
1975 "Effects of a Pro social Televised Example on children's Helping Journal of Experimental Child Psycology 20:119-126.

Stamm, Keith R.
1972 Environment and communication. In F.G. Kline and P.J. Tishenor (eds.), Communication Research. Vol. 1. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Sternglanz, Sarah H. and Lisa A. Serbin
1974 Sex-role stereotyping in children's television programs. Developmental Psychology 10(5):710-715.

Stinnett, Nick and John DeFrain (eds.)
1982 Building Family Strengths. Vol. 4. Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press.

Stockard, Jean and Miriam M. Johnson
1980 Sex Roles. Sex Inequality and Sex Role Development. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Stone, Gregory P.
1962 Appearance and self. In A.M. Rose (ed.), Human Behaviour and Social Processes: An Interactionist Approach. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co. pp. 86-118.

Stoneman, Zolinda and Gene H. Brody
1983 Family interactions during three programs: contextualist observations. Journal of Family Issues 4(2):349-368.

Steubing, Willliam K.
1977 Adjustment to Anomie: A Study of Young Males in Red Deer. Ph.D. Thesis, Deparment of Sociology, University of Alberta.

Sullivan, Harry S.
1940 Conceptions of modern psychiatry. Psychiatry 3:1-117.

Tan, Alexis S.
1979 TV beauty ads and role expectations of adolescent female viewers. Journalism Quarterly 56(2):283-288.

Tedesco, Nancy S.
1974 Patterns in prime time. Journal of Communication 24(2):119-124.

Thomas, W.I. and F. Znaniecki
1918 The Polish Peasant in Europe and America. Boston: Badger.

Tomeh, A.K.
1976 Birth order, club membership and mass media exposure. Journal of Marriage and the Family 38(1):151-164.

Tomett, Aida K.
1978 Sex-role orientation: an analysis of structural and attitudinal predictors. Journal of Marriage and the Family 40(2):341-354.

Tuchman, Gaye
1978 The symbolic annihilation of women by the mass media. In Gaye Tuchman, Arlene Daniels and James Benét (eds.), Hearth and Home. Images of Women in the Mass Media. New York: Oxford University Press.

Tuchman, Gaye, Arlene Daniels and James Benét (eds.)
1978 Hearth and Home. Images of Women in the Mass Media. New York: Oxford University Press.

Turow, J.
1980 Occupational and personality in television dramas: an industrial view. Communications Research 7(3):295-318.

Turow, Joseph
1974 Advising and ordering: daytime, primetime. Journal of Communication 24(2):138-141.

Udry, J.R.
1966 The Social Context of Marriage. New York: J.B. Lippincott Company.

Vaihingel, H.
1924 The Philosophy of "As If", New york: Harcourt and Brace.

Volgy, T. and J. Schwartz
1980 Television entertainment programs and sociopolitical attitudes. Journalism Quarterly 57:150-154.

Wade, S.E.
1971 Adolescents, creativity and media: an exploratory study. American Behavioural Scientist 14(3):341-351.

Ward, Dawn and Jack Balswick
1978 Strong men and virtuous women. Pacific Sociological Review 21(1):45-53.

Ward, Scott
1976 Effects of TV advertising on children and adolescents. In Ray Brown (ed.), Children and Television. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc. pp. 297-319.

Weigel, R.H. and R. Jessor
1973 Televison and adolescent conventionality: an exploratory study. Public Opinion Quarterly 37(1):76-90.

Wells, Kathleen
1980 Gender-role identity and psychological adjustment in adolescence. Journal of Youth and Adolescence 9(1):59-73.

Werner, A.
1975 The effects of television on children and adolescents: a case of sex and class socialization. Journal of Communication 25(4):45-50.

Wiley, R.
1977 Family viewing: a balancing of interests. Journal of Communication 27:188-192.

Williams, Frederick, Robert La Rose and Frederica Frost
1981 Children, Television and Sex-Role Stereotyping. New York: Praeger Publishers.

Williams, John E., Susan M. Bennett and Deborah L. Best
1975 Awareness and expression of sex stereotypes in young children. Developmental Psychology 11(5):635-642.

Williams, Patricia A., Edward H. Haertel, Geneva D. Haertel and Herbert J. Wallenberg
1982 The impact of leisure-time television on school learning: a research synthesis. American Educational Research Journal 19(1):19-50.

Williams, Tanis MacBeth, Merle L. Zabrack and Leslie A. Joy
1982 The portrayal of aggression on North American television. Journal of Applied Social Psychology 12(5):360-380.

Woelfel, J.A. and A.O. Haller
1971 Significant others: the self-reflective act and the attitude formation process. American Sociological Review 36:74-87.

Wonnacott. T.H. and R.J. Wonnacott
1977 Introductory Statistics for Business and Economics Second Edition; Santa Barbara, California. John Wiley and sons.

Wrong, Dennis H.
1961 The oversocialized conception of man in modern sociology. American Sociological Review 26:183-193.

Yorburg, Betty
1976 The New Woman: attitudes, behaviour, and self-image. Colombus, Ohio: Merrill

APPENDIX A

Family Communication Patterns

Category 1 respresents *authoritarian* family communication patterns for the following variables.

VAR369 My parents tell me not to argue my point of view with those who are older and more experienced.

1. Daily 2. Never

VAR370 My parents tell me to give in on arguments rather than argue with other people.

1. Daily 2. Never

VAR371 My parents tell me that I should not show anger in group situations.

1. Daily 2. Never

VAR372 My parents tell me that if I am not able to discuss things in a quiet and low tone I may as well stop it.

1. Daily 2. Never

VAR373 My parents tell me that their point of view as a parent is the correct one and should not be challenged by me.

1. Daily 2. Never

VAR374 My parents tell me that the best way to to keep out of trouble is to stay away from it

1. Daily 2. Never

VAR375 My parents tell me that if I don't understand something they are trying to explain to me now I will understand it when I grow up.

1. Daily 2. Never

Category 1 respresents *non-authoritarian* family communication patterns for the following variables.

VAR376 When we discuss something in our family my parents ask for my point of view.

1. Daily 2. Never

VAR377 My parents tell me that even though I may have different ideas and beliefs I should be able to listen to others.

1. Daily 2. Never

VAR378 My parents encourage me to challenge their beliefs and ideas.

1. Daily 2. Never

VAR379 My parents encourage me to get my point of view across even though others may not like it.

1. Daily 2. Never

VAR380 We often have family discussions on matters like religion and politics where different members of the family take different sides.

APPENDIX B

Identification with Television

Which of the following describes your favorite television programs?

It shows life as it really is

___Yes ___No

The people in it are just like people in real life.

___Yes ___No

I learn from it.

___Yes ___No

It shows the way people ought to act.

___Yes ___No

I watch television because:

It helps me understand what's happening in the real world.

1. Strongly Agree 6. Strongly Disagree

I learn things from television.

1. Strongly Agree 6. Strongly Disagree

It's like a friend to me.

1. Strongly Agree 6. Strongly Disagree

It shows me what is right and wrong.

1. Strongly Agree 6. Strongly Disagree

APPENDIX C

Absorption With Television

When I watch a T.V. program that I like I sometimes think I am in the story.

1. Strongly Agree 6. Strongly Disagree

When I watch a T.V. program that I like I sometimes wish that I was in the story.

1. Strongly Agree 6. Strongly Disagree

When I see some T.V. programs I feel like I am one of those involved.

1. Strongly Agree 6. Strongly Disagree

Often when I have seen a T.V program I think about it for a long time afterward.

1. Strongly Agree 6. Strongly Disagree

I would really like to be like the people on some T.V. Programs.

1. Strongly Agree 6. Strongly Disagree

I think about some television programs the next day.

1. Strongly Agree 6. Strongly Disagree

APPENDIX D

Sex-Role Stereotyping

VAR481 The job of plumber is equally suitable for men and women.

1. Strongly Agree 2.Strongly Disagree

VAR482 It's all right for the women to have a career and the man to stay home with the children.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR483 Men make better engineers than women,

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR484 Working women are too independent.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR485 Women should not be discriminated against in getting manual labour jobs.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR486 Driving a truck is equally suitable for men and women.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR487 It is more important for a wife to help her husband than to have a career herself.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR488 A woman should take her husband's name in marriage.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR489 A husband should handle the money.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR490 A woman should wait until her children are out of school before she goes to work.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR491 Women should stay home and care for the children.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR492 The major responsibility of the wife is to keep her husband and children happy.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR493 Women should have the same sexual freedom as men.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR494 Men are more emotionally suited for politics than women.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR495 Young girls are entitled to as much independence as young boys.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR496 Men are better leaders than women.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree

VAR497 Women are more envious than men.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Strongly Disagree