

**THE STUDY OF CULTIVATION EFFECTS
ON THE REPRESENTATION OF SOCIAL
ATTRIBUTES, MARRIAGE, FAMILY AND
OCCUPATIONAL ROLES:
TV DRAMAS IN THAILAND AND THAI YOUNG
ADOLESCENTS**

Thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

at the University of Leicester

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Abstract

Title

“The study of cultivation effects on the representation of social attributes, marriage, family and occupational roles: TV dramas in Thailand and Thai young adolescents”

By

Nitikul Chamaraman

This thesis investigates relationships between reported television viewing and gender-attribute perceptions of Thai youth. It was conducted within a cultivation analysis framework that necessitated the collection of data about the nature of television output and about young people’s perceptions of aspects of social reality. A detailed review and critique of the cultural indicators research literature identified both its relevance to this research and the limitations of early studies in this area.

The main focus of this study was placed on TV drama representation and adolescents’ social reality perceptions. The content analysis was used to extract the most frequent occurring of 416 TV male and female characters depicted on TV dramas containing relevant material in informational terms to the perceptions being explored. Audience survey was conducted using questionnaire methodology about their television viewing habits and gender-related perceptions. It obtained data from 962 male and female 10-to-19 years-of-age young adolescents in 15 secondary schools of Bangkok.

This thesis argues that firstly, the stereotypes of gender-related social attributes, marriage, family or domestic, and occupational roles are evident in TV drama programmes. Secondly, heavy TV viewers adopt TV views of the world in some attributes and roles more than light viewers because of the effect of cumulative exposure to the depictions of gender-related roles.

The original contribution to this thesis is based on Gerbner’s cultivation indicator project of message system analysis and cultivation analysis. Message system analysis was referred to in order to assess the most representative, stable, and recurrent aggregate patterns of messages to which total communities are exposed over long periods of time. Cultivation analysis was used to compare real world perceptions of heavy and light viewers of television, assuming that heavy viewers will exhibit perceptions that are more consistent with the world of TV drama than do light viewers or cultivation effects.

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Introduction

I Introduction

This introduction will highlight the primary focus of the research. Then it will explore research rationale, a series of hypotheses and one research question, and the structure of the thesis.

The primary focus of this thesis is to firstly, assess gender-related social attributes, marriage, family, and occupational roles portrayed on TV dramas, and secondly it will assess young teenage television viewers' perceptions in Thailand. In order to identify and analyse the messages of gender-related roles portrayed in TV drama, following Gerbner's Cultural Indicator Project, I shall examine the number of TV characters portrayed in TV dramas in terrestrial channels of Thailand television using message system analysis. The dramas analysed will be classified into two categories of noon and early evening dramas, and late evening and midnight time dramas. Programmes will be sampled from two most frequently viewed channels 3 and 7 that represent all segments of the television industry. The content analysis will be used to extract the most frequent occurrences of TV male and female characters on 36 attributes and roles depicted on Thailand TV dramas, which include twenty-two social attributes, and family roles, two marriage roles, and fourteen occupational roles.

In the second related methodology of this thesis, where cultivation analysis will be employed, is an audience survey. The reasons for employing cultivation analysis into this thesis is that, in the first part of the methodology used in this thesis, or message system analysis, assumes that messages defined by the analysis were the same as those absorbed by the audience. The television answers will be presumed to represent meanings assimilated from programmes by viewers. Nonetheless, without direct assessment procedure to measure the kinds of messages viewers themselves perceive in the programmes there will not be any testament of the degree to which whether viewers' perceptions of certain social groups or social phenomena as depicted on television will actually differ from their perceptions of these same entities as they exist in the real world or not.

This research will categorise survey respondents into three audience segments, which are light, medium and heavy viewers, using a three-way split viewing, to investigate if there will be an indication of cultivation and mainstreaming effects in relation to the media consumption. The main argument of the thesis is grounded under the twofold. First, male and female TV characters are assigned certain roles and characteristics as they are portrayed on TV dramas. Second, TV viewers who watch televised dramas heavily will differ from those who are less exposed to televised dramas in some of their social reality perceptions, as heavier TV viewers will bore a closer relationship to the TV representation of roles and characteristics than lighter TV viewers.

Despite the fact that cultivation indicator methodology has been widely replicated in worldwide studies, it is seen as the methodological problem bearing by some critics such as Hirsch (1980), Hughes (1980), Doob and MacDonald (1979), Zillman and Wakshlag (1984), Mendelsohn (1983), Gunter (1988), Boyanowsky (1977), and Fox and Philliber (1978). These criticisms revolve around the statements that the linearity structure of the cultivation model is too simple. Such apparent effect of cultivation can be reduced after controlling for related variables such as demographic and social variables. Further details of these critics will be examined in Chapter 1.

The findings of this thesis will include not only descriptive statistics but also the multivariate statistics such as zero-order and partial correlations to confirm rigorous and appropriate standard statistical procedures. This is to find out if the percentage of heavy viewers would be higher than that of light viewers, which establishes cultivation effects and also to see if careful controls of various variables included gender, age, education, TV in bedroom, TV viewing channels, and social factors including parents, friends, and celebrities would reduce or eliminate cultivation effects or not. It is hoped that the social implication and findings of this thesis will serve as a good foreground for other studies, which also attempt to understand gender attributes and roles presented in TV drama programmes, as an embedded part of people's daily lives and the social reality perceptions among Thai TV young adolescent viewers.

II Research Rationale

It is my genuine interest to study in this subject while it is closely related to the course I have taken in the past, which was a Master or Arts degree in Mass Communications. The further rationale for choosing to study the cultivation effects in TV dramas and adolescents in Thailand are indicated below.

II.I Thailand

Despite the fact that cultivation effects with regards to gender stereotypes in TV drama programmes in the Western societies such as United States and Britain have been studied extensively, less is known about gender-role presentation in TV drama programmes in Thailand. This study attempts to fill this gap. Further, Western societies' studies, particularly the American studies, have shown that television repeatedly portrays and cultivates a particular set of images of sex roles and occupations. This does not necessarily mean that television system in South East Asian countries like Thailand would come about to disseminate similar images and cultivate similar views. The fact that most other countries including Thailand import so much of their programming further complicates the picture and that is why Thailand needs to be examined on its TV viewing situation.

Moreover, there are only a handful studies of gender representation particularly TV prime-time programmes in neighbouring countries of Thailand such as Vietnam, Cambodia, and Lao People's Democratic Republic. These studies seem to be associated with their histories and thus their media especially TV services are following the slow pace of the countries' development. Many studies about gender representation in South East Asian countries such as Malaysia and Singapore, and in the other part of Asia Pacific region such as Japan and Taiwan, mostly rely on commercials, be it a single country study or a comparison between Western and Eastern countries or a comparison among Asian countries. Further, the studies in Thailand often give out only statistics or the majority of responses from universities' national surveys, governments' national statistical office of Thailand, and global marketing research companies that perform the TV or advertising measurement within the country. The studies in the form of textbooks or extensive empirical research are found to be very rare.

II.II Bangkok

Early adolescents in Bangkok area are most likely to provide answers to the questionnaire differently from those who live in the rest of the country. That also means that the variables or relationships in the questionnaire are different as well. This is due to many reasons. First of all, urban and rural areas' lifestyles are different such as in the rural areas, many occupations are farmer, gardener, village teacher and so on, while occupations in the urban areas are more into business both domestically and internationally with the large access of transportation, building and so on. Second, there are a number of advantages studying Bangkok area as it has the largest population and it is the centre of all the communications throughout which means Bangkok area is the most influential area in the country. Furthermore, any development always starts with Bangkok as the first geographical area. Also, the fact that parents in rural areas send their kids to study and live in Bangkok schools make Bangkok a mix of urban and rural people.

II.III Dramas

There are many research studies such as Wober and Gunter's (1982) study indicating that viewing certain kinds of television programme can influence certain social perceptions while leaving other associated unaffected. In other words, not only is the amount of television viewing but also the type of content viewed that is important in relation to the moulding of social perceptions. Moreover, television is a highly informative medium, not only in its news and current affairs programmes, and its documentary series, but also in its drama content, which provides a continuous stream of 'fact' or vivid impressions about people, places and events with which viewers may not otherwise come into contact (Shanahan and Morgan 1999). Some people believed in certain programmes whose characters and settings are clearly fictional (Gross and Jeffries-Fox 1978).

Also, a key factor in studying television dramas is that they exploit a particular type of "representational realism", according to Shanahan and Morgan (1999:21), is the form of story-telling in which the TV viewer is convinced that, given certain assumptions about something, the events taking place could happen in 'reality'. It is relatively simple for heavy viewers to imagine or adapt the concepts, characters and

morals of televised reality to everyday reality, because the show is in fact not too distant from the individual's own in today's contemporary societies. Although viewers including the young know that they watch made-up stories and fiction, viewers demand the background to be 'realistic' and to fit what they believe to be conventional 'realistic' about life and the world. Viewers may not pay a great deal of attention consciously to such background of the stories they see (Gross 1977). Beyond the realism representation on TV dramas are the associated values and ideological assumptions, which permeate that most stable and pervasive images and messages depicted on televised reality, on viewers' attitudes and behaviours.

II.IV Channels 3 and 7

Channel 3 and Channel 7 will be chosen for the content analysis because they have a broad general viewer throughout the countries where they are the most popular terrestrial TV channels in Thailand. Both channels also broadcast TV dramas continuously throughout the period under analysis. The popularity of TV local Channels 3 and 7 and drama type programmes are evident in many studies, polls, national surveys and statistical reports from Thailand organizations. For example, according to Thailand Media Profile 2002 as reported by Siriyuvasak (2002), entertainment programmes are the most favourite type of programmes for most TV channels particularly Channel 3 (74.5%) and 7 (75.5%). Further details on this can be found in Chapter 3.

II.V Adolescents

Only a handful studies have provided a full academic research that focus on young teenagers or young adolescents in Thailand. In this thesis, 'young teenager' or 'young adolescent' is TV viewer whose age between 10 and 19 years old. Thus, by choosing this particular age group and given Thailand as a particular country to study on, I hope to make a contribution to earlier research in the field of television audience research and reported attitudes and behaviours. The study in this thesis will aim to examine Thai adolescents' TV worldview. There are a number of concerns that Thai youth imitate the behaviours of TV characters that they see on TV. Further details about Thai young teenage viewers and their watching habits can be found in Chapter 3.

II.VI The reliability of the content analysis

In the coding procedure for content analysis, there will be two coders to ensure reliability of the test. I will apply Scott Pi's formula (Riffe *et al* 1998:131), which has similar aim as Kappa's test that looks at category values and corrects for chance agreement in computing a reliability assessment. Further details on the reliability of test will be described in Sub-Section **4.3.4 Coder reliability assessment**, page 129, under Section **4.3 Quantitative Content Analysis on Television Drama Programmes**. A coding frame sample can be found in **APPENDIX D**.

II.VII The sampling method of the audience survey

The purposive sampling method will be selected to this analysis. Fifteen schools will be randomly selected from a wide range of government and private schools in accords with Bangkok Education Service Areas, which are part of the Ministry of Educational Affairs, within the geographical areas of Bangkok. It can possibly be argued that this sampling method is not representative; for instance, not everyone in the area had an equal chance to participate. However, according to Hartmann (1987:16 quoted in Hansen et al 1998:241-242), "in much research, it may be neither necessary nor desirable that samples should be representative. The object may simply be to test a particular hypothesis". The aim of my study is to analyse the attitudes of a certain group of people, and not to make statistically significant forecasts. Also, a rationale for non-representative sampling is referred to the limited availability of resources and time. It also indicates that the sample will be focused on programmes of thematic relevance to the perceptions about which young people will be surveyed and will also be represented what are known to be the most popular or most watched programmes among the age group the research will survey. Therefore, owing to the requirements of this study to explore attitudes of secondary adolescents, this selection is considered to be capable of ensuring validity in testing the hypotheses.

II.VIII Ethical purpose

For ethical purposes, letters of request will be sent to 15 schools sampled. The letter will give a brief introduction of the researcher as the first step when contacting the school head-teachers. A request will be placed for authorization from the head-teachers to give the permission for me to access the schools and carry out the research. Further details about letter of request will be described in Sub-Section 4.4.3 **Letter of request and recruiting**, page 137, under Section 4.4 **Audience Survey on Adolescents' Perceptions of Roles and Occupations**.

II.IX Pilot study and questionnaire

The small-scale pilot survey will be designed to pre-test my main questionnaire survey, in order to see how it will work and, if necessary, to rectify design errors to the main data collection phase. Further details about pilot study for questionnaire survey will be described in Sub-Section 4.4.2 **Survey pilot study**, page 136, under Section 4.4 **Audience Survey on Adolescents' Perceptions of Roles and Occupations**. I will administer self-completion questionnaires by personally delivering and handling the questionnaires to respondents or representatives of schools. This method is reasoned for being relatively inexpensive and I can reach potential respondents better than many other methods. The distribution of questionnaire surveys is described in Table I.I.

Table I.I The Sampled Schools and Respondents Distributed by Questionnaires

School	Secondary Year	Female	Male	Total Each School	Total Each Area
No. 1-5	Year 1	20 (15+5)	20 (15+5)	80 (60+20)	400 (300+100)
	Year 4	20 (15+5)	20 (15+5)		
No. 6-10	Year 2	20 (15+5)	20 (15+5)	80 (60+20)	400 (300+100)
	Year 5	20 (15+5)	20 (15+5)		
No. 11-15	Year 3	20 (15+5)	20 (15+5)	80 (60+20)	400 (300+100)
	Year 6	20 (15+5)	20 (15+5)		
Grand Total					<u>1200</u> (900+300)

As shown in Table I.I, within the quota of 15, 5 questionnaires will be added as an extra. The reason for this is that it provides the way over-respondents to allow for drop-outs, incomplete questionnaires and refusals. So it is expected to have a response sample in the range of 900-1200 respondents if all distributed questionnaires were returned from the sampled schools. The current research will provide self-explanatory questionnaires, which consist of 141 questions. More details about questionnaire survey can be found in Sub-Section **4.4.4 The questionnaire survey**, page 138, under Section **4.4 Audience Survey on Adolescents' Perceptions of Roles and Occupations**. For a questionnaire survey sample, this can be found in **APPENDIX F**.

III Hypotheses and Research Question

Hypotheses and research question are developed according to the rationale outline as mentioned above. Hypotheses are formulated with regard to the primary focus of the thesis, which attempts first to identify and analyse the messages involving gender roles and behaviours that are presented across television dramas landscape. Then it attempts to examine adolescents' perceptions of these gender-related role attributes. Examples of hypotheses include 'Males will appear more frequently on TV than females', 'Males will appear more often in marriage roles of 'single' or 'unmarried' than females while females will appear more often in 'married' role than males', and 'Males will appear more often in the following social attributes than females: 'athletic', 'authoritative', 'aggressive', 'intelligent', 'physically helpful', 'ambitious', 'outgoing', 'unfaithful', 'criminal' and 'successful'. Additionally, the research question will be formed as another issue that I wish to explore but outside the scope of hypotheses. The research question is constructed to investigate whether the relationships between the perception of social attributes, marriage, family and occupational roles remained significantly related to TV viewers after controlling for related variables including demographic profile such as age, gender, education, TV availability in bedroom, TV channel viewing measurement, and social variables such as influences of parents, peers, and celebrities. Hypotheses and research question will be fully investigated in Sub-Section **4.2.1 Hypotheses** and **4.2.2 Research question**, page 117 - 123, under Section **4.2 Hypotheses and Research Questions**.

IV Thesis structure

The rest of the thesis is structured as follows:

Chapter One

This chapter will provide a review of literature that forms the background of the empirical analysis for this thesis. It will investigate the theory of cultivation indicator project consisted of message system analysis and cultivation theory, which are served as the key literature to underpin the thesis. This chapter will also explain the importance of cognitive process, perceived reality, and narrative paradigm as supporting psychological explanation for cultivation theory. It is important to examine relevant literature on this subject to establish how effective, if at all, the cultivation approach can be in helping us to understand the ways in which the mass media can shape public consciousness. Cultivation has generated a great deal of theoretical discussion, and methodological debate. The methodological shortcomings that have been identified in the original Gerbner research designs can benefit the research to be reported in this thesis. I will thus examine the methodological problem of cultivation theory in this chapter. However, to completely understand the whole picture of this study, issues of the portrayals of TV characters, the perceptions of attributes and roles among young adolescents will be examined further in Chapter 2.

Chapter Two

Much of the focus of the early cultivation analysis work was placed on media portrayals of crime and violence and their impact upon public perceptions of social reality. The principles demonstrated through these early analyses, however, have been applied to other domains of social experience, which includes the depiction and perception of gender roles. This chapter attempts to investigate roles represented on television dramas. Previous studies attempted to demonstrate how powerful television is to reinforce its young audiences' attitudes, values and behaviours by issuing gender role appropriateness. The chapter will then focus on the extent to which the gender roles are perceived in young people as being established in a number of studies, which have evidently documented a general relationship between viewing television dramas and cultivation effects in social, behavioural or domestic,

and occupational roles. The belief in cultivation analysis is that heavy TV viewers adopt TV views of the world more than light viewers because of the effect of cumulative exposure to the depictions of gender-related roles. I will also examine other related social issues that are thought to be different social explanations to the effects caused by television on its young viewers. These include same-sex model preference and individual differences.

Chapter Three

This chapter will examine Thailand's media particularly TV viewing and media consumption. The availability of TV channels in Thailand, the local and imported TV programmes, and different types of TV programmes are statistically reported from various different resources such as national statistics from governmental resources, poll and national surveys from many reputed-universities in Thailand. The controversial issues concerning law and regulations of broadcasting policy and the TV viewing situation in Thailand among journalists, media scholars, and other professionals will also be investigated. Media consumption among young Thai adolescents and how they incorporate media information into their consciousness will also be investigated. Although previous findings indicate that frequent television viewing is associated with holding more stereotypical attitudes about gender, a rare number of studies have examined this connection among Thai youth, who are frequent viewers of television drama programming. There have been public concerns on the impact of television on Thai adolescents' attitudes and behaviours since they spend most of their time watching television. The newly introduced rating system in July 2007 was still in its infancy and under various disputes. These will be examined in this chapter.

Chapter Four

This chapter is designed to examine the methodology used in investigating TV content and audience perceptions and their relationship regarding cultivation analysis, following Gerbnerian model by investigating the links between reported viewing of television by young people in Thailand and their perceptions of specific aspects of social reality. These specific aspects of social reality are mainly categorised as social attributes, marriage, family, and occupational roles. Content analyses carried out in

this thesis highlight the estimates of TV reality and a survey questionnaire composed of distinct questions of TV reality and the real world. Hypotheses and research questions will be highlighted on the frequencies of male and female distribution of roles on TV, the perceptions of light in comparison to heavy viewers. Details are provided later in this chapter. It is hoped that the current research will help correct the weaknesses that have been criticized by previous studies and hope that this research could contribute to the development of cultivation analysis with a rigorous statistic and strong findings that do not ignore the importance of the type of programmes, and other social factors involved.

Chapter Five

This chapter will examine firstly, the representation of TV characters that are portrayed in different social attributes, marriage, family and occupational roles, and secondly, the significant perceptions of roles among light and heavy viewers. In previous studies, Gerbner's message system analysis was used to identify and analyse the messages that are presented across television landscape, and cultivation theory has been made to examine adolescents' perceptions of these gender-related role attributes that heavy viewers will exhibit perceptions that are more consistent with the world of TV drama than do light viewers. The study will explore signs of any significant relationship in each of these 36 attributes with the perceptions of TV audience, which are the same as listed in the questionnaire surveys. Chi Square analyses are employed to examine if there will be any significant value in viewers' perceptions of the identified roles. Specifically, the viewers are segregated into three main compartments of light, medium, and heavy viewers, while light and heavy viewers are those groups required in testing cultivation effects. Each category is also sub-divided into two distinctive social groups of males and females.

Chapter Six

This chapter will examine the relationships between perceptions of attributes in TV drama genres and real life, and amount of reported TV viewing. Multi-variate statistical analyses are run to assess whether attribute perceptions concerning social, and family or domestic roles portrayed in televised drama are related to weight of TV viewing. The perceptions concerning occupational roles are not entered into this

analysis as the study specifically examined on social characteristics and family roles, which have a large number of data that can be clustered into compound variables. These analyses also differentiate between different types of televised dramas and control for a range of personal characteristics of respondents. Previous researchers such as Doob and MacDonald (1979), Hirsch (1980) and Hughes (1980) criticised Gerbner for failing to build in multiple simultaneous controls for variables other than TV viewing in assessing the distinctive impact TV might have on specific social perceptions. In addition, there may be classes of variables that belong together and could represent more robust variables in terms of measuring the nature of public perceptions of social reality. In the current research, such compound variables will be explored through factor analysis that provides an empirical statistical device for clustering isolated perceptions into larger families of perceptual constructs.

Chapter Seven

This chapter attempts to discuss on the nature and implications of findings of the thesis. The research is conducted within a cultivation analysis framework that necessitates the collection of data about the nature of television output and about young people's perceptions of aspects of social reality. A detailed review and critique of the cultural indicator research literature identify both its relevance to this research and the limitations of early studies in this area. The chapter evaluates original contributions of the thesis in both analytical and empirical terms. The chapter will finally re-evaluate the approaches, the main research questions, and the hypotheses used in this thesis, which concern TV portrayals in social attributes, marriage, family, and occupational roles, and the relationships between reported television viewing and Thai youths' gender-attribute perceptions of these roles. The study will also discuss and conclude the findings about cultivation and mainstreaming effects and points out possibilities for further studies.

Chapter 1 : Cultivation Indicator Project and Symbolic Representation of Television

1.1 Introduction

This chapter will provide a review of literature that forms the background of the empirical analysis for this thesis. It will investigate the theory of cultivation indicator project consisted of message system analysis and cultivation analysis, which are served as the key literature to underpin the thesis. This chapter will concentrate on the more repetitive long-term indirect media effects of the cultivation theory or cultural indicator project than the traditional media effects. The key focus on this chapter is to examine and identify how the cultural indicators project, in relation to TV, has been formed, structured, and consequences. This chapter will also explain the importance of cognitive process, perceived reality, and narrative paradigm as supporting psychological explanation for cultivation theory.

Although widely applied in many different countries, cultural indicators research has been extensively criticized and the original methodology devised by Gerbner and his colleagues has been refined in different ways over the years. It is important to examine relevant literature on this subject to establish how effective, if at all, the cultivation approach can be in helping us to understand the ways in which the mass media can shape public consciousness. There are also important lessons to be learned from methodological shortcomings that have been identified in the original Gerbner research designs that can benefit the research to be reported in this thesis.

1.2 Background of Cultivation Indicator Project

Cultivation indicator project was an approach developed by Professor George Gerbner, dean of the Annenberg School of Communications at the University of Pennsylvania. Gerbner argued for the need to monitor cultural indicators to establish the kinds of values and priorities emphasised by the media, especially by television. Cultivation indicator concentrates on the continuing and common consequences of growing up and living with television beginning in the USA since it is the country's most widely shared cultural agency and most visible disseminator of cultural symbols (Shanahan and Morgan 1999).

Theories of the cultivation process attempt to understand and explain the dynamics of television as the distinctive and dominant cultural force of this electronic age. Jennings Bryant reported that the studies of cultivation seem “almost as ubiquitous as television itself” (Bryant 1986:231 cited in Shanahan and Morgan 1999:4). Newhagen and Lewenstein (1992) argue, “Despite criticism, the theory persists, perhaps because the social implications of the idea that a mass medium can define our culture are too important to dismiss” (p.49).

Attention to Gerbner’s ideas about cultivation grew. Much of the social debate about television focuses on specific issues, problems, controversies or programmes which are current at any given time. The most consistent conclusion that stems from a meta-analysis of over 80 studies is a confirmation of Gerbner’s proposition that television viewing is correlated with a line of distorted estimates of social reality (Morgan and Shanahan 1997; Shanahan and Morgan 1999; Weimann 2000).

Since the early 1970s, the evidence of cultivation analysis has derived from a large volume of research conducted by Gerbner’s and other associates. Early cultivation studies took place in the United States, but numerous attempts to replicate cultivation analysis have been conducted in other countries, mostly in Western Europe such as England, the Netherlands, Sweden and Germany. Among other countries are Australia, Canada, Israel, and in the Spanish-speaking countries. Later, cultivation was explored in cultural, historical, and political contexts that are more different from those of the United States, such as in Asia (Taiwan, South Korea, Hong Kong, the Philippines, and China) and in Latin America (Argentina and Brazil). Some of these studies confirmed general findings from the United States and some did not.

Analyses of comparative message system analysis and cultivation data from Japan, Brazil, China, Hungary, the Netherlands, Finland, Russia, Trinidad and elsewhere were also undertaken. Some of these international works stemmed from Gerbner’s attempts in the late 1980s to organize a global project called “Television Around the World” whose purpose was to conduct parallel analyses of television policies, contents and effects with researchers in 26 participating countries. Unfortunately, that project was not accomplished because of the lack of funding to support such a massive project and the scarcity of resources in many of the countries involved.

Cultivation theory was also used in the transition of democracy process in many countries in Latin America, Africa, and the former Eastern Bloc. There is also some research that shed new light on a new scheme for cultivation theory in relation to television world estimates, real world estimates and television viewing (Hetsroni and Tukachinsky 2006) on the issues of violent crimes and elderly people by setting up five groups of measurements which include simple cultivation, over cultivation, double distortion, simple no cultivation, and distorted no cultivation. These replications attempt to test and understand the cultivation effects. The following section will examine the ways in which television functions and the differences identified between the traditional perspective of media effects and the more classic perspective that is called cultivation media effects.

1.3 Television and Cultivation Media Effects

This section will examine the ways in which television significantly functioned in the societies we are living in. It will also explore the cultivation media effects, which are the classic perspective of media effects that differs from the traditional media effects. These will be explained as follows.

1.3.1 Television as an agency of symbolic socialization and control

Television is the source of the most broadly shared images and messages in history (Gerbner *et al* 1986). It is vital for a society as it functions as 'agencies of symbolic socialization and control', which 'demonstrate how society works by dramatising its norms and values' (Gerbner and Gross 1976:173). There are thousand of different races, ethnicities, cultural and demographic backgrounds exist in the world. Television is the central for them to share a common image, repetitive ideals and notions of how the world works.

To give a basic example of this, people who speak different languages, live in different economic status and perhaps have never seen each other's faces before but they have a common knowledge through television about other races, and cultures. These common images and ideals work together to help reinforce or establish common beliefs, identities, and even shape one's perception of reality. Television brings the same images to all that watch it. "The heart of the analogy of television

and religion, and the similarity of their social functions, lies in the continual repetition of patterns such as myths, ideologies, "facts", relationships, which serve to define the world and legitimize the social order" (Gerbner *et al* 1986).

Gerbner defined communication as an "interaction through messages", human interaction which is driven by the symbolic environment constituting culture. The symbolic environment reveals social and institutional dynamics, and because it expresses social patterns it also cultivates them. This corresponds to the original meaning of "cultivation" that is the process within which interaction through messages shapes and sustains the terms on which the messages are premised.

The way in which the media and other instruments of culture come between audience and reality are not new. It has been written by C. Wright Mills in 1959, which is powerful case of what he called "Cultural Apparatus". Mills (1959) considered that

"The first rule for understanding the human condition is that men live in second-hand worlds...their own experience is always indirect. The quality of their lives determined by meanings they have received from others...every man is increasingly dependent upon the observation posts, the interpretation centres, the presentation depots which in contemporary society are established by means of ...the cultural apparatus" (Mills 1959:552).

Gitlin (1980) suggests that mass media influence has become the principal distribution system of ideology. People are only familiar with their own "tiny regions of social life" (Gitlin 1980:1), and that the mass media brings simulated reality into their lives and people find themselves relying on those sources to provide a conceptualised image of the real world. And that mass media, which produced mass-produced messages "will not necessarily tell us what people think or do. But they will tell us what most people think or do something *about* or in *common*" (Gerbner 1970), not *how* to think about it (McCombs and Shaw 1972).

1.3.2 Television as the cultural process of myth-telling

The mass production of messages and the symbolic environment represent an intense transformation in social relationship, in power, and in the cultural process of story-telling. Human beings uniquely live in a world experienced and

conducted through story telling in its many modes and forms. "Story-telling fits human reality to the social order" (Gerbner *et al* 1986). Television is the cycle of myth-telling and such myth-telling has effectively taken its place as common rituals from tribal elders, of religion, and even common methodologies of formal education. Fisher (1984) considered that unlike most traditional media effects research, which assumed that human communication was composed mostly of exchanges of "information", cultivation preferred to see humans as mostly engaging in "story-telling transactions". Much of what individuals know, or think they know, they perhaps never personally experienced, they "know" about many things based on the stories they hear and the stories they tell.

Television set has consequently become a key member of the family, the one who tells most of the stories most of the time" (Gerbner *et al* 1986:14; Severin and Tankard 1997:299). Based on cultivation, television tells its viewers three different kind or patterns of stories. Firstly, stories about how things work, in which the invisible dynamics of human life are lightened up, or what cultivation theorists called "fiction", and they build a fantasy that informs the story we call reality. Secondly, stories about how things are, in which today is called "news", and they tend to conform the visions, rules, priorities and goals of a particular society, and finally, stories of value and choice, of what to do. They have been called "sermons", or "instruction", or "law", today they are called "commercials" (Signorielli and Morgan 1990). Together, all three related kinds of stories constitute mediated culture. Through mythology, religions, legends, art, science, laws, these stories are finally packaged and disseminated by television.

George Gerbner believes that the mass media cultivates attitudes and values, which are already present in a culture and that the media maintain and multiply these values amongst members of a culture, thus binding it together. He asserted that:

"We begin with the assertion that television is the central cultural arm of American society. It is an agency of the established order and as such serves primarily to extend and maintain rather than to alter, threaten, or weaken conventional conceptions, beliefs, and behaviours. Its chief cultural function is to spread and stabilize social patterns, to cultivate not change but resistance to change. Television is a medium of the socialization of most people into standardized roles and behaviours. Its function is, in a word, enculturation" (Gerbner and Gross 1976:175).

Television tends to reinforce what is already there rather than produces change, create new ideas or lead to new forms of behaviour. Gerbner views this television world as "not a window on or reflection of the world, but a world in itself" (McQuail 1993:100). This created version of the world entices heavy viewers to make assumptions about violence, people, places, and other fictionalized events, which do not hold true to real life events.

Gerbner and Gross argue that "enculturation" is facilitated by the establishment of reality by fictional representations, "even the most sophisticated can find many important components of their knowledge of the real world derived wholly or in part from fictional representation" (Gerbner and Gross 1976:179). If culture is a system of stories and other artefacts increasingly mass-produced that mediates between existence and thereby contributes to both as claimed by Gerbner (1990:249-251), then cultivation is what a culture does, culture is the basic medium in which human lives and learns.

1.3.3 Cultivation versus traditional media effects

There is a need to draw a clear distinction between the traditional media effects and cultivation media effects model in order to understand better of cultivation media effects. These are explained as follows.

To begin with, there are two models of how the media affect audiences' attitudes, values, and behaviours currently are social learning theory and cultivation theory. While social learning theory tends to consider audience characteristics as mediators of effects, the test of this theory often neglect to include the audience as an important element in the process. The second area of media research that has long been attracting media effects scholars is the study of cultivation effects, which is subsumed by cultivation indicator project, which falls clearly within the classic perspective of media effects and see television as a primary purveyor of today's cultural values.

Although cultivation research is in the "effects" tradition, Gerbner's original conception of cultivation was nothing more than an attempt to alter the nature of the conventional academic discourse about the social and cultural implications of mass

communication. His aim was to develop an approach to mass communication using terms different from those of the hypodermic-needle paradigm of the persuasion and propaganda research. It is also to alternate the scientism and positivism of the “effect” tradition, which is the idea that media messages affect beliefs or behaviours in mechanical, automatic, and straightforward ways.

A traditional media “effect” was defined entirely in terms of change, that is, no change meant no effect. The traditional media effects of persuasive communications or the ability of messages to evoke behavioural changes tend to promote thinking about communication, and television messages, as distant “object” somehow injected into us, as “magic bullets” which either hit or miss its viewers. On the other hand, Gerbner (1966:102) defined the term “effects” of communications as “the history and dynamics of continuities, as well as of change, in the reciprocal relationships between social structures [institutional system analysis], message systems [message system analysis] and image structures [cultivation analysis].” It is important to emphasize the term “reciprocal” as it indicates that simplistic Stimulus-Response models of cause and effect are insufficient and irrelevant to the idea of cultivation.

By putting effects in the old notion of immediate change among individuals, what that has been ignored from that is the unique functions and distinctive features of contemporary mass communication. These mean massive, long-term consumption of centrally produced, mass-distributed, repetitive stories among large and heterogeneous publics who never meet face-to-face and have little in common except the messages they share.

It has been emphasized then that “cultivation” is about the implications of stable, repetitive, pervasive and virtually inescapable patterns of images and ideologies that television, especially dramatic, fictional entertainment, provides. For cultivation, television has long-term effects, which are small, gradual, indirect but cumulative and significant. Gerbner has always maintained that the theory of cultivation is a theory of cumulative long-term exposure to television, not to exposure of specific genres (Gerbner 1990). Cultivation approaches television as a system of messages, a system in which its elements are not invariant or uniform, but complementary, organic and coherent, and inquires into the functions and consequences of those messages as a system, all for its audience (Shanahan and

Morgan 1999). The cultivation process is not thought of as a uni-directional flow of influence from television to audiences, but rather part of a continual, dynamic, ongoing process of interaction among messages and contexts.

Gerbner and his associates (1994:23) argue, "Our use of the term cultivation for television's contribution to conceptions of social reality is not just another word for "effects"...television neither simply "creates" nor "reflects" images, opinions, and beliefs. Rather it is an integral aspect of a dynamic process". Habits and styles of media exposure tend to be stable over long periods of time (Himmelweit and Swift 1976), and cultivation analysis seeks to illuminate the consequences of the presence of television in stable styles of life and environment.

Cultivation theory suggests that people who watch television for many hours a day cultivate a view of society and the world consistent with the patterns of television's pseudo-reality (Nacos 2000). Cultivation analysis is thus a measurement to study how much television influences a viewer's perception of reality--to what extent does television programming cultivate viewers' understanding of the world (Stossel 1997). Rather than seeing communication research as a way to achieve a specific practical aim such as selling the products, promoting candidates, improving public health or raising environmental awareness, Gerbner saw it as a basic cultural inquiry. As Shanahan and Morgan (1999) point out that above and beyond communicative "power", any message is socially and historically determined expression of concrete physical and social relationships. Messages imply intentions, assumptions and points of view, which are understandable only in terms of social relationships and contexts in which they are produced. Yet, they also reconstitute those relationships and contexts. They are thus functioned recursively while sustaining and giving meaning to the structures and practices that produce them. This is far different from earlier thoughts to discover scientific "law" explaining the persuasive properties of messages, source, channels or receivers.

Potter (1993) notes Gerbner's intentions for using "cultivation" as an academic term to define his interest in "the more diffuse effects on perceptions that are shaped over a long period of exposure to media messages". The very notion of "cultivation" builds on the assumption that the major impacts of television materialize by means of the way it exposes people to the same images and metaphor over and over again.

Michael Novak offered a refreshingly simple way to frame the question of how television might affect individuals.

“If you practice the craft of writing sedulously, you begin to think and perceive differently. If you run for twenty minutes a day, your psyche is subtly transformed. If you work in an executive force, you begin to think like an executive. And if you watch six hours of television, on the average, everyday...” (Novak 1986:583)

Novak’s idea is that the ways in which we think about ourselves, our lives, our society, and our world should be influenced in some ways by how we occupy our time, by the roles we assume, and by the images and stories we consume. Given that we as a society spend more time watching television than doing anything else except working and sleeping, and many people watch more than they work, it should not be surprising if television “shape the soul”, as the title of Novak’s article asserts.

If an individual spends hours a day watching television, over the weeks, months and years, he or she might be expected to pick up a thing or two, and to think about life and the world in ways different from people who rarely watching television. Or, to extend this a bit further, a person who has the sort of values, beliefs, mindset, lifestyle and outlooks most congruent with the images, messages and stories of television, and who therefore would be drawn to, or choose to, spend a great deal of time watching the medium, would likely find those beliefs and outlooks to be nourished and sustained over the long run.

This conceptualization of the role of television in our lives is the essence of Gerbner’s theory of “cultivation”. Cultivation research looks at the mass media as a socializing agent and investigates whether television viewers come to believe the television version of reality the more they watch it. The emphasis is on the attitudinal rather than behavioural effects (Chandler 1998). Heavy watching of television is seen as ‘cultivating’ attitudes, which are more consistent with the world of television programmes than with the everyday world.

1.3.4 A Total viewing pattern of television

The original premise of cultivation theory is that “similarities” among different content types are more important than their differences, what counts most is overall

exposure to and immersion in the world of television. Indeed, it is that global, aggregate, general focus that differentiates cultivation from instant “attitude change” studies.

Signorielli and Morgan (1990) has interestingly pointed out that cultivation is a cultural process relating to coherent frameworks of knowledge, revealed in responses to certain questions, to the total and organically related world of television rather than exposure to individual programmes and selections. Importantly, heavier viewers watch more of the general mix of programming than light viewers regardless of their preferences. Yet the authors noted that for the exceptions of rare viewing patterns, those who watch 3 or more hours of prime time see much of the same mix of basic dramatic ingredients whether they say they prefer comedy, crimes, or news. That is why a measure of total viewing rather than particular favourites or selections is the most efficient for purposes of cultivation analysis.

Even to the extent that viewers feel that they are being selective in favouring or avoiding certain types of programmes, the thematic and dramatic elements making up different types and genres of programmes are often quite similar. Plot varieties seem to be concealed by the basic ‘building blocks’ of the television world, which are thematic structure, interaction patterns, social typing, and fate including success/failure, violence/victimization meted out to the different social types. These elements exposed large communities over long period of time to a coherent structure of conceptions about life and the world. Such investigation is the principal aim of cultivation analysis.

Morgan and Signorielli (1990:20) pointed out that “if it is argued that the messages are stable, that the medium is virtually ubiquitous, and that it is accumulated exposure that counts, and then almost everyone should be affected, regardless of how much they watch”. Even light viewers may watch a substantial amount of television per week and in any case live the same cultural environment as heavy viewers. Besides, what light viewers do not get through television can be acquired indirectly from others who do watch more.

The coherence and stability of the symbolic structure of the television world is not due to the lack of creativity and talent producing it. It is an expression of the

coherence and stability of the commercial and socio-political constraints on the industry. In other words, the broadcasting-advertising industries depend on the profitable marketing of commodities and the existence of enabling and protective legislation. The need to sustain favourable or counter any other form of legislation and pressure, and to serve the largest markets at the least cost in a competitive environment, makes programme production conform to exacting specifications underlying its surface novelty.

Steady repetitive exposure to these structural components tends to cultivate stable images of society and the self. Some of these images may be held in common and some may vary among subgroups of the viewing population. For instance, the relative vulnerability of minority groups as portrayed on television, compared to the relatively powerful portrayal of the dominant groups, may cultivate greater insecurity and dependence among the former. Such socialisation of the power structure stems from the coherent symbolic structure to which most viewers are constantly exposed rather than from any specific programmes, idiosyncratic viewing, or selected habits. Such mainstream system of messages becomes the basic 'medium' of cultivation. It can best be measured by total amounts of exposure to the prevalent interrelated programme mix rather than partial exposure to presumed preferences and selections.

Television mobilizes images, forms, style, and ideas to present ideological positions. By comparing "propaganda" with "hegemony", for example, the sheer differences are that propaganda has the connotation of self-conscious, heavy-handed, intentional and coercive manipulation and thus assumes that its subjects are compliant victims and fall prey by media discourse. On the other hand, hegemony has the connotation that is more appropriate to television of a more subtle process of incorporating individuals into patterns of belief and behaviour, and thus it allows for aberrant readings and individual resistance to media consumption (Hall 1980).

Institutions holding power in the society determine the "dominance social paradigm" (Shanahan *et al* 1997) in mass message system content. In particular, inspiring meanings of portrayals show who has power and who is subjugated. Such meanings are present across all genres of television, which people watch "by the clock" unsystematically regardless of choices of programmes or of genres. What follows is that the more that people watch the screen, the more they consume and will

express this pattern of meanings. This view is not so distant from the ways Mill (1959) understood as mentioned earlier. Reality is perceived and knowledge acquired through moral, cultural and ideological telescope, which is sifted by which the society finds its form and meaning.

Cultivation means that deeply held cultural perspectives and assumptions will not be efficiently nurtured as a result of a single one-shot message exposure, much as an “unwatered or unweeded crop will do poorly” (Shanahan and Morgan 1999). Like advertising that teaches repetition sells, the cultivation metaphor was adopted as providing the simple explanation to convey how researchers felt about its causality. “Influence” could be a way best understood when talking about Gerbner’s cultivation metaphor. Because the more elaborated concept of cultivation was born in a time when over-the-air network broadcasting ruled people’s media behaviour essentially unchallenged, “broadcast” originally meant to sow seeds at random and in that context, as cultivation theorists argued, “cultivation” was seen as the perfect designation to be named as how media shapes social outsets. It is connoting “culture” as such has deep etymological implications concerning the practices by which the basic human need for food can be nourished and sustained by means of livestock and agriculture (Williams 1975).

The implication of “water” metaphors has been common in the cultivation literature. “Mainstream”, “currents”, “flows” and other water-based analogies have been used to suggest the ubiquitous and cumulative influence that cultivation researchers attribute to cultural messages. If cultivation is similar to water, then its substance is stories. Television is often conceived as a kind of cultural river, in which everyone to some extent is carried along. The “sea-change” of television and its role in redirecting the “flows” and “currents” of cultural “tides”, not to mention the notion of the “mainstream”. Television is functioned as the construction and maintenance of cultural meaning, and for the way culture works generally.

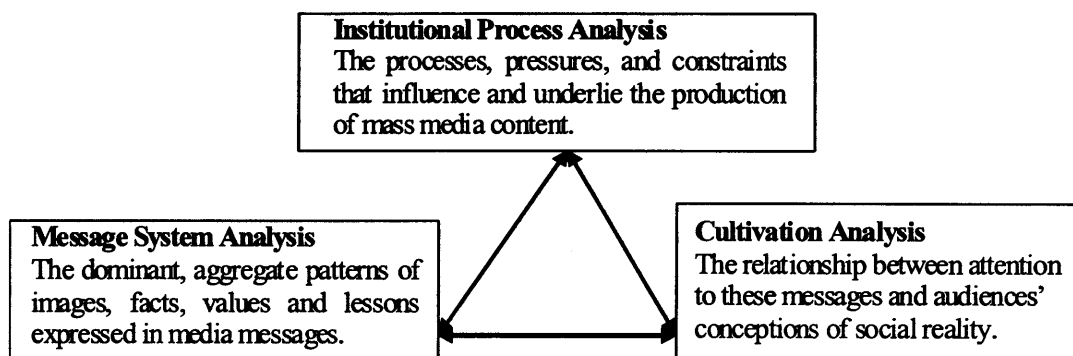
Following cultivation context, television is seen as an increasingly unitizing cultural force. And in any case, Gerbner’s argument about the cohesiveness of television content relates to the overall and cumulative exposure to the total world of television. An individual story or programme is simply “a drop in the ocean”. Despite the fact that cultivation tends to bring together and absorb “public sphere”,

such absorption process is not “persuasion”. Because it does not occur in a specific time interval, nor as a result of exposure to a particular message, Gerbner therefore suggested that the impacts on those who consume messages and stories are not linear, mechanical or hypodermic.

1.4 The Framework of Cultivation Indicator Project

Gerbner’s cultural indicators project was developed as a three-paradigm research framework for investigating the structure, forms, and consequences of pervasive symbol systems, premised on three global, interrelated questions as shown in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 Three-paradigm Research Framework of Gerbner’s Cultivation Indicator Project



As shown in Figure 1.1, Gerbner maintained that the “effects” of communication were not to be found in short-term attitudinal or behavioural change, but in the history and dynamics of the reciprocal relationships between the structure of the institutions which produced media messages, the message systems themselves, and the image structures which were embedded within a culture. Two relevant aspects, which are *Message System Analysis* and *Cultivation Analysis*, are expanded as follows.

1.4.2 Message system analysis

“Message system analysis” is referred to as content analysis (Signorielli and Morgan 1990:19). The method seeks to break communication texts into observable

and recordable units, such as words, themes, characters, items and space-and-time measures (Berelson 1952), and produce findings which are replicable, generalizing and measurable. It relates to a coding system to monitor television portrayals, identify and classify the way different social groups, institutions and behaviours are depicted.

Cultivation theorists use message system analysis not to determine what any individual viewer (or group of viewers) might see, but to assess the most representative, stable, and recurrent aggregate patterns of messages to which total communities are exposed over long periods of time (Gerbner *et al* 1986, Shanahan and Morgan 1999). Although it is highly expensive and time-consuming (Morgan 1990 cited in Signorielli and Morgan 1990:243) to carry out quantitative content analysis, the research has provided a representative sample of data for this analysis. Message system analysis was originally applied to the annual monitoring of samples of primetime, weekend and daytime television output on all three major American TV networks in Gerbner's research.

Gerbner's analysis was limited to dramatic fictional content and excluded newscasts, documentaries, sport and light entertainment such as variety and quiz shows, thus omitting a substantial amount of popular television material. These programmes were analysed when they were shown on prime-time and Saturday morning on US television networks for one week in each year from 1967 to 1986. Not until the 1990s was the analysis extended to include the FOX network, "reality" programs, and various new cable channels. That was part of the Violence Profile, called 'Violence Index'. Much of the Gerbner's coding was concerned principally with the quantification of violence on television. However, this research analysed the drama volume depicted on television. On Gerbner's violence context, Gerbner coded features that combined to produce a Violence Profile. This consisted of two sets of indicators, which were the Violence Index and Risk Ratio.

The Violence Index was a direct measure of the amount of violence in television programmes, expressed in terms of the number of incidents occurring on average per programme or per hour. Message system analysis revealed a particularly violent world of television drama in the United States in which an average of 80% of all prime-time entertainment drama programmes analysed were found to contain some

violence, and in which 60% of major characters were involved in violence. In addition to that, the average rate of violent episodes over all programmes was 7 and a half per hour. In weekend and daytime television fare aimed specifically at children, violent episodes averaged almost 18 per hours. In comparison with violence occurrences across different programme types, it was found that cartoons and feature films generally contained much more violence than made-for-television series or serials. Among television series, action-adventure and crime-detective shows and other serious-theme programmes were found to contain more violent incidents than situation comedies.

The other part of Violence Profile was called 'Risk Ratio'. Risk Ratio concerns a character's chances of involvement in violence in the world of television drama, and, once involved, the likelihood that he or she is on the receiving end. Gerbner and his associates reported with regards to the work on Risk Ratio, in which television drama demonstrates a pattern of different risk levels among characters of different age, sex, social class and ethnic groups. Gerbner and his associates (1979) found that in American prime-time television between 1969 and 1978, there were more victims than aggressors. Within demographic groups, men were less likely than women to be victimized. Risks of victimisation were high among children, adolescents, unmarried women and exclusively high for elderly women. Non-whites were more likely to be victimized than whites. Good male characters were more likely than bad male characters to be victimized although the former were less likely to be killed than the latter because heroic figures in prime time shows were likely to be killer than to be killed. On the other hand, it was found that good female characters were more likely to be killed than bad female characters.

Gerbner compared his TV world data with United States census figures that while 30% of all characters and over 64% of major characters monitored in prime time programming over ten years period were involved as violence doers, victims or both. However, the census figures showed that only one-third of one percent of individual tend to get involved in violence. The other technique being used here, as part of the cultivation theory is 'cultivation analysis.'

1.4.3 Cultivation analysis

“*Cultivation analysis*” is the measurement of social perceptions of members of the public, which were then related to self-reported data about television viewing patterns. Cultivation responses of those who watched television less than two hours or light viewers, were compared to people who watched television more than four hours a day, or heavy viewers. Gerbner’s cultural analysis is a model for comparing real world perceptions of heavy and light viewers of television. An assumption has been made that heavy viewers will exhibit perceptions that are more consistent with the world of TV drama than do light viewers. Gerbner’s evidence obtained via secondary analysis of data from large-scale public opinion surveys that contained questions about TV viewing and social reality.

Audience research by cultivation theorists involves asking large-scale public opinion poll from children, adolescent, and adults to include in their national surveys questions regarding such issues as the amount of violence in everyday life. Answers are interpreted as reflecting either the world of television or that of everyday life. From using this technique, the cultivation group found that people who watch a great deal of television are more likely to exhibit a measurable ‘television bias’ in their perceptions of certain aspects of the real world in conjunction with the ways these aspects are portrayed in popular television output.

Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, and Signorielli (1986) define cultivation as "the independent contributions television viewing makes to viewer conceptions of social reality. The 'cultivation differential' is the margin of difference in conceptions of reality between light and heavy viewers in the same demographic subgroups" (p.23). It was reported by Gerbner and his associates that even when taking into account the effects of demographic factors, heavy viewing, both adults and adolescents, is associated with a television-biased view of the world (Gerbner *et al* 1977, 1978, 1979). The percentage difference between heavy and light viewers is reported as the “Cultivation Differential” (CD). For example, suppose 60 percent of heavy viewers think that they are very likely to be a victim of crime in the next year, while only 30 percent of light viewers think so. In that case, the CD would be “+30” and, all other things being equal, this difference between light and heavy viewers would be seen as supporting the cultivation hypothesis.

1.4.4 First- and second-order measures

Gerbner and his team (1977) compared the answers of heavy and light TV viewers to questions about occurrences of criminal violence and law enforcement agencies in society. **APPENDIX A** shows the four questions posed in Gerbner's study and in each case the 'television answers' is in capitals. Two response alternatives were derived, in which the first one was from 'television answers' and the second one was from 'real world answers'. First-order measures require respondents to make quantitative estimates of occurrences of things. These four questions were presented to two samples of adults and two samples of adolescents and in every case responses indicated a substantial tendency for heavy viewers to estimate the violent occurrence in society by endorsing television answers, compared to light viewers. This association between amount of television viewing and perception of violence remained even after the major demographic variables of sex, age, education and, in the case of one sample of adolescents, IQ has been individually controlled (Gerbner *et al* 1979).

Not only does the finding show that heavy viewers overestimated statistical probabilities of the number of people involved in criminally motivated violence, it also shows that heavy viewers tended to give television-biased estimations on questions concerning the activities of the police. For instance, among one sample of schoolchildren, more heavy viewers than light viewers believed that police often used force and violence at the scene of crime and that police officers who shoot at running people generally hit them. Additionally, among another young sample, Gerbner's group found that heavy viewers inclined to give higher estimates than light viewers of how many times a day a policeman pulls out his gun.

Second-order questions measure more generalised beliefs about the world. Examples are "Do you think people are basically honest?" or "Do you think police should be allowed to use greater force to subdue criminals?" Then, cultivation typically uses survey procedures for examining relationships between exposure to television and reactions to those messages. The survey questions are used to tap into people's conceptions of social reactions are of several types. The questionnaires typically include questions relating to many aspects of social reality as well as measures of television viewing and demographic variables such as age, gender, race,

education, occupation, social class and political orientation. Some of the questions are semi-‘projective’ such as asking respondents to estimate some aspects of reality relative to their own situation. Some use a forced-error format such as, in the context of violence issue, asking respondents to estimate the chances of being involved in a violent situation, where they must either guess too high or too low. Others simply measure beliefs, opinions, attitudes or behaviours.

The substantive survey questions in Gerbner’s analysis, which were posed to respondents did not mention television in any way, if respondents were explicitly thinking about television, it could contaminate their responses by shading their perceptions toward or away from the images of television, and researcher put their data at serious risk. Furthermore, the respondents’ awareness of the source of their information would be seen as irrelevant, because cultivation would be not about what people ‘think about’ television.

Amount of television viewing, according to Gerbner’s cultivation theory, is usually assessed by asking how much time the respondent spends watching on an “average day”. The ideal measures, from the cultivation perspective, provide estimates of the average number of hours the respondent watches TV each day, as opposed to how many shows they watch regularly or what types of shows or channels they like most. Gerbner’s data is reduced to relative viewing categories generally expressed as ‘light’, ‘medium’ and ‘heavy’ viewing, which is made on a sample-by-sample basis, using a three-way split of hours of self-reported daily television viewing in order to justify and maximize the number of respondents at each viewing level.

From a conceptual standpoint of cultivation, what is important is that there are basic differences in viewing levels, not the actual or specific amount of viewing. This cultivation doctrine on the measurement of television viewing has been frequently criticised. For example, Wober and Gunter (1988 cited in Buckingham 1998:136) argued that in establishing causality of attitudes and levels of TV exposure in as elaborate form as cultivation theory, encountered difficulties.

Wober and Gunter pointed out that by dividing people into light and heavy viewers, which was the characteristic of this approach, implicitly assumed that television was all the same and neglect the diversity of material to which viewers

might be exposed. For example, heavy viewers might be exposed more of counter-stereotyped roles, and since these are exceptions of the norm, they might well have more impact upon some viewers (Wober and Gunter cited in Buckingham 1998:136). Shanahan and Morgan (1999); nevertheless, argued that the methods used to assess television viewing are less important than the fact that one can realistically distinguish between relative levels of viewing with few problems. A good example for the assumption is simply that those who say 'four hours a day' do, on balance, watch more than those who say 'two hours a day'.

1.5 The Psychological Mechanisms of Viewers' Incorporated Television Conceptions

This section will examine the ways in which viewers incorporate TV conceptions in terms of the psychological mechanisms of cognitive processes, perceived reality, and narrative paradigm, which support cultivation theory.

1.5.1 Cognitive processes

The basic principle of cultivation theory is that, over time, media messages contribute to audiences' "conception of social reality" (Gerbner *et al* 2002:44). Media content cultivates audiences' perception of reality through the repetition of habitual themes and the use of familiar formats to frame the delivery of messages (Wicks 2001). It follows then that heavy users of media would be more susceptible to its influence and therefore see the world through the lenses or the "images, values, portrayals, and the ideologies" (Gerbner *et al* 2002:47) delivered by the media. Research findings have also been gathered in support of the influence of other media channels on audiences' perceptions, albeit their effects were not as strong as the cultivation effects of television content (Gerbner *et al* 2002).

The mainstream of cultivation research searched for cognitive processing or the "black box" to explain *how* first-order effects occur in order to give a thorough detailed account of the process than Gerbner's concept that "people simply internalize content from a medium with which they spend so much time" (Shanahan and Morgan 1999:173). The "black box" refers to whatever unobservable cognitive processes underlie the absorption and integration of information such as facts, values,

assumptions, images and beliefs from television that results in cultivation (Shanahan and Morgan 1999). The cognitive models were cited from Hawkins and Pingree's learning and construction (Hawkins and Pingree 1980, 1982) and Shrum's heuristic processing (Shrum 2002; Shrum *et al* 2004). These models are discussed over the question whether people actively learn facts from the screen as suggested by Hawkins and Pingree (1982) or just process information while viewing in a much unelaborated manner as noted by Shrum and O'Guinn (1993:466).

Pingree and Hawkins (1981) summarized the importance of cultivation research that "[...] information learned from the mass media is incorporated into individuals' conceptions of social reality and presumably guides further learning and behaviour." Hawkins and Pingree (1980) began to examine the relationship of cultivation "under a variety of social and psychological conditions and attempting to tie cultivation more directly to individual types of television content" (p.201). Their research focused on demographic conditions such as age, viewing habits, and psychological conditions that included cognitive ability and perception of television reality. Their research confirmed Gerbner's argument that television content and message contribute to viewer biases or perceptions (Hawkins and Pingree 1980) and cultivation theory could not be explained away by researched conditions although age and cognitive ability were found to determine cultivation in their analysis.

Hawkins and Pingree (1982) claim in their model of how television contributes to conceptions of social reality "within the heads" of individual that it stems from two steps, delineated as "learning" and "construction." In the learning phrase, viewers acquire many different pieces of incidental information from television portrayal. This specific accumulation of learning is influenced by numerous factors such as attention to television, memory capacity, involvement, and focusing strategies. Then, the construction phrase occurs when various pieces of information come together to inform viewers' beliefs about social world.

Such studies relate cognitive model "black box" to the distinction between "first-order" and "second-order" cultivation measures. That is, cultivation uses two distinct kinds of dependent variables, which are "demographic" and "value system" measures. Demographic measures are defined as two different observations between "the fact" as in official data and "the facts as portrayed on television" as determined

by message system analysis, in short, real-world answers and TV answers. Value system measures, on the other hand, attract to “the more interesting, general aspects of social reality” (Hawkins *et al* 1987:561).

First-order and second-order measures may serve as the methodological divider, while there is hardly any establishment of the conceptual linkage proposing one or the other is either necessary or sufficient for cultivation. Generalised notions about social reality need not be absorbed into *personal* values, aspirations and outlooks. Morgan and Gross (1982) put that although adolescent girls who watch a lot of television are more likely to believe that *women in general* are happiest staying at home and not working, as the value systems conception of social reality about what women are like, this does not in any way limit their own personal aspirations for education and careers. These authors clearly made the point that the arrays of societal-level and personal-level conceptions are multi-dimensional and not necessarily mechanically built upon or linked with each other. Most importantly, Gerbner and his associates have always insisted that viewers’ conscious interpretations or explicit evaluations of television’s messages are irrelevant to cultivation. His point is that if people were aware of the sources of their consciousness, after all, there would be no need for research on the subject.

1.5.2 Perceived reality

With regards to the notion of perceived reality, if television has the power to influence our reality, then it is “primarily responsible for our perceptions of day-to-day norms and reality” (Infante *et al* 1997:383). Shrum (1997) proposed that people rarely consider the sources of their information when making reality judgements. As described by Mares, “Ready accessibility of an example leads to higher estimates of real-world frequencies, hence the correlation between viewing and social reality estimates” (1996:279 cited in Shanahan and Morgan 1999:187). As heavy TV viewers see images more often than light TV viewers, heavy viewers should have TV-derived images more readily accessible, more likely to spring quickly in mind, and thus they will be more likely to come up with TV-influenced responses when a situation requires them to formulate a belief (O’Guinn and Shrum 1997). Shrum’s work deals primarily with first-order cultivation such as estimates of frequency.

Shrum expanded his experiment in 1996 using soap opera programmes to test the perceptions about reality and categorised heavy TV viewers by those who watched TV for more than 5 hours a week and non-soap viewers in total of 45 respondents. From the test, Shrum found that there were enormous relationship between exposure to soaps and beliefs about marital discord, crime and occupations, in which some beta were above .50, according to Shrum. He also found that response latency or speed of response does mediate the cultivation of beliefs by soaps. This suggests that effects on beliefs were found to work through access accessibility generally and specifically.

Heavy viewers have the more readily TV-derived facts and images stored in memory than have light viewers. And on top of that is the respondents do not usually think about the source of their information when making judgements. These findings are closely related to cultivation. Heuristic decisions involved with television are used consistently in thinking about the future, making risk judgements, and simply navigating everyday reality without much conscious attention in details of where the source of their information comes from. Besides, this suggests that television does not change attitudes, and cultivation does not mean attitude change, but it reinforces or supports attitudes.

It is demonstrated that the values, norms and stereotypes disseminated by television mainly by growing up and living in this specific culture so the heavy viewing does not involve any “new learning” but instead offers “the repeated instantiation of some stereotypes by their exemplars” (Hawkins *et al* 1987:575). Television dominates heavy viewers’ consciousness by mechanisms issued by cultivation that is repetition, frequency and recency, which is presumably the concept that is heuristically available for immediate responses. Following Shrum’s findings, cognitive theorists would have argued in a reversed way from cultivation that all the relevant bits are stored along the way, and then reconstructed at various times as stories that have particular meanings. Cultivation would; however, explain that structures, outcomes, lessons and morals of stories will, to a great deal, give sense and relevance to whatever facts occur within those stories and the focus is on the ways in which dominant images work.

1.5.3 Narrative paradigm

“Narrative paradigm”, according to Fisher (1984), describes that human ways of thinking are essentially narrative in nature, not logical or rational as in science and philosophy. Fisher called this narrative “integrity” which explains that people are likely to reach conclusions by rendering the memory of the story used to present the fact, in other words, memory of the outcomes and lessons of the stories rather than that of the facts embedded in the stories. This narrative view is highly consistent with cultivation theory that merely focuses on how people remember facts, but also on how people remember massive number of stories that have been congregated over time.

Cultivation deals with how individuals use stories to make judgement about the world. Just as in real life, television viewing engaging in paying attention to stories to learn about how the world works. Therefore, learning from television is not that much different from learning from other experiences in order to absorb facts, make judgements, and remember things. The stories are seen as the form of communication whose purpose is the assignment and structure of social meaning. For instance, stories structure the viewers’ perception of time by indicating which characters are bad or good and the situation created for each type.

Gerrig (1993) suggests the term “anomalous suspense”, which shows that stories have impacts by virtue of their form rather than their content alone. He distinguishes between two experiences of a story, which are the veridical and the schematic, as he puts it, “veridical expectancies are those a listener builds up by repeated contact with a particular piece of music, and schematic expectancies encode regularities within the overall body of a particular culture’s music” (1993:238). Gerrig means that in music, stories, films or any text, it is the schematic expectancies that dominate our understanding. That is, it is repeated experiences with stories that cumulate effects on beliefs, behaviours, attitudes and so on. Given that television disseminates enormous stories, and these stories permeate the entire culture, television in effects functions as an important component of social reality, not as something separate and apart.

It is worth noting that cultivation analysis most simply attempts to determine the contribution that differential amounts of television viewing make to people’s conceptions of reality. The vital point in cultivation analysis is to investigate

television's contributions to viewers' conceptions without directly asking people about television, people were simply asked about what they thought. Then, the question of whether or not amount of television viewing made a difference in conceptions could be addressed. This major concept of methodological departure in cultivation theory should not be ignored.

The defects of Shrum and his associates' studies is that construct accessibility studies tend to be small-sample, experiment that covered the manifest experiment while some studies included only some type of TV programmes such as soaps and these studies seemed to heavily measure on the strong, short-term effects by selecting only the heaviest viewers and lightest viewers. By saying that, it is worthwhile studying Shrum and his associates' work because it provides meaningful evidence that cultivation can be explained in the deeper psychological level and thus their body findings contain a certain degree of convergent validity.

1.6 Critiques of Cultivation's 'Methodological Problems'

It has been a quarter of a century since George Gerbner and his associates published a series of articles and textbooks on the cultivation hypothesis and his theory was replicated and applied to many other social issues from violence and crime as it originally was. However, the cultivation hypothesis has been heavily criticized. This section will examine what are seen as the cultivation hypothesis's methodological shortcomings.

1.6.1 Paul M. Hirsch

Paul M. Hirsch began his criticism by referring to Wober's study in 1978 that showed "no evidence of a paranoic effect of television viewing on British audiences" (Hirsch 1980:406). Wober (1978 cited in Condry 1989:130) found no British evidence of a link between heavy viewing and insecurity, "What may be true in America is not true in Britain" (Wober 1978: 320). But this may be because there was less violence on British television than in the USA at that time, and Condry (1989) suggested that there might be a critical level of the televisual distortion of social reality before it is reflected in the attitudes of viewers or it may be that Britain has a more diverse media culture. Wober later found a significant relationship

between viewing of U.S. crime drama and fear but not between viewing of British crime drama and fear (Wober 1990).

Hirsch's next criticism embodied the statement that "Extreme viewers are less perturbed than heavy viewers" (1980:408). Hirsch statistically separated the "extreme" viewers with eight or more hours of viewing per day from Gerbner's heavy viewers with only four to seven hours daily viewing. Hirsch also statistically separated the non-viewers from Gerbner's light viewers and performed statistical analyses on the new four sets of viewers.

He found that non-viewers gave the television answer more often than those viewing one to two hours daily, and the extreme viewers gave the television answer less often than those viewing four to seven hours per day" (Hirsch 1980:431). Hirsch's findings cast serious doubt on Gerbner's work since it would be expected that non-viewers would show less cultivation effects than light viewers and that extreme viewers would show more cultivation than the heavy viewers with more moderate habits. Hirsch's re-analysis was found the reverse the original results.

Hirsch also criticized the analysis technique of using single control variables for age, sex, and education. Hirsch argues that multivariate analysis is more rigorous and more appropriate. Application of multivariate analysis techniques on Gerbner's own data leads Hirsch to the conclusion that it is not television viewing hours that gives a person a perception of the world as a mean and scary place, but instead that education, race and age have more to do with it. "The apparent effect of television viewing disappears after controlling for age, sex, education and race simultaneously" (Hirsch 1980:436) particularly "the negative sign in five of the six cases means that television's heaviest viewers provide the television answer in smaller percentages than non viewers" (Hirsch 1980:439). Yet he found that "the separate and independent effect of television viewers to be non-existent" (Hirsch 1980:439).

1.6.2 Michael Hughes

Michael Hughes (1980) stated that Gerbner's analyses omitted essential statistical controls for available variables which might reasonably be expected to produce relationships between television viewing and social perceptions; failed to

control for extraneous variables which may affect the relationship; and should have controlled for extraneous variables simultaneously rather than one at a time. That is, a multivariate model should have been used rather than Gerbner's rather simplistic approach.

Hughes examined the researched demographics of sex, age and income by introducing confounding variables such as hours worked per week, income and church attendance and found TV viewing behaviours disappeared. Hughes added that "some of the more subtle effects might be more apparent only if we knew precisely what people watched and were able to control for predetermined personality and other characteristics which are related to the selection of certain kinds of programmes" (Hughes 1980:300). According to Hughes, certain kind of programmes might produce different effects of TV on its viewers. Hughes felt that television in American society may be related to the diffusion of culture and to alterations in social structure, both of which affect the behaviour of virtually all persons regardless of how much television they watch.

1.6.3 Doob and MacDonald

Doob and MacDonald also argued that careful controls of various extraneous variables could reduce or eliminate cultivation effects. Doob and MacDonald (1979, cited in Condry 1989:130) reported that in the study of the topic of violence, controls for neighbourhood were more reliable than the controls for income used by Gerbner. Their survey was conducted with people who lived in the low- and high- crime areas of Toronto. They argued that the possibility that fear of the environment might be due to the actual incidence of crime in a person's neighbourhood rather than to the frequency of watching television, when the controls for local neighbourhood crime rates were employed. What they found from such linear relationship was that heavy viewers who lived in different areas as low- and high-crime areas have the same perceptions of specific aspects such as fear of crimes.

By Doob and Macdonald's investigation, matters of a less personalised nature such as questions about 'Do you think that it is useful for people to keep firearms in their homes to protect themselves?' 'Should women carry a weapon such as a knife to protect themselves against sexual assault?' or questions relating to an estimation of

the proportion of murders committed by or against minority groups, are affected by television portrayals more than are items concerning a person's own level of fear. Television viewing is not a forerunner of fear of environment changes at all, but is a consequence of it. People who are more afraid may stay indoors and watch more television (Zillman and Wakshlag 1984), possibly sometimes to learn how to cope with crime (Mendelsohn 1983 cited in Wober and Gunter 1988:15), or simply to ease their fears (Boyanowsky 1977).

1.6.4 Hawkins and Pingree

It has been difficult to replicate the findings of U.S. cultivation studies abroad or among foreign audience in the U.S. In Australia, Hawkins and Pingree (1981) found that the so-called "Mean World"-index was associated with the sample's viewing of U.S. programs but not with viewing of non-U.S. programs. Four questions were given to Australian school children in the Hawkins and Pingree study. "In each case those giving the TV-biased answer watched more television (Hawkins and Pingree 1980:203)." They found that there is a decrease in the cultivation relationship for Mean World when controlled by social class. The relationship between television viewing and seeing Australia as a Mean World is partly spurious: Students from the lower-SES area both watch more television and perceive more meanness which represents stringer class system in Australia than in America (Hawkin and Pingree 1980:208).

The Australian viewers tend to form a biased view of their own country as the result of viewing foreign television. Pingree and Hawkins stated that "for these Australian children, it is watching U.S. television shows that relates to television-biased conceptions of reality about Australia" (Pingree and Hawkins 1981:102). Apparently, Australian children were influenced by U.S. crime-adventure programmes in their concepts of social reality for their own country, and to a lesser extent for the U.S. (Pingree and Hawkins 1981:103). The same results are found in the Philippines that American television could also influence the values of Philippine high school students (Tan *et al* 1987:72).

1.6.5 Gunter and Wober

Despite Gerbner's claim that the cultivation effect is the consequence of people's total exposure of television, most studies in the area of cultivation research have looked at people's viewing of specific genres like crime drama (Gunter and Wober 1982) and news (Lowry *et al* 2003). It has been argued that breakdowns by content type are more useful than measures of total TV viewing because viewers are selective, and more specifically "content-based measures would show stronger correlations in cultivation analysis" (Condry 1989:128). Further, different genres - and even different programmes - contribute to the shaping of different realities, but cultivation analysis assumes too much homogeneity in television programmes. One study has looked at how crime coverage on network TV news has affected the viewers' perception of crime (Lowry *et al* 2003).

The underlying assumption is the cultivation notions of homogeneity, which include homogeneity of content and of patterns of viewings. The former one lies in Gerbner and his associates' (1994:9) claim that "the most frequently recurring themes of television cut across all types of programming and are inescapable for the regular viewers...there is no evidence that proliferation of channels has led to substantially greater diversity of content". The later one sheds some light on Gerbner's assertion that "television is watched by the clock", which has been argued from researchers, particularly European ones, in the context of active viewers and uses and gratifications. The method of measuring television in the gross viewing behaviour fashion does not identify that the viewers have actually seen programmes in which sex-role stereotyping is ubiquitous. The influence of television on sex-role attitudes could possibly depend on the particular kinds of portrayals being viewed.

Gunter and Wober (1982) concerned with finding associations between viewers' particular beliefs and particular patterns of programme watching. Respondents were asked not only about perceptions of social roles in real life but also in terms of how these roles were depicted on television. They reported a survey in which diary measures of television viewing were related to questionnaire responses concerning perceptions of women on TV and in real life. Respondents were divided into light, medium, heavy viewers of television in the overall viewing and of each of these programme types. Items were chosen by these researchers to reflect prevalent

characterisations of women on television which had previously been identified by content analysis studies (Lemon 1977; Tuchman 1978; Butler and Paisley 1980). These included women depicted mainly domestic, taking family roles and much often less in professional career-oriented roles, women typically engaged with romance and as dependent on men to help them when in troubles, especially outside the home setting.

Gunter and Wober (1982) used multiple classification analyses to examine links between TV patterns and beliefs while controlling for sex, age, socio-economic class of respondents. They found significant relationships between viewing of serious action-drama programme and perceptions of women both on television and in actuality, but were not found in viewing of other kinds of programme. Women were portrayed on serious action-drama programmes, as they appeared in real life, and what they 'ought to' be in real life in the respondents' opinions, were found to have a strong association with four attributes of "women as interested in jobs and careers", "women as dependent on men to help them out of trouble" and "women as getting on better if they are attractive", with the further perception that "women want to be mother" in real life and that they "should want to be mothers" as an ideal.

Heavy viewers in serious-action drama programming; however, showed rather contradictory perceptions about women, according to Gunter and Wober (1982). For instance, they were more likely to say that women were keen on romantic affairs but they perceived women in every real-life as more career-oriented than did light viewers. On the other hand, light action-drama viewers saw women as less dependent on men when in trouble and less dependent on their own attractiveness in getting on, than did light viewers. Thus, some light action-drama viewers had a stronger stereotypical view than heavy viewers while some other heavy viewers showed more stereotyping. Despite the fact that several studies found that women were often portrayed as preoccupied with romance and as dependent on men, especially outside the home (Seggar and Wheeler 1973; Lemon 1977; Tuchman 1978), Gunter and Wobers' finding did not support the notion that viewers' perceptions would always coincide with the images of television where women were portrayed as wanting to be mothers, more likely to succeed if they were attractive, and depending on men when in trouble.

1.7 Mainstreaming Effects and Resonance

Since Hirsch presented evidence that cast doubt on Gerbner's work in the strongest academic terms, the Annenberg team counter-argued that cultivation analysis has demonstrated *amount* of television viewing to be an important indicator of the strength of its contribution to ways of thinking and acting. For heavy viewers, television is the dominant source of information about the world, overriding all other sources. Two new refinements to the original model were introduced in Gerbner's later surveys to apply to the differences in cultural effects between social groups of light and heavy viewers. Cultivation theorists argued that heavy viewing led viewers (even among high educational/high income groups) to have more homogeneous or convergent opinions than light viewers (who tended to have more heterogeneous or divergent opinions). The cultivation effect of television viewing was one of the 'levelling' or 'homogenizing' opinion.

Mainstreaming reflects a phenomenon whereby heavier viewers from different social groups, who normally hold different views about; for example, crime and violence in society, display more similar views as they are pulled towards the TV mainstream. "*Mainstreaming is referred to the homogenization of people's divergent perceptions of social reality into a convergent view*" (Cohen and Weimann 2000). In other words, differences found in the responses of different groups of viewers, differences that usually are associated with the varied cultural, social, and political characteristics of these groups, are diminished or even absent from the responses of heavy viewers in these same groups. For example, in terms of age differences, young people more readily accept a drug-using culture while older people oppose it, among light viewers these age-related differences will be marked but among heavy viewers such differences will be much less noticeable.

Gerbner *et al* (1980:18) pointed out that 'those groups who in general are *least* likely to hold a television-related attitude are *most* likely to be influenced toward the 'mainstream' television view; and those who are most likely to hold a view *more* extreme than the TV view may be 'coaxed back' to the 'mainstream' position'. Once viewers have learned the 'facts' about the world from the programming they have observed, they then turn outward and compare those perceptions with the ones they experience in the 'real world' on a daily basis.

As successive generations become 'enculturated' into the mainstream of television's version of the world, the former traditional distinctions become blurred. "Cultivation thus implies the steady entrenchment of mainstream orientations in most cases and the systematic but almost imperceptible modification of previous orientations in others; in other words, affirmation for the believers and indoctrination for deviants. That is the process we call mainstreaming" (Gerbner *et al* 1986).

Beside TV's mainstreaming effects, direct experience also plays a role. Gerbner and his colleagues reacted to the study of Doob and MacDonald (1979) by introducing the concept 'resonance'. Gerbner reported evidence for '*resonance*' - a 'double dose' effect, the second significant refinement of the original theory, which may boost cultivation. This is held to occur when the viewer's everyday life experiences are congruent with those depicted in the television world. "*Thus, real world experiences interact with mediated experiences to create an image of the world*" (Cohen and Weimann 2000).

Television-biased beliefs would be most pronounced when aspects of the social environment are congruent and thereby 'resonance' with television drama profiles. Thus, Gerbner argued that television violence amplifies the fear of those who are most likely to be victimized and those who live in high crime areas. A recent study by Shrum and Bischak (2001) found that the estimates of crime risk were significantly higher for those who had a direct experience with crime and were heavy viewers of television than for those who also had direct experience with crime but were lighter viewers of television.

For instance, since on television women are most likely to be victims of crime, women heavy viewers are influenced by the usual heavy viewer mainstreaming effect but are also led to feel especially fearful for themselves as women. The cultivation effect is also argued to be strongest when the viewer's neighbourhood is similar to that shown on television. Crime on television is largely urban, so urban heavy viewers are subject to a double dose, and cultivation theorists argue that violent content 'resonates' more for them. The strongest effects of heavy viewing on attitudes to violence are likely to be amongst those in the high crime areas of cities. If the television message coincides with the real world circumstances, then the alleged consequences of the television message are fortified.

The application of mainstreaming could be seen to remove rigor from the original theory and allowed for varying outcomes regardless of the amount of television viewed. Nevertheless, this new formulation needs to be treated in a more standard statistical procedure to establish scientific definition. It is interesting to learn from Hirsch's further critiques as this could help make the improvement in other future research that follows cultivation analysis. Hirsch proposed three reasons that could be a lack of cultivation in heavy viewers, which are (1) randomness, (2) differential availability, and (3) status inconsistency.

The effects were first argued to be random with a lack of consistency in which cultivation team and Hirsch's findings produced reverse results. Then, regarding differential availability, Hirsch claimed that heavy viewers were based on a self-selection bias. That is, heavy viewers tended to be "disproportionately housewives, sick people, unemployed and with low income" who are available to watch large amounts of television because they are confined to the home much of the time (Hirsch 1981:32). In the intercultural context, immigrants and travellers are taken into account of what they might be frightened of as being away from their host countries. Age also counts, as in America a large proportion of heavy viewers are older residents in a way that TV has been introduced late in their lives and there is a question of trust to this new technology. Therefore, as Hirsch (1981:33) contended, "research indicates that alienation and isolation tend to stimulate heavy media consumption rather than vice versa".

Another claim is 'status inconsistency' and Hirsch suggested "individuals who occupy different social statuses considered mutually incongruous by others experience role strain, status ambivalence, and high anxiety" (Hirsch 1981:33). Therefore, low-status and low-income and low-education people are more likely to be heavy viewers while high-status and high-income and highly-educated people are more likely to be light viewers. In intercultural context, immigrants might be functioning in a lower scale than they were in their native land. This status could change by times and such change can produce alienation and anomie as Hirsch cited. Hirsch's criticism is nevertheless based on an analysis of one data set while the Annenberg team produced four data sets that indicated an overall weight of the evidence that leads them to believe that cultivation analysis and the two refinements

are associated with heavy television viewing. Yet the classification of light, medium and heavy viewers was an intention to split the viewer group into three segments, not to document the most extreme cases and non-viewers are characterised as a “bizarre and inconsistent segment” (Gerbner *et al* 1981:47).

Gerbner gave examples of what he means by being bizarre and inconsistent in non-viewer segment that Jackson-Beeck (1977) cited non-viewers are better educated than heavy viewers and tend to work in higher-level careers and yet they have significantly lower incomes. They were most likely to have higher family income when they were 16 (Tankard and Harris 1980) and although have been raised in a “traditional”, nuclear family they tended to be unmarried and childless and attended religious services less often although they regard themselves as being religious. These allegations, as critics of cultivation theory claimed, might be a too dry the meaning of non-viewers with the fact that they could be people who are not highly educated but simply can not afford to buy television.

The extent to which other scholars have accepted and used Gerbner’s work also argues for the use of the cultivation analysis model, rooted in America and now widespread to many countries including the current research in Thailand. In the researcher’s opinion, George Gerbner’s cultivation theory is an interesting topic to discuss and to research since it is an area of Communication Theory that many people can relate to. Research has explained its rationale for its development from these critics on cultivation theory in the introduction of the thesis and applied the improvement on the analyses of this research.

1.8 Conclusion

Theories of the cultivation process attempt to understand and explain the dynamics of television as the distinctive and dominant cultural force of this electronic age. Cultivation is a rework of traditional media effects as it is the continual, dynamic, and ongoing process; therefore, it is rather an influence than effects. Its significant theme relates to a measurement of total viewing, while mainstreaming effects are supporting viewers in different level of viewing hours, who live in different environment, into the same mainstream. Cultivation mechanism is closely incorporated with TV audiences’ cognitive process, perceived reality and narrative

paradigm studied by Hawkins and Pingree about learning and construction, and Shrum about heuristic processing, which supports cultivation theory's argument through the concept that heavy viewers' gender-stereotyped responses are heuristically available for immediate responses.

However, there are weaknesses in cultivation analysis that will be taken into account in the current research. Cultivation approach is criticised to be random with a lack of consistency where there is reverse evidence of a paranoic effect of television viewing on British audiences while extreme viewers are found less perturbed than heavy viewers. Moreover, multivariate analysis is more rigorous and more appropriate. This will yield a promising result whether the apparent effect of television viewing disappears or not after controlling for age, sex, education and race simultaneously. These extraneous variables could have been controlled simultaneously rather than one at a time. Additionally, breakdowns by content type are argued to be more useful than measures of total viewing, because viewers are selective. The two refinements of mainstreaming effects and resonance are associated with heavy television viewing. Chapter 2 will examine the portrayals of gender roles in studies that have been done before while explaining the cultivation effects that occurred from the analyses on these previous studies.

Chapter 2 : The Portrayals of Gender Roles in Television Dramas and Cultivation Effects in Young Adolescents

2.1. Introduction

Much of the focus of the early cultivation analysis work was placed on media portrayals of crime and violence and their impact upon public perceptions of social reality. The principles demonstrated through these early analyses, however, have been applied to other domains of social experience, which includes the depiction and perception of gender roles. Previous studies attempted to demonstrate how powerful the TV is to reinforce its young audiences' attitudes, values and behaviours by issuing males and females in role appropriateness. This chapter attempts to firstly investigate the extent to which roles of both male and female characters are represented on television dramas. Problems indicated in recent years serve as a starting point for the study presented in this thesis. Firstly, there is a need for studying issues of gender representation and stereotyping in media not only written in English but also in other languages such as Thai, which essentially needs to be studied by people who understand Thai language. Secondly, young Thai audiences have received little or no attention as a research subject for academic purposes. Thirdly, there is a dearth of information, apart from statistics and national surveys, on how TV dramas consume popular culture in general, and how Thai youths interact and respond to TV in particular, even written in English.

This chapter then attempts to investigate the extent to which the gender roles are perceived in young people as being established in a number of studies, which have evidently documented a general relationship between viewing television dramas and cultivation effects in gender-typed social, behavioural or domestic, and occupational roles. It has been known that television can provide an important and powerful source of knowledge of roles and occupations. The belief in cultivation analysis is that heavy TV viewers adopt TV views of the world more than light viewers because of the effect of cumulative exposure to the depictions of gender-related roles. Particular behaviour patterns are associated with gender through learning in cultural context as what is appropriate for males or females. I will also examine other related social issues that are thought to be different social explanations to the effects caused by

television on its young viewers. These include same-sex model preference and individual differences.

2.2 Identifying Gender-Role and Occupation Stereotyping

This research thesis will examine gender-role stereotyping, which consists of the social roles and the occupational roles. All known societies assign certain traits and roles for males and others to females. For instance, aggressiveness, competitiveness, independence, and self-confidence were long considered to be traditional masculine traits while neatness, tactfulness, gentleness, and talkativeness were considered to be traditional feminine traits (Broverman *et al* 1972). In terms of behavioural or domestic role differences, women have historically been cast as homemakers with responsibility for childcare, and men as the providers or breadwinners while such roles are less strongly associated to members of specific sex, they nevertheless still persist.

Sex roles, according to Tuchman (1978:3), are "social guidelines for sex-appropriate appearance, interests, skills, behaviours, and self-perceptions". Durkin describes sex roles as "the collection of behaviours or activities that...society deems more appropriate to members of one sex than...the other sex" (Durkin 1985:9). Sex-role stereotypes then are the "generalised beliefs about what is appropriate to and typical of a particular sex" and the "prejudice associated with sex-role stereotypes is known by the...coinage 'sexism'" (Durkin 1985:11, 13). Traditional masculine roles are defined as those roles typically associated with males including certain professions such as pilot, doctor, lawyer, business manager, executive, athlete and manual worker. Traditional feminine roles include service workers such as waitress, maid, hostess or secretary, teacher, housewife, and mother (Kolbe and Langefeld 1993; Mazella *et al* 1992; Signorielli 1989). Non-stereotypical roles are defined as roles that are not traditionally described as either masculine or feminine such as non-managerial business personnel (excluding bosses and secretaries), interviewers, performers, persons enjoying recreation, merchandise presenters, and grandparents or retired adults.

This research is designed to bring to light gender-role and occupation stereotyping that is portrayed in TV drama content specifically. Meanwhile, there is

also a need to ascertain the cultivation effects of sex-stereotyping in young people. These relate to several questions that social scientists ask: What are TV dramas telling us about ourselves? How women and men should view themselves? What do TV dramas tell early teenage viewers to expect or to hope for when they become adults? Stereotypes on TV present individuals with a more limited range of acceptable appearance, feelings, and behaviours than what individuals could actually do. I will lay emphasis on these issues in the following sections of this chapter.

2.3 The presence of men and women on television drama

Interest in the way men and women are depicted on television has existed since the early days of its establishment as a 'mass' medium in different societies. Initially, this interest is centred on the statistical distribution of men and women in different types of roles and settings. Several studies demonstrated that highly stereotypic gender-role behaviour characterizes television drama programming and across other programme types including children's programmes and advertisements.

On television, particularly in entertainment programmes such as prime-time programming, male role models were found in greater numbers than females, such as only 28% of all major roles were played by women (Tedesco 1974). Such finding was corroborated with many findings from 1950s to 1980s (Head 1954; Smythe 1954; Gerbner 1972; Courtney and Whipple 1974; Turow 1974; Sternglanz and Serbin 1974; Streicher 1974; Miles 1975; O'Kelly and Bloomquist 1976; Cantor 1979; Greenberg *et al* 1982).

The under-representation of women on TV has been asserted as the 'symbolic annihilation of women' (Tuchman 1978), which refers to the way cultural production and media representations ignore, exclude, marginalise or trivialise women and their interests. Symbolic annihilation of women practiced by the mass media serves to confirm that the roles of mother, wife, bride, home-maker are the fate of women in a patriarchal society. Another concept of Tuchman is operational at this point, the 'reflection hypothesis', which suggests that the 'mass media reflect the dominant social values in a society' (Tuchman 1978:7). Some values are also circulated on the media landscape in the global platform beyond boundaries, like the dramas. Television plots symbolically derogate women, so that even when they are portrayed

in leading or serious roles and outside the home, they are attacked, surrounded or rescued by males (Tuchman 1978). Passivity and submissiveness are typical female attributes.

The most far-reaching long-term analysis of television drama content is the one routinely conducted each year on prime-time American network television output by Gerbner and his colleagues. The cumulative analysis starting from 1967 toward 1972, Gerbner reported that women accounted for only one quarter or 1:3 ratio of all leading characters. The more recent report from the same school of cultivation theory, Signorielli (1984) contended that from 1969 to 1981 women were generally outnumbered by men by about the same ratio as mentioned earlier and year-to-year fluctuations in this one quarter figure were relatively marginal.

However, some researchers have argued that in dramas women appear in almost equal numbers to men (Downing 1974; Turner 1974) and are usually more central to the plot than, for example, they are in action-adventure programmes. Kalzman (1972) points out that in daytime dramas men and women are equally presented and there is a trend towards a more balanced representation (Seggar *et al* 1981) while some researchers argue that the male over-representation remain more pronounced in featured-films and crime drama than in comedies and serials (Handerson and Greenberg 1980).

While television generally emerges as characterized by a sheer under-representation of females, the visibility of women on television does seem to vary across programme genres. Gerbner team has produced a table of studies on men and women's representation across different types of prime-time programming, as shown in Table 2.1 (next page).

Table 2.1 Male and Female Characters on American Prime-Time Programming in Two Studies

	1967		1969		1974	
	(%) Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Cartoons	90	10	90	10	---	---
Crime/detective/westerns	86	14	87	13	84	16
Action-adventures	---	---	---	---	71	29
Other dramas	79	21	77	23	---	---
Comedies	73	27	78	22	---	---
Situation comedies	---	---	---	---	56	44
Family drama	---	---	---	---	55	45
Feature films	53	47	59	41	91	9

Sources: Gerbner (1972) and Miller and Reeves (1976)

Data shown in Table 2.1 indicates that men were obviously more numerous overall, but this imbalance was far less articulated in soap operas and situation comedies than in action-adventure programmes such as crime-detection series and Western films. The major action in most soap opera and situation comedies consisted of conversation, the nature of which centered on romance, familiar and other interpersonal relationships, all of which reflected the traditional female stereotypes. Thus, even when women were shown outside the home environment such as at work, their conversations tended to revolve around domestic matters.

2.4 Television and Gender Representation in the Neighbouring Countries of Thailand

The studies about gender representation were rarely done in the neighbouring countries of Thailand, including Lao People's Democratic Republic, Vietnam, and Cambodia. Studies about gender portrayals on TV and its perceptions are found in other Asian countries such as Malaysia, Singapore, Taiwan, and Japan but are bracketed together within the scope of advertisements and marketing rather than in the span of television drama programmes. This could be because Asian countries are heavily affected by the fluctuation of economic, capitalist and globalization. Nevertheless, the findings from these studies are very useful to the study of Thailand

because they show the gender stereotypes in advertisements and TV as well as in real life situations in some of these countries.

2.4.1 Television gender-related attribute and role portrayals

Regarding Lao People's Democratic Republic, there were concerning issues about the programmes that should be implemented in the country to overcome gender stereotypes, the perception of rights, power and leadership which were difficult to entrench. Strong embedded notions validated male leadership and authority in the country such as the notion of men's role as heads of household played a role in the situation as far as land titles were concerned. Laotian men represented the family in society. Laotian women were suppressed both in real life and on TV because of many reasons that are closely related to Lao country's history. For example, the country's report named Committee to Eliminate Discrimination against Women considers reports of Lao People's Democratic Republic referred to the fact that violent behaviour between spouses was "perceived as fairly normal". According to a survey, 53.4% of young people agreed that "it is all right for a man to hit his wife if she makes a mistake" (WOM/1479, 20 January 2005).

There have been a handful studies in Vietnam regarding the portrayal of stereotypes particularly on television. When portraying people in the professions, television often rushes straight to the stereotypes (The New York Times 1989). Joan Furey, a former Army nurse in South Vietnam, in 1969 and 1970, argues that Vietnam's television producers have standard images and characters end up being either superhuman people or rip-roaring flakes. The fact was that there were approximately 10,000 Army, Navy and Air Force nurses, who were both male and female, served in Vietnam, not just female gender who served as nurse, as portrayed on television.

Moving on to the studies in Cambodia about television, a few studies have been carried out regarding the representation of women in Cambodian societies. Although it is widely accepted within Cambodian communities that the media are an extremely powerful and influential tool, the media in Cambodia do not represent women adequately or in a balanced way. The results of the Women's Media Centre three-year monitoring of the portrayal of women in the media in Cambodia from 1996 to

1998 found that Cambodian newspapers and television violate, threaten, oppress and incite further violence and disrespect towards women. Women's Media Centre of Cambodia (WMCC) reported that television oppressed women by restricting them to traditional roles of wife, mother, lover, sex object and entertainment (WMCC 2002).

Furthermore, problems have been observed with much of the media in Cambodia. According to WMCC, one quarter of all print articles about women in Cambodia were pornographic, over 80% of drawings of women were obscene. Women were frequently treated as victims in newspapers. Women were threatened if they did not behave in the way which tradition dictates, and newspapers condoned domestic violence. As a result, the media in this country oppressed and enforced a stereotype of women that they are objects for entertainment and decoration for the house. This statement is supported by an opinion poll conducted by WMCC in December 1997 showed that 80% of respondents considered pornography in the newspapers to be a problem. The media did not reflect the reality that women had been contributing strongly to the development of the country in all fields.

WMCC referred to another study, in September 2000 on the 'Attitudes to Media Coverage of Women and Social Issues' by IMIC, which found that 57% of the population owns or has access to a television set, and rural areas are the places where literacy rates and television ownership are lowest. Following the dictatorship power structure in the Cambodian government, television stations or other media refused to broadcast programmes on any topics which might be seen as controversial politically. This demonstrates the media's fear and concern for their security.

Men portrayed in higher and better roles and positions than women, on TV in Cambodia. There are no female editors-in-chief for any of the male-dominated occupations in newspapers or television stations in the country. The Women's Media Centre is the exception, for obvious reasons, and it plays an important role in shaping the identity of Cambodian female journalists. The Forum Syd and SIDA (Swedish International Development Cooperation agency) study in 2000 stated that:

“[...] Few women are attracted to the media due to women’s role in Cambodian society. At the University a number of students claimed it was difficult for women students to follow the curriculum, which requires field trips to the provinces... it is seen as improper said one male student... Some claimed that women don’t have the right coverage to do the job. The female journalists interviewed refuted this and claimed that they were prepared to fight tradition” (Sarayeth 2002, paper presented at WACC).

At the Journalists Faculty of the Royal University of Phnom Penh, the dropout rate for women is much higher than for men. Some believe this is due to the fact that women students, in general, work more than the men do outside their formal studies and that families sometimes refuse to let female students join in field trips outside of Phnom Penh. In a country such as Cambodia, media reform can be a long and difficult struggle. There are many misconceptions and attitudes that are hard to change.

In Malaysia, a number of empirical studies of the media and their effects were mainly focused rather on commercials than TV programmes. Noor (1999) described major changes that have occurred in family and occupational roles of women in TV commercials. Here, women are still found typically being portrayed as homebound, dependent and subordinate to males, emotionally helpless and selling commodities using sexuality, whereas men are depicted as rational, independent, and work-oriented. Kaur (1993) identified that one indicator that help with the changing of women status in Malaysia is their inclusion in media planning and production.

Chow-Hou Wee, Mei-Lan Choong and Siok-Kuan Tambyah (1995) studied television commercials across Singapore and Malaysia. These authors aimed to determine empirically each country’s treatment of male and female roles in television advertising and to see whether such advertising gave an accurate representation of each country’s demographic characteristics. They videotaped commercials from SBC 5 (Singapore), RTM 1 and TV 3 (Malaysia) and then examined television advertising on three channels. SBC 5 is from Singapore and, as such, is targeted at Singaporeans. While RTM 1 and TV 3 are both Malaysian channels, the former is targeted at the Malaysians, while the latter has a mixed audience of Malaysians and Singaporeans.

They found that women were significantly more likely to appear as young as less than 35 years old than men (p value = $< .001$). They also examined the way family life and marriages were portrayed in commercials. Married men were over-represented while married women were under-represented. For all three TV channels, older males were over-represented. All three channels were found to portray women overwhelmingly as housewives. Women were depicted mostly in roles that were relative to others, chief of which was the mother. Men were much more likely to be cast as independent persons. When portrayed in roles that were relative to others, the man was most likely to be a friend of a girl or other people on all channels. The characters were viewed as sex objects if they were only partially clothed or served no function in the commercial except as decoration.

A third facet examined here was the depiction of employment and occupational roles in TV advert. On RTM 1 and TV 3, women were consistently less likely to appear as employed than men. Culturally, the authors suggested that this could be a reflection of the traditional Islamic role of women who stayed at home for the family. Male characters were consistently employed in advertisements on all three channels. Men were more likely to be portrayed in management positions than women. Only three women on SBC 5 and one on TV 3 were seen as top executives. Employment status of characters on all channels was not representative of the actual population of Malaysia and Singapore. The majority of men featured, which was above 78%, were employed. The portrayal of women's employment status on TV 3 differed from RTM 1 because its portrayal was a compromise between the cultures of Singapore and Malaysia as TV 3 catered for both audiences.

The percentage distributions of the different categories on all the channels did not reflect those of actual population figures. All channels over-represented the category of mid-management for men. Men in service-oriented industries and blue-collar jobs were under-represented or not at all. The actual percentages of women in mid-management positions were very low in both Singapore and Malaysia. The percentages found in the advertisements were correspondingly low. This could be due to the fact that Asian society is basically patriarchal. Therefore, women who are high achievers are the exception rather than the norm. Women in service-oriented

industries were adequately or over-represented while blue-collar workers tended to be under-represented or not at all.

The nature of gender stereotypes portrayed on TV in Singapore in comparison to Malaysia seems to be based on the fact that these two countries are culturally different. The depiction of men and women in advertising is influenced by, among many factors, the culture of the country and the target audience. RTM 1 reflected the conservative nature of Malaysian society where Islam is the dominant religion. The man on RTM 1 had the “macho” image of a top executive who does exciting work in an independent role while the woman was frequently a young housewife who stayed at home to mind the house and the children. And channel SBC 5 mirrored the cosmopolitan Singaporean society, which stresses excellence and meritocracy.

The number of males typically portrayed in mid-management positions was exaggerated. Although more women were found employed outside the home, they were mainly found in white-collar and service occupations. The female stereotype was more modern as she was an attractive young woman who was concerned with looking beautiful. Although TV 3 was a Malaysian channel, the stereotypes presented were different from RTM 1. Its depiction of the sexes was a compromise between the more conservative culture of Malaysia and the more contemporary outlook of Singapore. The women on TV 3 were most likely to be concerned with beautifying themselves; hence they were most frequently found to be promoting personal and beauty care products. While the men were typically portrayed as independent, the women were mostly seen in relation to others.

In terms of gender portrayals in advertisements, progressive and secular societies like Australia and Sweden have a more balanced and non-traditional representation of women. The USA and Singapore adopt a middle ground. Despite the effects of a Westernized culture, the major ethnic groups of Singapore still value their traditional and religious beliefs. At the other end of the spectrum are societies steeped in religious values like Mexico (Catholicism) and Malaysia (Islam) that opt for a more traditional portrayal of women in the advertising media.

Chow-Hou Wee, Mei-Lan Choong and Siok-Kuan Tambyah (1995) suggested that for the advertisers to break away from stereotypes and improve their marketing

communications, which is presumably useful for the TV broadcasters and producers as well, they could make use of dual roles, role switching and role blending. "Dual roles" in advertising means portraying women in roles, which are in addition to a more traditional role in the home; for instance, mother/professional or wife/manager. "Role switching" may portray some purchase or use of the product by persons of the sex opposite to that of the traditional stereotype; for instance, a man cooking or doing laundry, a woman changing a defective light bulb. "Role blending" obscures the sexually stereotypic purchase or uses roles with scenes in which no sex dominates such as men and women shopping or joint decision activity. This "Three-legged" strategy is hopefully functional for TV producers as well as advertisers.

2.4.2 Cultivation effects on young viewers' gender-related attribute and role perception

Numerous studies provide evidence that gender roles are undergoing transformation in Japan. Buck, Newton, and Muramatsu (1984) found that Japanese females believe that women should be less subservient and more independent. Katsurada and Sugihara (1999) found that younger, educated Japanese males are also beginning to think differently about their own gender roles. With regards to advertisements, Suzuki (1995) and Sengupta (1995) concluded that commercials in Japan continue to endorse expected gender roles and division of labor.

In a study of Japanese students, Kashiwagi (1974) found that masculine characteristics associated with the factor that could be referred to "intelligence" and "activeness," are perceived as socially desirable for men. On the other hand, feminine characteristics associated with the factor that suggested "submissiveness with elegance," are judged as socially desirable for women. The study on validation of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRO) in Japanese culture also reveals that all of the masculine items and most of the feminine items of the BSRI are endorsed by Japanese university students as the characteristics desired for the designated gender (Katsurada and Sugihara, 1999). These Japanese studies suggest that the gender role perception in the current Japanese society is similar to that in the United States 20 years ago. Although gender stereotypes vary along with cultural changes (Basow, 1992), other Japanese studies (Kashiwagi 1974) suggest that traditional gender-role perceptions still exist cross-culturally despite recent societal changes in Japan.

Crittenden (1991) and Lu (1995) described how educated young Taiwanese women have experienced role conflict because their need to achieve is still regarded as a masculine value. With regards to commercials, Zandpour, Chang, and Catalano (1992:36) found that commercials in Taiwan “generally link the product to the consumer’s traditional Chinese values such as respect for authority and family relations”. Cultural differences could perhaps be best explained to the stereotypes portrayed on TV. In this sense, mediated TV programmes and commercials in Taiwan reinforce and fortify what is already there and presented in Taiwanese societies.

In neighbouring countries of Thailand such as Cambodia and Lao, gender-related roles were related to the past histories and thus media were assumed to portray roles reflecting men and women in the actual society. Some research contended that television primarily reflected existing social norms and values and that changes in these values and norms led to changes in television (Rakow 1986; Soley and Reid 1988). Nonetheless, some research indicated that sex role presentations affected the perceptions of and attitudes towards women in societies (Schwarz and Kurz 1989; Tan 1979). A different approach deals with the interaction between social change and TV. Robinson (1983); for instance, argued that TV did not passively mirror norms and values, but that it actively constructed and reconstructed reality.

2.5 Television and Gender Representation in the West

Despite the fact that less has been done in the East, much more work has been carried out in the West concerning the portrayals of gender attributes and roles, and the studies of the perceptions of these roles among young television viewers. These are explained as below.

2.5.1 Television gender-related attribute and role portrayals

In the early cultural indicators research focused on portrayals of violence, it was found that whenever women on television were involved in violence, they were more likely than men to be the victim than the aggressor (Gerbner 1972; Gerbner and Gross 1976; Gerbner *et al* 1977). Males are most likely to initiate violence while females are most likely to be victims and are less likely to get away with violence when they

do demonstrate it. Bakan (1966) also studied that in most forms of aggression tests, men scored higher than women while Pollack and Gilligan (1983), Benton and his associates (1983) and Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) studied that violence features more prominently in the fantasy and real lives of males than females. Men were found displayed more physical and verbal aggression (Sears *et al* 1965).

A traditional expectation of women portrayed in present society's television, in the west and the east, is that they should be physically attractive. In terms of appearance of characters in primetime programmes, females look younger than males. Television also influences adolescents' perceptions of successful persons should look like. Signorielli (1998) found that television portrayed women to be younger, more attractive, more nurturing, more concerned with romance, and more likely to be victimised than males. There is no doubt that physical appearance is considered important in initial judgements made of men and women. Nevertheless, a much greater emphasis tends to be placed on a woman's attractiveness rather than men's (Frieze *et al* 1978).

Tedesco (1974) reported that marital status could be identified and coded for 51% of female characters but for only 32% of male characters. Studies of television drama content have indicated that not only are female characters portrayed in domestic settings but also they seem to be much more centred on family and personal matters than are men both *outside* the home as well as in. Not only do female characters appear as very attractive, they are also portrayed as very concerned with the way they looked (Long and Simon 1974). Although females are thought to be especially vulnerable to such media messages, males may be affected as well.

Generally, women tend to be depicted as more attractive, happier, warmer, more sociable, fairer, more peaceful and more useful while males tend to be represented to as smarter, more rational, more powerful, more stable, and more tolerant (Gerbner 1972; Tedesco 1974). Women only talk to the population in the inferior status (Lovdal 1989). Women in television are portrayed closely associated with 'home and hearth' than in others. Women are portrayed as powerless or helpless (Sarbin and Scheibe 1983) where this power is referred to as power of approval or reward and thus women seeking for expert power and expertise.

Also, males are supposed to have a higher level of achievement orientation, which involves the drive to accomplish external goals, to achieve success, being assertive, independent and self-centred (Anastasi 1961; Bakan 1966; McClelland 1975; Maccoby and Jacklin 1974). On the other hand, females are closely attached with affiliation orientation where females concern for other people's feelings, seeking approval from others, creating nurturing relationships with others and maintaining interpersonal harmony.

Much of television dramas are the sex-role portrayals suggesting that marriage and parenthood are of greater significance to a woman's than to a man's life. Cantor and Pingree (1985:3) stated that, "Love, duty, family, and intimate relations are at the core of the soap opera world". The personal or familiar orientation of women's relationships on television is evident in the case of soap operas and situation comedies whose settings are predominantly domestic. In addition to their higher visibility, females in soap operas often hold respected positions in the family and immediate social environment (Downing 1974; McNeil 1975; Katzman 1972) and that men are depicted outside the home (Tedesco 1974).

Nevertheless, some researchers argue that the images of ongoing personal relationships presented by the daytime serial may be less than positive. Goldsen (1975) argued that "soap opera people live in a world of fly-apart marriages such as throwaway husbands, throwaway wives and recently throwaway lovers," a world which "do[es] violence to images of family commitment" (p.49). Studies of drama content reveal a world in which characters are many times more likely than "everyday people" to be involved in divorce, affairs, illegitimacy, and criminal activity (Cassata and Skill 1983). Whatever intentions motivate these involvements, one conclusion is that relationships are precarious.

Goethals noted "Because of the daily dramatization the shows can encompass not just one but a number of interrelated families. This leads to a complicated interweaving of births, marriages, sicknesses, divorces, lawsuits, infidelities, and reconciliations" (Goethals 1983 cited in Cassata and Skill 1983:99).

Goldsen (cited in Cantor 1979:71) found "eight divorces, two bigamous marriages, four separations, six divorces being planned, and 21 couples living or

sleeping together out of wedlock. Two women has more than one bed partner...” Similarly, Katzman (1972) reported from her one-week study that the major problems in soap operas, or dramas, are infidelity in marriage, other family difficulties, job-related problems, and physical disability.

While those relationship portrayals are unique to the daytime serial, primetime programmes tend to feature more action-oriented and soap operas concentrate on conversation and the management of interpersonal relationships. Evening programmes are fast-paced while daytime serials allow time for relationships to develop and change.

Turow (1974) analysed the power and competence among males and females in television drama by studying patterns of advice-giving and receiving, and order-giving and receiving between the sexes in a sample of 12 hours in daytime and 12 hours in prime time programming, consisting of soap operas and other drama types. Turow found that 70% of all episodes of advice or order giving, men were giving advice. It is apparent that in the world of television drama, characters are apparently selected, occupations assigned and plots developed in the way to minimise the chances of women displaying superior knowledge or abilities to men. In addition to that, even when females were given such opportunities, ‘men are doctors, women nurses; men are lawyers, women, secretaries; men work in corporations, women tend boutiques’ (Turow 1974 cited in Tuchman 1978:13). The advice or order-giving tended to be concerned with traditional female topics. Television depicted women as incompetent, particularly when they appear in anything other than marital and family roles.

Henderson, Greenberg, and Atkin (1980) described differences in the ways male and female characters gave orders, made plans, and requested support from others. They reported that men issued more orders and that those orders were more likely to be followed than orders issued by women, which would support a cultural stereotype that men are more powerful than women. Similarly, male characters tended to make plans for both sexes, also suggesting a power dimension. Males tended to request physical assistance in situations such as when in physical danger or when suffering from a life-threatening illness, while females requested a disproportionate amount of

emotional assistance. Henderson's study is supported by later findings (Greenberg *et al* 1980).

Women are more likely to be depicted as being married or "about to be married". Also, females are most likely to be cast in a leading role when some family or romantic interests are centrally involved in the plot (Gerbner 1972; Tedesco 1974). The status of married women observed in children and family shows assessed by Long and Simon (1974) was one of the deference and dependency on their husbands. Women were no more likely to be portrayed in authority at home than at work. This was so even though married women were shown as attractive and youthful while their partners tended quite often to look old and devitalised (Busby 1975).

For the past three decades, a number of studies have supported the idea that males are represented as occupying a disproportionately high percentage of the work force, a greater diversity of occupations, and higher status jobs. On the other hand, females are rarely depicted as working outside the home and are likely to occupy a position of subservience or low responsibility when they are employed (Defluer 1963; Dominick and Rauch 1971; Gerbner 1972; Seggar and Wheeler 1973; Streicher 1974; Tedesco 1974; Morgan and Rothschild 1983). Women portrayed in the media were neither flattering nor representative of the female workforce, and were shown as gaining substantial ground on their male counterparts with attempts to break out of the negative stereotypical mould (Verna 1975:301).

Sex typing of behaviour or personal characteristics during prime-time television has usually been found that males are more likely to be cast in serious roles while females are more likely to be cast in comic or light roles (Tuchman 1978). Courtney and Whipple (1974) reported a longitudinal and comparative analysis on the portrayal of women in TV advertisements between April 1971 and February 1973 that women were shown mainly as housewives and mothers, while men were shown in at least twice as many occupations. Brettl and Cantor (1988) showed that men tended to be depicted in higher status occupations and women significantly more likely to be depicted without an occupation. Gilly (1988) argued that men were more likely to be portrayed in independent roles in relations to women. Women were cast in stereotyped roles including wife, mother, bride, waitress, actress, dancer, and in a rare

number of professional roles such as photographer, athlete, dentist and businesswoman.

The personal and familiar relationships have been very obvious in such programmes as dramas whose settings are predominantly domestic. In dramas, many research findings indicated that women appeared in equal proportion to men and were usually more central to the plot in these programmes than in action-adventure programmes as indicated earlier in this chapter. Females in dramas often hold respected positions in the family and immediate social environment (Downing 1974). However, Downing's further analysis of 300 episodes from 15 television serials revealed a persistency of women focusing on their physical appearance and marital relationships while the world of work was still largely the preserve of males.

The major action in most dramas consists of conversations, romance, familial and other interpersonal relationships and problems with those relationships as central themes, once more reflecting the traditional females stereotypes (Katzman 1972). Therefore, in certain types of programmes, even when women are portrayed outside the home environment, such as at work, their conversations tend to revolve around domestic matters.

Other studies reinforce the claim that portrayals of roles women have are stereotyped. In an investigation of behaviours portrayed by both genders on television, Henderson and Greenberg (1980) found differences in behaviours exhibited by males and females. Men tended to drive more, participate in sports, use firearms, conduct business on the phone, and drink and smoke more than did women. Women were more frequently portrayed entertaining others by singing or playing a musical instrument, preparing and serving food, and performing housework particularly by indoor settings.

Similarly, McNeil (1975) reported that personal relationship associated with family difficulties or romantic involvements accounted for 74% of female interactions on television but only 18% of male interactions. Professional or work-oriented interactions comprised of 35% of men's relationships but only 15% of women's. Nearly three-quarters of the men were gainfully employed while fewer than half of

the females had jobs. In addition to that, females were generally depicted as working under close supervision and in jobs with far less responsibility and prestige than men.

Turow's (1974) research on power and competence, which was mentioned earlier in this chapter, has been replicated by Lemon (1977). Lemon asserted that one of the key defining characteristics of power and competence was occupational status, in which men were portrayed more often than women in high-prestige occupations. Professional life takes over family life in dramas, with the medical and legal professions being particularly over-represented. Most problems in dramas are not social ones such as poverty and inequality, because virtually all of the people and problems portrayed are of the middle class. Problems in dramas can be corrected by surgery or a visit to a psychiatrist or lawyer.

Nevertheless, some studies found the opposite result from that. Pfau for example, conducted content analyses of the representation of attorneys in network prime time programming and ran a survey among attorneys themselves and another amongst ordinary viewers (Pfau *et al* 1995). Content-specific viewing was a more powerful predictor than total television viewing on perceptions of five items. Pfau claims that heavy viewers, who obviously viewed more aggregate television, perceived attorneys as embodying less character and composure, which is the exact opposite of the way they are depicted in prime-time television.

One might have expected that the more people viewed, the more accurate their perception of what they saw on television would have been. Yet, from some studies previously mentioned, it gives a mixed picture of TV's effects on gender roles. One of the crucial reasons could be that TV diet of heavy viewers is often a mix of very different formats and programmes that form together a sort of cluster (Weimann *et al* 1992). Although some study presented here might run counter to cultivation theory, other evidence supports the 'cultivation theory' which argues that heavy viewers of television perceive the world they see portrayed on the screen to be the world in real life. Young teenage viewers will, nevertheless, be observing the biased representations on television and assimilating them as the norm, and could possibly be developing a stereotypic attitude and outlook to life and the society in which they live.

2.5.2 Cultivation effects on young viewers' gender-related attribute and role perception

This section will examine previous studies of cultivation effects on young viewers' perception of gender-related traits, roles and behaviours.

Young teens while watching TV dramas everyday may have a lack of personal experience, which can lead them to accept serial portrayals as reality. Following the work of Gerbner and colleagues (Franzblau *et al* 1977) on the construction of social reality, it is reasonable to assume that heavy viewers of daytime and primetime serials would exaggerate the prevalence of drama's "problem" in the real world. Just as Gerbner and his associates contended that heavy exposure to the predominantly violence fare of prime-time television could result in greater perceived incidence of "real world" violence, it could be assumed that heavy exposure to any systematically distorted view of the world would result in similarly distorted perceptions of viewers. In addition to that, Greenberg, Neuendorf, Buerkel-Rothfuss and Henderson (1982) argued that research needed to focus on the young viewers who were "less experienced in these problem situations, [...] but developing strong interests" (p.534).

McGhee and Frueh (1980) investigated the association between amount of American TV drama viewing and young persons' knowledge of adult sex-role stereotypes. Their samples include males and females in grades 1, 3, 5 and 7 who watched TV for 25 or more hours per week and were thus classified as heavy viewers or those who watched TV for 10 or less hours per week and were thus classified as light viewers. All participating children were White and were recruited from four elementary schools in a predominantly middle-class suburb of St. Louis, USA. These viewers were administered the Sex Stereotype Measure. It was used to determine children's level of awareness of sex stereotypes of psychological characteristics. This measurement consisted of 24 two to three sentenced stories about hypothetical person.

Male characteristics, according to Sex Stereotype Measure used in McGhee and Frueh's (1980) study, were based on the following adjectives, which were aggressive, assertive, tough or forceful, confident or self-confident, disorderly, ambitious or enterprising, adventurous, daring or courageous, independent, logical, rational or realistic, boastful, coarse, dominant or autocratic, loud, strong or robust. Female

stereotypes were tapped on the following adjectives, which were gentle, dreamy, emotional, excitable or high-strung, fickle or rattle-brained, talkative, frivolous, fussy or nagging, whiny or complaining, soft-hearted, sentimental or sensitive, appreciative, sophisticated or affected, meek or mild. One point could be given for one selection of either male or female stereotyped items. The score is counted separately which yields a separate index of awareness of stereotypes associated with each sex.

Frueh and McGhee (1975) found that heavy TV viewers have more stereotyped perceptions than light TV viewers. Heavy television watchers made more frequent stereotypes choices than light watchers on the male items, $F(1, 48)=22.7, p<.001$, the female items, $F(1, 48)=61.9, p<.001$, and on items combined, $F(1, 48)=96.8, p<.001$. Thus, heavy TV viewers were significantly more likely than light TV viewers to attribute to each sex the psychological characteristics typically associated with males and females by adults. Thus, a significant interaction effect indicated that among low viewers the perception of male stereotypes steadily declines with increasing age while among heavy viewers stereotypic responses to male items are maintained with increasing age. No comparable interaction effect was obtained for perceptions of female stereotypes. While McGhee's study was based on correlational data, Bandura's demonstrated significance of observational learning (Bandura 1969; Mischel 1966) combined with the high amount of children's exposure to this learning source suggest that television viewing is likely to have contributed importantly to young people's learning of sex-role stereotypes.

McGhee's study suggested that children who are light TV viewers more readily learn as they get older that so-called masculine traits or characteristics may actually be associated with either sex. Since heavy viewers probably see these masculine characteristics depicted regularly on their television screen, their sex-stereotypic perceptions are maintained, and even strengthened, through the fifth grade. Interestingly, males were already very highly gender-stereotyped across all the grade levels. On the other hand, females who were heavy viewers were least stereotyped in their perceptions of roles in grade 1, but they became more gender-stereotyped as they got older and pursued highly gender-stereotyped perceptions as they entered grade 7.

Williams and his associates (1975) argued that the characteristics composing the list of male stereotypes may be more concrete and have more obvious behavioural

referents than the female characteristics; for instance, aggressive and loud versus gentle, dreamy and sophisticated. Williams and his associates noted further that stereotypic sex-role expectations for adults and children might be more consistent for males than for females. Nevertheless, it is not yet clear whether these two factors fully account for the lack of a cumulative effect on the learning of female stereotypes with increasing age among heavy TV viewers.

Kimball (1977) and Tannis McBeth Williams (1986) carried out Canadian studies in the same team, reporting a real-life 'field' experiment. During that decade television was not available in all locations in the world and thus Kimball focused on the sex role attitudes of the number of children who lived in a Canadian community where they had no television reception shortly before television was introduced to the community. Three towns in Canada, labelled as Notel, Unitel and Multitel, were analysed. Notel was a small community that had no TV reception at the start of Kimball's study, but acquired it part of the way through. Meanwhile Unitel was with reception of just one TV channel, which expanded to four by the end of Kimball's study, and Multitel received four TV channels from the start. Kimball and her associates reported that children in a community where there already was television were more sex stereotyped than the children in the community who had no television reception. She also found that those who had been introduced to television were, two years later, significantly more stereotyped in their attitudes towards the sexes than they had been before. Before Notel acquired television there were no differences between boys and girls in their attitudes toward their peers. After Notel had television, boys developed more stereotypical attitudes than was found amongst girls. In real life, therefore, the kind of television introduced in a small Canadian town appears to have forfeited traditional expectations of how boys should behave.

Previously studies such as Buerkel-Rothfuss and Mayes (1981) and Dominick (1990) also reported a significant relationship between college students' viewing of serial dramas and the tendency to distort perceptions about several gender role-related variables in the "real-world" such as the proportion of men who have had affairs and the proportion of women who have had abortions. Buerkel-Rothfuss and Mayes (1981) tested 290 college students and found that soap viewers estimated more occurrences of divorce, illegitimate children, and abortions than did non-viewers.

However, estimates of the number of affairs by males and females and the number of people happily married were not significantly different between viewers and non-viewers. Additionally, there is a positive relationship between viewing television and feeling doubt that marriages in real life situations are the unhappy ones (Signorielli 1991).

The other area of concern linked to gender-role stereotyping on television is with respect to employment (Downing 1974; Tedesco 1974; Butler and Paisley 1980). Television is still regarded by young people as a source of occupational information, it evidently presents a "distorted and stereotypic picture of occupational choice for women" (Van Evra 1990:118) and "strongly influence what opportunities children see for future work and what sense of self respect and pride they have" (Van Evra 1990:112). Without a doubt, "children do derive significant occupational information from television" (Defleur and Defleur 1967 cited in Van Evra 1990:118). This indicates how important television is in determining the choices that young adolescents make about their future.

Morgan's (1990) findings support the view that television inculcates the certain sex-related occupational views, although the effects are limited to girls. For girls, there existed a relationship between the amount of television watched and their subsequent educational aspirations. The girls who watched more television were the ones who, after the two-year period, set their occupational aims higher. This could mean that, according to Morgan, the heavy viewers, seeing the rather limited roles of women, are more encouraged to want better for themselves. However, Gunter (1995) argues that television sometimes over-represents professional women, which could perhaps also be an influencing factor in explaining this occurrence. Among boys, on the other hand, existing sexism prefigured greater viewing at a later date, although television had no apparent long-term effects on sex-role attitudes.

In a sample of teenagers between the age of thirteen and fifteen, Gunter found that 89%-97% mentioned television as a source of information with regard to six given occupations (Gunter 1995: 80). Gunter (1995) cites research, which was based upon children's aspirations for occupations when they become adults. He notes that boys tended to present occupations, which are seen to be traditionally male such as the police, army and so on. This was also the case for girls. It was found that while

the occupations suggested by both sexes were different, they both had a tendency to stereotype occupations.

Some research points out that although young TV viewers actively process the information from television, their cognitive demanding seems to open up for learning, consistent with Hawkins and Pingree's learning and construction (1981, 1982), rather than refusing the television stereotypical messages. Moreover, it is often argued that cultivation may be enhanced when the viewer interprets the content of programmes to be realistic. Lyn Harte (1996) studies early attitudes of chauvinism and their possible connections with television upon his eight-year-old son, Jack.

The reply to the question of 'Who is more likely to be Male or Female?' ranged with the choices of activities for either male or female to uncover whether the respondent's basic sex role beliefs were ascertained by 'real world' experiences or from elsewhere, presumably television. Harte found with few exceptions that Jack was imposing stereotypical attitudes onto basic realities that confronted him daily. Many of his answers seemed to be drawn upon influences derived from other sources, and when Harte asked to explain these answers Jack consistently referred to television portrayals instead of his personal experiences.

With the second question of 'Who is best for the job, male or female?' Harte found that unlike the previous question the respondent had no frame of domestic reference, the answers could only signify what the viewer believed to be true, being derived from his own personal references, chosen sources, which could possibly be TV. The other questions were 'What would you like to be when you grow up?' and why? 'If you were a girl what do you think you would like to do when you grew up?' and why? Regarding the viewer's choices of future careers for boys and girls, gendered differences were shown apparent. Whereas the male alternatives could be regarded as 'power' positions of authority, responsibility and risk, the female alternatives seem, in comparison, at some extent, being 'saved' and 'subordinate' by these powers. For instance, as the male doctor 'saves lives' the female nurse merely 'helps people get better'. The viewer also seemed to underline his misconceptions of the female 'other'. Females were all too often seen as nurses or secretaries.

Television offered a complex array of messages that all were free to interpret as the viewer wishes. The messages were not unidirectional. The viewer understood and actively participated in mediating the messages they received. Active interpretations, particularly in youths, might arguably only work with the 'tools' that adults offered. One such 'tool' was a further expansion of gender identity, via the content and representation of the media, particularly television. Harte suggested that it was the enjoyment aspect of the programme, which was perhaps the most important factor, especially when that programmes were aimed at the 'Saturday tea-time audience,' that led the cognitive function to learning and absorbing information more than anything else. As Jack used different experiences, TV's *The New Adventures of Superman* programme, to actively shape his world, perhaps within the process, of which he was in control, he ironically strived to reinforce what was initially offered to him as a societal model (Harte 1996). Television content, despite interpretation, was of a primary importance for many developing individuals and its misrepresentation should be corrected in order to offer a representation, which had both realism and integrity. Change would come via education and experience as young viewers mediate towards the full circle. However, if television opportunities for a complete understanding of gender relationships were not offered in their honest entirety, boys would continue to hold the notion of patriarchy as they grew older.

Some research found that TV has led young viewers to misbelieve that men and women can earn high income in job while having lots of vacations. Nancy Signorielli (1998) studied high school students from around the country and found that television viewing was related to (1) adolescents' wanting to have high-status jobs that would enable them to earn a lot of money and (2) wanting to have jobs that were relatively easy with long vacations and time-to-do-other-things-in-life attitudes that, in reality, conflict. The information provided in television seems to let even young adolescents believe they do not have to work hard to earn lots of money and life-is-so-easy attitudes.

Stereotyped portrayals of the sexes and under-representation of female characters contributed negatively to children and young adolescents' development, limited their career aspirations, framed their attitudes about their future roles as parents, and even influenced their personality characteristics. Gender bias in TV

gives boys a sense of entitlement and lowers girls' self-esteem and occupational aspirations. For one study (Weitzman *et al* 1972), argued that the death of female characters taught both sexes that girls were less worthy than boys. The media particularly TV could potentially be the source for girls and boys to set standards of masculinity and femininity by offering socially sanctioned behavioural models that the young might imitate (Peter 1979) and presented a basic model for understanding oneself and others (Rachlin and Vogt 1974). Gender roles and the number of female and male characters portrayed on TV probably have serious effects on young viewers' gender role development and self-image.

These previous studies suggest that television may influence young adolescents' intellectual development, change attitudes and teach what should be or should not be appropriate or acceptable behaviours. Its effect may not always be direct and immediate. Rather, television's influence is in a subtle or incidental fashion through reinforcing or shaping individuals' perception of men and women.

It has been argued that it may be possible to turn the strong inherent appeal of television to educational advantage as an instrument to encourage learning through written material (Kelly *et al* 1985; Lee 1980). Media literacy has become increasingly important (Learmonth 1985; Morgan 1985) for children and young adolescents to access and understanding the images shown on television. Drabman, Robertson, Patterson, Jarvie, Hammer, and Cordua (1982) showed pre-school and elementary school children a videotape of a male nurse and female doctor. They found that reversing what are usually exposed to from television, most children up to age 12 years, tended to choose male pictures and names for the doctor and female pictures and names for the nurse. Only the oldest children aged 12 identify doctor and nurse in the gender-stereotypical ways.

These findings received support from the studies made in the United States (Williams *et al* 1981) and the United Kingdom (Durkin 1983). Williams, La Rose and Frost (1981) studies the impact of television in teaching counter-stereotyping. They had shown the respondents the male character well-known in Western television comedy series called M*A*S*H* as someone who could mix strength and leadership with gentleness and supportiveness while another female teenage character was shown as someone who had both feminine qualities and assume leadership and take

risks in ways normally associated with males. Williams and his associates found that stereotypic males and non-stereotypical females seemed to be better liked and better remembered. This suggested that children might pay greater attention to the masculine behaviours, whether portrayed by male or female TV characters.

Correlational research by Miller and Reeves (1976) on adolescent schoolchildren to explore the possibility that US television programmes depicted men and women differently on a number of social dimensions. After the counter-stereotypical social profile was shown to the sample, boys and girls were found equally accepted non-traditional aspirations as a consequence.

Durkin's British research on counter-stereotypic role portrayals on television was also made by investigating teenage girls' opinions about women in traditionally male roles. He employed experimental study of 79 secondary school children by showing them a woman forecaster and a male newsreader. Durkin (1985) found that girls (aged 8-12) tended to find a male newsreader more believable than a woman newsreader, whereas the newsreader's sex does not seem to influence boys' ideas of their believability. Durkin pointed out that girls might grow used to being presented with the male on television in general as more powerful and knowledgeable. This could be a result that girls learn from television programmes that repetitively show it is a man's world, and thus learn to displace their own perspective.

Such a view was supported by Jeffries-Fox and Signorielli's (cited in Signorielli 1991:73) examination of data from a three-year panel study, which revealed that television was an important source of knowledge about occupations. It is correlated with many of the adolescent respondents' open-ended responses revealed conceptions about occupations that were consistent with aspects of the television portrayals of these jobs, including stereotypes. Durkin (1983) also studied counter-stereotyped effects in the other two experimental studies. One is the experiment with 52 primary school children on the programme called *Rainbow* and another study with 99 children aged 12 and 13 years old. Durkin suggested that in the first experiment, viewers of *Rainbow* programme produced a short-term shift of opinion away from stereotyping, and in the second experiment, children tended to rate male and female jobs in a stereotypical way while neutral jobs were rated as neutral jobs that could equally be pursued by men and women.

Despite the fact that I have turned the reader's attention to research concerned with the countering of traditional sex stereotypes through televised examples of alternative social roles and behaviours for men and women as mentioned above, I am still concerned in a general sense with the effects of televised gender-related perceptions. Counter-stereotyped effects and gender-stereotyped effects could not be assumed to be the same kind. The gender-stereotyped effects that derived from the influence of television can not be differentiated from other sources of information that could carry gender-related messages. Further, the portrayals that run counter to the traditional stereotypes will be reacted in the same way as traditional portrayals by viewers. The rarity could make counter-stereotyped portrayals more imminent and retain in the easily accessible memory (Hawkins and Pingree 1980, 1982; Shrum 2002; Shrum *et al* 2004) as mentioned in Chapter 1.

Apart from Shrum's studies that sometimes seem to explain away the notion that accessibility of information contributed to the cultivation effects but in connection with short-term specific genre effects, another American study about "learning effects" are referred to as supporting cultivation theory. Greenberg (1988) offered the two distinctions between "drip" and "drench" forms of learning that may underlie what the studies mentioned earlier are describing. Drip refers to a cumulative learning experience and drench describes a class of events that are so striking and witnesses recall them vividly or coming to term of "flashbulb memories". Young people's judgements of television depend both on their knowledge of the constructed nature of the medium, or the so-called "magic window knowledge", and on their knowledge or "social expectation" about the world in general (Hawkins 1977). This could provide a testing ground for wider knowledge about television's role in "positioning" the viewers and how it handles the relationship between "information" and "entertainment", as suggested by Buckingham (1987, 1993). This shows the position of television as a "parent" or "teacher" and the process of attempting to "draw in" young people.

What has emerged from the body of research on televised gender-role portrayals is that the majority of such depictions emphasize stereotypes rather than counter-stereotypes of characteristics and roles. However, the studies on counter-stereotypes are a healthy objective but it is outside the scope of my study as firstly, most studies

on counter-stereotypes rely on experiments while my study is based on the content analysis and audience survey methodology. Secondly, in reality, the world of television mostly portrayed roles in a gender-stereotypical way while young TV viewers' gender role perceptions were not only be influenced by television but they could also be shaped and socialized by a variety of social agents.

Nevertheless, since counter-stereotypical role portrayals would by quite unusual characters, they might stand out more than they would otherwise and attract more audience attentions thus boosting their initial impacts. The study of cultivation effects in the role perceptions of young adolescents have been carried out further by several other researchers in order to test if the relationships between role perceptions and TV viewing of the respondents would remain significant after being controlled for some variables. The following section will investigate these studies.

2.6 The Significance of Television Viewers' Attribute and Role Perceptions While Being Controlled for Related Variables

There were also several previous studies that attempted to test the relationships between attribute and role perceptions and weight of TV viewing while controlling for different variables. Some research found that after controlling for related variables, the relationship between the respondents' perceptions of gender-roles and TV viewing remained significant. There included; for example, Gerbner and his associates (1979) who found that the association between amount of television viewing and perception of violence remained even after the major demographic variables of sex, age, education and, in the case of one sample of adolescents, IQ has been individually controlled.

Another example was Signorielli and Lears's (1992) study on the relationships between the fourth- and fifth-graders' television viewing and their gender-typed attitudes and behaviours in relation to household chores as male or female appropriateness, from the cultivation theory's point of view. Signorielli and Lears (1992) found statistically significant relationships between television viewing and sex-typed attitudes that were maintained even after controlling multiple relevant variables including demographic variables as well as the children's specific behaviours or their social background regarding to these chores. For both boys and

girls in the sample, Signorielli and Lears reported moderate to strong relationships between ideas of who should do chores and whether or not children said they did chores related to the opposite sex, which remained significant after controlling for relevant variables, and boys and girls who watched four or more hours a day would intensify such relationships.

Nevertheless, some previous studies found that cultivation effects were reduced or eliminated after controlling for some variables. For example, Fox and Philliber (1978) dealt with perceptions of affluence by arguing that if it was true that television over-represents middle- and upper-class characters and their lifestyles and there was a cultivation effect, heavy viewers should have constructed a social reality that overestimated the extent of affluence in American society. The affluence measure was made by sending out seven questions, such as 'how many Americans out of 100 have homes that cost more than \$40,000' or question regarding television consumption such as 'On average how many evenings a week do you watch TV at least one hour'.

Fox and Philliber found small but relatively significant in the association between TV viewing and perceptions of affluence. However, this association was reduced, when controls were applied separately for income, education or occupation of respondents, and was eliminated altogether after all three variables were applied at the same time. Rather than heavy TV viewing leading people to be more fearful, it may be that more fearful people are drawn to watching more television than other people. There might be a reciprocal relationship: 'television viewing causes a social reality to be constructed in a particular way, but this construction of social reality may also direct viewing behaviour' (Hawkins and Pingree 1983, cited in McQuail and Windahl 1993:101). In any case, surveys cannot establish causation. Fox and Philliber's finding sustains Doob and MacDonald's finding in 1979 that careful controls of various variables tend to reduce or eliminate cultivation effects.

Gallagher (1983) studied the second and third graders at a single secondary school in Northampton and feedbacks of her questionnaire surveys from 235 children and 92 parents. Gallagher found that many of boys and girls perceived traditional gender-stereotyped beliefs. There was a close association between being women and taking care of children, housework, marriage, showing emotion, being obedient, and

between having an education in men and intelligence. Traditional attitudes and heavier viewing were associated with level of education, self-perceived intelligent. However, Gallagher did not control these variables as well as parental attitudes to find out if such positive relationship between television viewing and gender-typed attitudes and behaviours would or would not remain significant. Therefore, her data on significant relationships on such term could possibly be reduced partly or all together after controlling for these importance factors.

McLuhan (1988) has claimed that increased exposure to television will develop a perception of the world as a "global village" after using estimation of cognitive distance as an operational definition of the global village concept. Based on their television diaries, 76 German high school students were classified as "heavy", "medium," or "light" viewers and asked to estimate the distance from their home town to three clusters of cities. McLuhan found that heavy viewers produced the largest estimates of cognitive distance. Then, students were grouped according to the amount of time they spent viewing news and political magazines and their viewing intensity.

McLuhan found that the level of intensity of viewing had a significant effect on the subjects' estimation of cognitive distance such as high intensity viewers made lower estimates as they became more familiar with the foreign cities while the amount of viewing time did not. Further, a class of 16 students exchanged video letters about their school, hometown, and daily activities with American students. When a questionnaire to determine level of prejudice toward Americans was administered to this and a control group, an increased positive attitude toward Americans was observed among the members of the video exchange group, but not the control group.

Another study made by Kolbeins (2002) to investigate whether one finds the cultivation effect in Iceland. Kolbeins' study was conducted in September and October, 2002. Questionnaires were administered by teachers to students in 8th through 10th grade in 15 schools in the Reykjavík-metropolitan area. Age and gender were used as control variables in all of the analyses. Also, as the family plays an important role in the lives of adolescents and affects television viewing, the family cohesion and the family violence scales were used as controls. Kolbein found that viewing of television violence or news was significantly related to the adolescents' belief in people's trustworthiness or feeling safe, or unsafe, in downtown Reykjavík.

However, after putting age, gender, family cohesion / family violence as control variables in the regression, the relationship between viewing of television violence or news and feeling safe or unsafe disappeared / become non-significant.

Kolbeins' results indicate that there is absolutely no evidence for the cultivation effect in Iceland. On the contrary, it was found that the more the adolescents watched violence on television, the safer they felt walking alone at night in their own neighborhood. Kolbeins claimed that his results were consistent with the findings of Tamborini and Choi (1990 cited in Kolbeins 2002) who found that the more Korean university students in the U.S. watched crime-related entertainment, the safer they felt walking alone in their own neighborhoods. However, there was no further explanation for this result in Tamborini and Choi's finding. Kolbeins explained these unexpected results that the adolescents watched television violence which taught them how to apply force or defend themselves if some attacked them or knowing violence in their hometown made them immune to the discussion of violence or they might simply believed that compared to the U.S., which was another country and it was thus safe to walk alone in Iceland where crime rates is miniscule compared to the crime rate in the U.S.

2.7 Other Explanations for the Viewers' Sex-related Role Perceptions

Several researchers attempted to explain the relationship between TV viewing exposure and the perceptions of sex-typing roles in the ways other than the cultivation-related amount of TV viewing measurement. Within a selection process of viewing, as they claimed, viewers might already have their attentions on portrayals in their same sex.

2.7.1 Same-sex model preferences and pre-existing beliefs

A study by Sprafkin and Liebert (1978) demonstrated that children tended to focus more carefully on television characters of their own sex. Girls and boys paid more attention to same-sex characters, and attention was the greatest when the same-sex character behaved in ways that deemed most appropriate for that sex. Sprafkin and Liebert indicated that young generations might use television selectively to find confirmation of any previously developed stereotypes about their own sex. Such

work was consistent with Kohlberg (1966) who argued that children attend more closely to same-sex models, and that children show better retention of, the actions of same-sex characters. For the child who is a heavy TV viewer, then being consistently exposed to stereotyping patterns of male behaviour may simply strengthen perceptions of males, which have already been formed apart from mass media influences. The child who does not view much television; on the other hand, may be more able to draw from his or her own experience, and decide that masculine traits and characteristics may actually be associated with either sex.

The same sex model preference may be relatively associated with many research that suggest about the “predispositions” toward or away from specific types of content may increase exposure levels (Christenson and Peterson 1988; Deihl *et al* 1983; Fink *et al* 1985) and so on. Bravery, strength, and power were themes that run strongly through the fantasy play of six-to-eleven-year-olds, even long before television entered into children's lives in the 1950s (Ferne 1981). The boys could name unrealistic characters from television much more often than characters, whom they knew to be more like real people. French and Pena (1991) argued that television provides children with rather narrow and stereotypical characters, so that they have relatively little opportunity to express their increased sophistication if they choose television characters as heroes. The authors explained that children who chose family members or other real people as their heroes are found to show a wider description of heroes in human qualities such as "helpful," "kind," and "gentle," in addition to "strong."

2.7.2 Influences of parents, peers and celebrities on young viewers' socialization

Some researchers suggest that the media do not affect most adolescents in the same manner. Since adolescence is a time of learning and expectation, it is reasonable to assume that the media, providing one source of information in competition with learning derived from family, peer, school, and other sources such as celebrities, may generate much knowledge about topics with which the young has limited personal experience, such as sex roles. Personal or direct experiences could perhaps mediate the association between drama viewing and associated perceptions.

With regards to family, there is evidence to suggest that the rate of television watching is positively correlated with the amount of time adolescents spend with their families and inversely correlated with amount of time they spend with peers (Larson and Kubey 1983). Gerbner and his associates (1986) reported that adolescents whose parents were more involved in their television viewing showed smaller relationships between amount of viewing and degree of perceiving the world in terms of television portrayals. Nonetheless, perceptions directly experienced within the framework of family and relatives may pose heavily on some children in either negative or positive ways. For instance, problems in the family such as divorce could accelerate the association between viewing and connected discernment about the world. The lack of parental availability, either because the mother worked or was a single parent, was found to increase exposure both to television and radio (Brown *et al* 1990).

The degree to which parents discuss television content with their children may influence adolescents' social construction of reality, which, in turn, may reduce the effect of televised content (Larson *et al* 1989; Brown *et al* 1990; Chaffee *et al* 1971). Experience affects perceptions of media gender role and they suggest that accurate real-world experience softens the impact of media. Conversely, children who do not have the benefit of parent mediation may be more inclined to seek out and accept TV portrayals as realistic.

Friends may also enhance the desirability of certain media or reduce the appeal of other media (Palmer 1983). Personal experiences of the adolescent viewers with peers may challenge or strengthen the relationship between drama exposure and correlated perceptions. If personal experiences confirm the perception of roles and drama depiction, then one might get "resonance" creating even stronger cultivation effects, as hypothesised by Gerbner. These experiences could be the difficulties adolescents encountered in various situations including establishing new relationships with peers, getting along and maintaining close friendships or going steady.

Apart from parents and peers who could have influence on young viewers' socialization, neighbour and relatives (Giles and Maltby 2004) and celebrities (Cole and Leets 1999, Gamson 2001) can play a vital role in the socialisation process. "Media figures play an important part in [adolescent identity] development, since they offer a variety of possible selves that a young person might wish to try out and

provide exemplars “of how to think and feel in different circumstances” (Giles and Maltby 2004:814). Increased media consumption has been allied in the contemporary media with a campaign for gaining celebrity authenticity and searching for the ‘real’ celebrity. Unlike past celebrities; however, contemporary media production guarantees that celebrities can be observed at length, in a ‘no holds barred’ manner, creating an ‘illusion of intimacy’ (Gamson 2001).

2.8 Conclusion

It is well established that gender-related roles are portrayed in a highly stereotypical fashion in virtually every aspect of television programming such as dramatic prime-time programmes. There is a reason to believe that because of the pervasiveness of such stereotyping in all types of programming, the amount of time spent watching television should be positively related to the extent to which stereotypes are learned apart from the particular programmes watched. Heavy TV viewing is believed, in many cases, to have a more stereotypical view of the roles in the societies than lighter TV viewing. The portrayal of both men and women on TV is, nevertheless, largely traditional and stereotypical. This serves to promote and reinforce a polarization of gender roles, which are masculinities and femininities.

These studies suggested further that television might contribute to the acquisition of sex-stereotypic perceptions of the appropriateness of particular roles, activities and occupations. Given the already demonstrated existence of sex-linked related to the acquisition of stereotypic perceptions of complex personality or other psychological characteristics, amount of television viewing could be positively related to the acquisition of stereotypic perceptions of complex personality or other psychological characteristics. Also, individual impressions were derived in various ways. The influences from parents, peers or school and celebrities could either reduce or increase the gender-related behaviours and attitudes in young viewers.

Chapter 3 : Young Thai Adolescents' Television Consumption and Concerns about Their Imitated Behaviours

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will examine Thailand's media particularly TV viewing and media consumption. The availability of TV channels in Thailand, the local and imported TV programmes, and different types of TV programmes are statistically reported from various different resources such as national statistics from governmental resources, poll and national surveys from many reputed-universities in Thailand. The controversial issues concerning law and regulations of broadcasting policy and the TV viewing situation in Thailand among journalists, media scholars, and other professionals will also be investigated.

Media consumption among young Thai adolescents and how they incorporate media information into their consciousness are investigated. Although previous findings indicate that frequent television viewing is associated with holding more stereotypical attitudes about gender, a rare number of studies have examined this connection among Thai youth, who are frequent viewers of television drama programming. There have been public concerns on the impact of television on Thai children since children spend most of their time watching television. The newly introduced rating system in July 2007 was still in its infancy and under various disputes. These will be examined in this chapter.

3.2 Television in Thailand

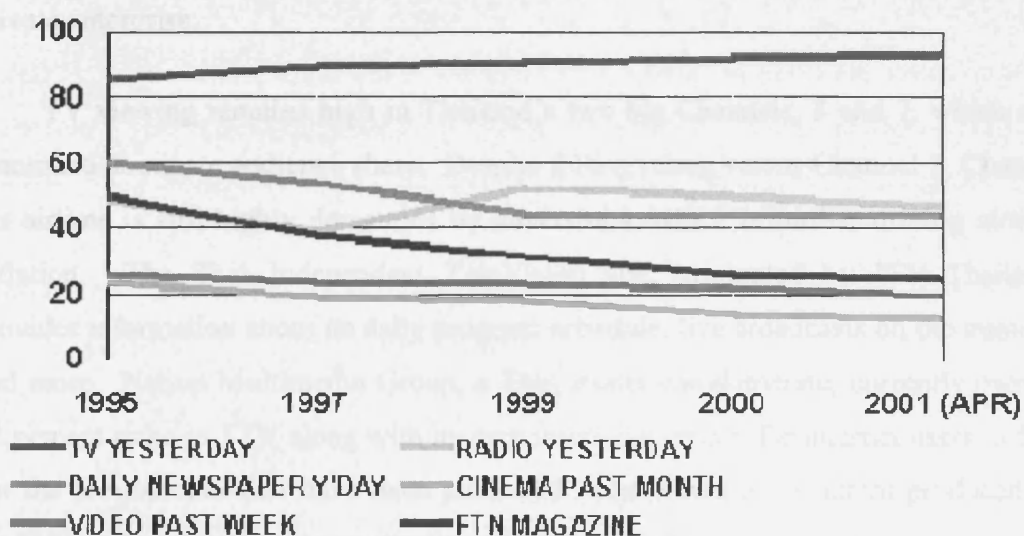
Despite the fact that Western societies' television repeatedly portrays and cultivates a particular set of images of sex roles and occupations, this does not necessarily mean that television system in other countries generally and South East Asian countries like Thailand particularly, come about to disseminate similar images and cultivate similar views. The fact that most other countries including Thailand import so much of their programming further complicates the picture and that is why Thailand needs to be examined on its TV viewing situation.

3.2.1 Television statistics in comparison to other media

Television is by far the most popular medium in Thailand. Over 80 percent of Thais are estimated to rely on television as their primary source of news. Tan and Suarchavarat report a dramatically different experience in Thailand. "Recent surveys [in 1988] indicate that up to 90% of households in Bangkok are equipped with a color television set..." (Tan and Suarchavarat 1988:649), the establishment of stereotypes is well illustrated.

According to AC Nielson, using measurement of people meter on a weekly basis on Thais aged 12 and their media consumption as below.

Figure 3.1 Bangkok Media Summary Trend by % of all 12+



Source: ACNielsen Media Index, 2003

Bangkok Media Summary Trend reported that from year 1996 to 2001 the total viewers of TV are steadily higher than other media. TV (located in the top line of the chart) has become the first and foremost media that Thais favoured, as shown in Figure 3.1. With regards to the source of media statistic above, Nielsen Company is the global information and media company with recognised brands in marketing information (ACNielsen Media Index 2003). AGB Nielsen Media Research (Thailand) has been providing Television Audience Measurement in Thailand for more than 20 years in the total information service of TV to broadcasters, advertising

agencies and Industry of Media. In February 2002, the sample size has expanded from 865 to 1,000 households, total 4,000 individuals with the total meter over 1,600 units across the country.

3.2.2 Television local channels and programme types available in Thailand

Today Thailand has six major TV networks based in Bangkok and are relayed to all parts of the country through repeaters. Thailand has two groups of television channels, which are 'free TV' and 'pay TV'. Free TV includes Channel 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, and ITV while Pay TV comprises of UBC, Thai Sky, and UTV. The statistics reported from the National Identity Office, Office of the Prime Minister, Royal Thai Government (National Identity Office 1995) have shown that among the free TV channels, Channels 3, 9 and 11 are run by the government while Channels 5 and 7 run by the Army, leaving Channel ITV as the only Channel partly run by government and private enterprise.

TV viewing remains high in Thailand's two big Channels, 3 and 7, which still command dominate audience share. Despite falling rating versus Channel 7, Channel 3's airtime is still highly demanded by advertisers, which is further driving airtime inflation. The Thai Independent TeleVision site, originated by ITV Thailand, provides information about its daily program schedule, live broadcasts on the internet, and more. Nation Multimedia Group, a Thai media conglomerate, currently owns a 12 percent stake in TTV along with its own internet websites for internet users to find out the programmes that have been published in print media. Content produced by the Nation Group features prominently on TTV's programming line-up.

The largest players in the Thai television industry are MCOT, a former state enterprise of which the government still owns 77 percent, and the Royal Thai Army, which retained ownership of numerous broadcast frequencies even after the end of military rule in Thailand. The only commercial station not subject to the control of MCOT or the army is ITV, which is owned by Shin Corporation, but is a communications conglomerate controlled by Temasek Holdings of Singapore, that become worried in many Thais who are against the former PM Taksin as Shin Cooperation's major share holders is the family of his. Thailand's public service

broadcaster, Channel 11, is funded and operated by the Public Relations Department (PRD) of the Prime Minister's Office.

Aside from terrestrial television, Thailand has at last 10 privately owned cable television programmes and Satellite television providers which broadcast in both Thai and English. Recently, the largest player in the market is the United Broadcasting Corporation (UBC), controlled by the Charoen Pokphand (CP) Group, the massive Thai business conglomerate, which owns concessions from MCOT to operate CATV services in greater Bangkok and encrypted digital satellite TV (DSTV) services throughout the country. UBC has recently changed to new name called "TrueVision" and broadcast a total of 50 channels to viewers with as pay serviced gold edition including many Thai television stations such MTV Thailand, iTV, 6 sports channels, Channel V and many more.

However, pay TV services are less popular because of their cost. Outside Bangkok, in particular, hundreds of independent CATV providers offer services in the provinces. The PRD is technically in charge of regulating provincial cable operators, but only 78 providers have been licensed so far. More than 200 CATV operators are awaiting approval from the PRD, while another 200 operate illegally. The phenomenal growth will come from cable users who, until now, have refused to pay high subscription fees, or have been receiving bootleg cable transmissions from illegal operators, according to Supachai Chearavanont, UBC's executive vice president (ThaiDay on-line newspaper, 2006).

Furthermore, illegal satellite TV broadcasting in Thailand is increasingly prevalent. Piracy has become so entrenched in the provinces that hundreds of small cable operators have made a business out of illegally distributing television signals to subscribers, often charging 100 baht a month or less for packages that would otherwise cost in the thousands, according to a UBC spokesman and Simon Twiston Davies, Chief Executive Officer of the Cable and Satellite Broadcasting Association of Asia (CASBAA), which represents cable and satellite television broadcast companies in Southeast Asia and Asia, including UBC. Although Thailand has experimented with digital terrestrial television on a trial basis, the delays in establishing the National Broadcasting Commission (NBC) to regulate the

broadcasting industry will likely slow the conversion from analogue to digital broadcasting technology.

Thailand Media Profile 2002 has reported the audience share rating in each of the TV programme types scheduled in July 2002, as shown in table 3.2.

Table 3.1 TV Programme Schedules, July 2002

Programme Type	%					
	Ch 3	Ch 5	Ch 7	Ch 9	Ch 11	ITV
News and Current Affairs	13.06	17.96	14.37	22.3	54.01	37.67
Documentary	4.19	11.46	4.98	20.03	29.39	15.89
Agriculture	-	2.41	-	2.72	1.91	2.38
Religion	-	1.31	0.29	4.07	4.55	1.2
Travel	0.37	1.75	0.74	3.74	1.12	3.12
Other	3.82	5.99	3.96	9.51	21.82	9.19
Children	7.37	0.33	5.11	9.68	1.65	3
Education	0.91	-	-	-	7.71	-
Entertainment	74.47	70.25	75.54	47.99	7.25	43.44
Music	3.41	16.56	8.32	17.66	3.89	8.02
Sport	3.71	1.62	9.24	11.21	2.96	3.14
Drama	37.16	6.48	38.6	0.68	-	9.05
Comedy	1.52	6.3	0.63	0.68	-	0.5
Game show	12.36	9.44	4.33	5.83	0.4	4
Other	16.31	29.85	14.42	11.94	-	18.74

Source: Thailand Media Profile 2002 reported by Siriyayasak (2002)

According to Thailand Media Profile 2002 as reported by Siriyuvasak (2002), entertainment programmes are the most favourite type of programmes for most TV channels particularly Channel 3 (74.5%) and 7 (75.5%), while the rest of the TV services are lower than these two channels. Dramas are the second most favourite programme type for TV channel 3 (37.2%) and 7 (38.6%), and the top famously

watched programmes in each TV channel are found to be located in the large portion of entertaining programmes.

According to Thailand Media Profile 2002 (Siriyuvasak 2002), all TV channels mainly broadcast local programmes. For instance, TV Channel 3 broadcasts 474 local programmes and 156 import programmes from USA, Japan, Hong Kong and China which makes up of the 3:1 ratio. Similarly, TV Channel 7 broadcasts 478 local programmes while broadcasting 152 import programmes from USA, Hong Kong, Japan and China which makes up the same ratio as that in TV Channel 3; thus, local TV programmes are more present than the imported ones.

3.2.3 Television dramas

Television dramas in Thailand are divided into two categories depending on the broadcast hours. One category is the daytime and early evening dramas which are aired between noon to 8:00 p.m., and the other one is the late evening and midnight dramas which are broadcast from 8:30 p.m. or usually after the 30-minute break for News and Current Affairs from 8:00 p.m. to 8:30 p.m.

The definition of dramas is very varied. Thomas Skill argues that, “For most part, daytime is the province of the slower paced, reflective drama compared to prime-time’s higher budgeted, action-oriented dramas” (1983 cited in Cassata and Skill 1983:140). George Comstock (1983 cited in Cassata and Skill 1983:xxiii) remarks that “By definition, soap opera [daytime drama] is a daytime programme, broadcast several times a week with low production costs, as compared to prime-time and attracts a predominantly, if hardly wholly, adult female audience”.

Yet the term “soap” itself has the meaning as the expression of derision, which implied an over-dramatic, under-rehearsed presentation of trivial dramas blown up out of all proportion to their importance (Geraghty 1991). Rose (1979) suggests that the never-ending, cyclical nature of the drama “formula” permits viewers to become intimately involved with the lives of drama characters. Rose also argues that the complexity of any one show requires audience involvement which, in turn, generates still more audience interest.

The popularity of TV local channels 3 and 7 and drama type programmes are evident in many studies, polls, national surveys and statistical reports from Thailand organizations. ABAC Poll Research Center (2001) has run a survey on “The people’s behaviour and the popularity of TV programs and its actors-actresses: A Case study of people in Bangkok” on 25 April-7 May 2001. It reported that nowadays the television stations have developed the quality of the programmes in the entertainment news and other TV programs. ABAC survey found that 76.2% ratings fell into TV serials as the most popular program, the second favoured was game shows that gain 60.4% and the rest 52.6% into musical programs and variety-talk shows. Foreign movies, especially Japanese movies were very popular among Thai young teenagers. It was also found that the most popular TV series came from Channel 7 (titled Norah), follow by the same Channel (titled Ateeta), and Channel 3 (titled Kamint Kub Poon) (ABAC Poll Research Center 2001). Findings showed the game shows that gained the largest popularity among the people would come slightly from other channel such as 5 but the majority would be channel 3.

The survey “Popular TV Broadcasting Service for the Bangkokians” was carried out during 15-16 November 2003 by Bangkok University (Bangkok University Research Poll 2003a). The aims for Bangkok University’s research survey was to obtain the population aged from 18 years old who lived in Bangkok and the 36 metropolitan areas in the subject about their recent months’ favourite TV Channels and TV programmes. The multi-stage sampling was employed on three stages, which were 36 districts in Bangkok, major and minor roads, and 1,051 randomly selected populations. The error margin was ± 5 and reliability of 95%. The period of time that respondents loved to watch TV was 35.3% which fell into 8:01-10:00 p.m., 18.2% from 6:01-8:00 p.m. and 12.9% from 10:01-midnight. The favourite TV Channels for respondents were 32.6% for TV Channel 7, 26.3% for TV Channel 3, and 17.3% for ITV Channels. The favourite TV programmes for the respondents were 32.9% for news, 27.5% for TV dramas and 4.4 for documentary. The favourite TV dramas for the respondents were in Channel 7 for 38.2%, Channel 3 for 36% and Channel ITV for 4.4%.

Suan Dusit Poll also (2004) studied TV drama series to find out the degree of its popularity among Thai youths. TV soap operas and drama series have long been

favourite programmes in Thai society. Suan Dusit Poll has conducted survey on 1,020 people in the Bangkok area, all of which were 464 Male (45.5%) and 556 female (54.5%) respondents during 29 March – 4 April 2004. The Poll reported that when respondents were asked whether they like watching TV drama series or not, 61.7% of them said yes, all of which 62% were male and 61.4% were females. The reasons were: to relax, to be entertained, and TV dramas, as they responded, could give them about the thoughts about life. On the other hand, 38.3% of all respondents did not like watching TV dramas and responded that they thought that TV dramas were repetitive, and the storylines were never newly produced. When asked about their favourite TV dramas broadcast during January and March 2004, the most favourite drama was from Channel 3's drama (30.14% of all respondents, 28.39% of males and 31.89% of females). The second and third most favourite dramas belong to Channel 7's production (19.60% of all respondents, 18.5% of males and 20.7% of females; and 17.38% of all respondents, 20.98% of males and 13.79% of females).

In 2004, there have been a variety of TV dramas broadcast for Thai audiences. To value and appreciate the degree of audience's favoring TV dramas, ABAC poll at University of Assumption has surveyed during 20-28 January 2005 by dividing the period of TV dramas into four seasonal quarters (ABAC Poll Research Center 2005). The ABAC poll attempted to survey audience's preferences of TV dramas.

Noticeably, local TV Channel 7 had marked the highest-rated popular channel for TV dramas of all time during the first quarter of year 2004. In the first quarter, there were, out of 20 TV drama programmes, 13 drama programmes from channel 7 were ranked most popular and the rest were distributed to channel 3, as the second highest-rated popular channel. Although most of favourite TV drama programmes came from channel 7 in the first quarter, the second quarter happened to be different. Channel 3 seemed to run to the top during April – June 2004. Only two TV dramas, which were "Dern Derd" and "Sapaisa Maeyahean" from Channel 7 left at the bottom of the list.

As mentioned earlier, Suan Dusit Poll (2004) indicated that TV soap operas and drama series have long been favourite programmes in Thai society. Suan Dusit Poll reported in addition to the respondents' favourite TV dramas in their survey in 2004

that when the respondents were asked, “What do you think about TV dramas and soaps today?” it was found that 38.2% of male and 51.6% of female respondents (a total mean of 44.9%) thought TV drama’s today “has been improved and giving the thoughts about life”. Then, 46% of male and 25.8% of female respondents (a total mean of 35.9%) thought TV dramas still provide the same old storylines and plots and no invention. Finally, 15.8% of male and 22.6% of female respondents (a total mean of 19.18%) thought that TV drama display sexual and violence or disturbing scenes and these should be more limited.

The similar question but specifying on the improvement of TV dramas in the year 2004 has been posed, “Do you think TV drama these days have improved or not?” It was found that most male (54.4%) and most female (57%) respondents, which have a mean value of 55.7% of all respondents, thought that TV drama has been improved because it “gave the new look and adopted the events that reflect the societies people are living in, although some stereotypes still persist. More presentation of works than before, entertainment and its assimilation of real life makes it easy to understand the plots, and provided good thoughts for everyday lives.”

It was found that 38.2% of male and 11.8% of female respondents responded that TV dramas’ plots and storylines stayed the same. They have given reasons that TV dramas still hold the stereotypical roles of the poor people’s lives in and out the city, the fights over girls, and repetition of the stories that have already been filmed before only to introduce the new actors and actresses. There were 7.8% of male and 11.8% of female respondents (mean value of 9.6% of all respondents) who responded that TV dramas are even worse than in the past. Extensively, it is because “some plots and storylines were well produced in the past but since they have been renewed by new line of TV characters, the plots have somehow been amended which makes the dramas less interesting and not as good as before. The set up of props and others are not well established. No creative storylines. They are mainly boring and uninteresting. Some violent and sexual behaviours and the way TV characters dress may lead to children and adolescents’ imitation and gender identification”.

When asked “What do you expect from TV dramas and soaps in the future?” 48.8% of male and 54.2% of female respondents (average of 51.5% of all respondents) expected that TV dramas should have more educational contents and

sentiment that teach people to learn from and use them in their life. Since these are the programmes that most people watch, they should be written more creatively to make Thai society a better place to live.

Suan Dusit Poll's statistics (2004) also show that there are 42.8% of male and 30.8% of female respondents who expect TV dramas to have some improvements in storylines and plots that follow what the trend is in Thai societies. There should also be some improvements on graphic productions to make it more believable or increase the verimilitude. There were 8.3% of male and 14.9% of female respondents (a mean value of 11.6% of all respondents) who expected that TV dramas that use the stories produced in the past should try not reproduce and change the stories' contents because that will destroy the original work. But if possible, the brand new creative stories would meet audiences' expectations rather than using the original stories and changed them.

3.3 Factual statistics of Thailand

In order to determine if the characters observed on television dramas were representative of actual population demographics and other perspectives in Thailand, factual statistics were indicated by the National Statistical Office of Thailand (NSO). The National Statistical Office is the core body responsible for Thailand's statistical activities including the collection and compilation, dissemination of basic statistical data, providing recommendations on statistical-related matters, organizing training courses in statistical methods and computer data processing as well as serving as the statistical data bank of the country.

3.3.1 Family and marital status

According to Survey of Population Change 1995-1996 from the Population and Housing Census of NSO, marriage patterns differed for women and men. More women than men under age 30 were married, but at aged 30 and above, a higher percentage of men than women remained married. From the population and housing census 2000, which analysed on the population 13 years of age and over by marital status and sex, in the Bangkok area, suggested that, among single populations in Bangkok, there were almost an equal proportion of males and females in the role of

single. There were 1,060,900 males (47.2%) and 1,185,900 females (52.8%) who were single. Among currently married populations in Bangkok, there were 1,359,400 males (48.8%) and 1,423,500 or 51.2% of females (51.2%) who were at that period of time married.

3.3.2 Employment status

Survey of Population from NSO and Population and Housing Census reported that women's employment status was lower than men since 1998. More men than women worked in the sections of Director, Department Manager and Supervisor, whereas far more women than men were concentrated in the section of Officer. The average monthly pays salary per capita by level of working status shows that men received pay more than women. Although the remarkable growth of the Thai economy during the past decade has provided women with increased income-earning opportunities, a high proportion of women in the workforce continue to be classified as unpaid employer on farms or on other family business enterprises.

In 2000, the National Statistical Office of Thailand studied those 15 years and over by occupation and sex in the Bangkok area. It was reported that there were higher proportions of male than female in the positions of legislators, senior officials and managers (271,800 males and 128,000 females); professionals (186,900 males and 135,100 females); technicians and associate professionals (146,100 males and 134,900 females); skilled agricultural and fishery workers (23,000 males and 16,200 females); craft and related trades workers (194,800 males and 100,800 females); plant and machine operators and assemblers (248,600 males and 121,400 females); armed forces (30,600 males and 4,700 females). On the other hand, there were higher proportion of female than male in such occupations as clerks (128,00 males and 176,100 females); service workers, shop and market sales workers (294,00 males and 420,400 females); elementary occupations (152,600 males and 179,700 females).

3.4 Laws Governing Television Broadcasting Media

Several principal laws concerning telecommunications and information technology have been revised and initiated. The very recent significant laws that involve issues about Frequency Allocation, Radio, Television and Telecommunication

Regulatory Agency have been considered by the Parliament of Thailand. The new regulatory agency is hoped to initiate a major change in the televisions and information technology in the nation. Laws related to telecommunication services in Thailand, so far, mainly concern with ownership and the precention of a monopoly.

3.4.1 Radio Broadcast and Television Broadcast Act 1955

This Act has been amended in 1959, 1979 and 1987, managing all radio and television services. It gives the authority to PTD (The Post and Telegraph Department), which controls and manages radio frequencies, regulates and coordinates domestic communication via satellite through integrated ground stations. It also seeks the international and regional cooperation for all postal and telecommunication activities.

Section 21 of the Ministerial Regulations No. 14 (1994) issued under the Radio and Television Broadcasting Act 1955 (Baker and Mackenzie Ecommerce 2001) illustrates the restrictions on particular types of programming or advertising. In relations to the roles and the representation of gender, the programmes must *not* have characteristics such as aggressiveness that violate humanity; any deceptive statement which may allure viewers particularly children to believe; or any overstatement from the character or any act of crimes which may induce or promote crime.

With the above respect, if any programme is producing any of the above characteristics, the television station will be legally required to make the correction before further broadcasting the programme or order the cessation. For the purpose of this inspection of the competent officers, the broadcaster must record every broadcast programme and keep them at the station for not less than 15 days from the date of the broadcast.

Violations of the Radio and Television Act and its Ministerial Regulations, Rules and Announcements may cause the suspension or withdrawal of the license to operate the television transmission of the applicant. Such decision may be appealed to the Director General of the Public Relations Department within 30 days from the date of the receipt of the written decision of the Broadcasting officers. The problematic issue, as the loosing gap in law, is that electronic commerce does not fall

within the definition of "broadcasting" under the Radio & Television Broadcasting Act. Moreover, the Radio & Broadcasting Act is aimed at regulating a broadcasting station set up domestically. The Act has no extra-territorial enforcement to any broadcasting station outside its jurisdiction.

3.4.2 The Thai Constitution of 1997

Crucially, the Thai Constitution of 1997 is provided for an independent authority titled the National Broadcasting Commission (NBC), to regulate the broadcasting industry. However, owing to legal disputes surrounding the selection process for NBC commissioners, the NBC still has not yet been established. For the time-being, Thai television channels remain under the tight control of various government agencies.

Other problem in relation to political issues also arises. Although the new Constitution of Thailand introduced in 1997 set in place provisions for the democratization of these media, these provisions have not been realized. The television and radio media in Thailand have been under a government and military monopoly since their introduction to the country. The only television station not controlled by the government or military is owned by Shin Corp ran by the former Prime Minister Thaksin Shinawatra. There is concern that this is a new media monopoly emerging between the commercial and government sectors, as media concessions are issued to Shin Corp and other businesses close to senior politicians, thereby defeating the purpose of the constitutional reforms.

Under the 1997 Constitution, there remain various sections, which offer general data and privacy protection. However, when it comes to terms of specific information about children and young people's television, the Act remains unclear. The general policy that is closely related to such specific issues is under Section 34, 37 and 58, which can be found in **APPENDIX B**.

These sections were extracted from the broadcasting regulation section, which do not respond to issues about children and young people's right in TV viewing materials and other relating issues. The issues that have been omitted from the present Broadcasting Regulation mentioned earlier include violence, adult materials,

and traditional roles and occupations. Policymakers are responsible to set up the act to help reduce the crime or violent scenes that might be imitated by young Thais, and to improve the image and representation of women's roles.

Suan Dusit Poll surveyed the Thai population from all occupational levels who resided in the Bangkok and Metropolitan areas in the total population of 1,744, comprised of 772 male or 44.3% of all respondents and 972 female or 55.7% of all respondents during 6 and 7 August 2003 (Suan Dusit Poll 2003). When asked "How do you feel about the control and restricted measurement on scenes of sexuality and violence on TV dramas?" Males (27.5%) and females (38.3%) or a total mean of 32.9% of all respondents, felt that it would help protecting young Thais from the imitation of inappropriate behaviours portrayed in TV dramas.

There were 20.3% of male and 18.7% of female respondents or a mean of 19.5% of all respondents who felt that it would be a well-planned measurement but it should be the certain and rigid control otherwise it would not be effective and not worthwhile. There were 18.8% of male and 18% of female respondents or the mean of 18.4% of all respondents who felt that it would make the TV dramas lifeless, less tasteful for audience, and producing inconsistency of plots and storylines. The rest of the respondents felt that it should not be any boundary upon plots and themes as this depends on audience's consideration and discretion in their selection (the mean of 18.2% of all respondents) while others felt that Thai societies are close societies, which do not disclose these sexuality and violence in public, and too reserved at their traditional motto and culture (the mean of 10.9% of all respondents).

3.5 Controversial Issues about Television Viewing Situation in Thailand

According to Asia Human Rights Watch report (2004), since Thailand has ever set course on the mammoth task of broadcast reform as a result of the 1997 Constitution, there are disputes in various sectors including media procedures, researchers, foreign ambassadors, TV stations broadcasters that over the years the process has remained derailed and even now is in a deadlock of vested interests by the state and broadcasters.

The controversy of TV viewing situation in Thailand has started when Thai government tried to improve the TV stations throughout the nation following the 1997 Constitution but media producers seem to be reluctant to the government's plan. In November 2003, the government's move to use TV prime time for "educational" and "children-and-family" programmes to prevent social problems was met with stiff resistance from station bosses. Three "screening committees" of the Cabinet were supposed to have submitted a joint proposal to seek 10 to 15 per cent of TV's prime time to produce programmes for children, youth and families. Beginning with state-run TV stations, the new format would take up at least half an hour between 4:00 p.m. and 6.30 p.m. and slots totalling no less than 90 minutes between 4:00 p.m. and 10:00 p.m.

Using the bracket between 6:00 and 10:00 p.m. as the most suitable time, the government would set up a panel to produce educational shows that were "not boring" and private companies might be invited to aid in production (Nationmultimedia 4 November 2003). TV programmes broadcast from 4:00 p.m. to 10:00 p.m. were controlled by the Government to produce the content that is free of improper content such as violence and sex. Conceding the government's plan, Channels 9 and 11 started allocating time for the purpose, since 1st January 2004. In other television networks, sponsors turned their backs on this matter due to high production costs and a scarcity of sponsors. The government, therefore, requested these TV stations not to sign any long-term contract with companies in the production of prime time programmes so that it would be more convenient for the government to use the time for programmes that contribute to social development.

Media executive Pravit of Channel 3 Broadcasting Station argued that producing television programmes "does not attack the problems at the root because social problems start in the family while every station has children's shows and that there is no need for the government to interrupt station programming". Children's programmes are expensive to produce because they usually involve more animation, lighting and sound effects, said managing director Weera Suwannachot at Luck Kid Company. Luck Kid Company produces the children's programme "Pert Jai Kit" ("Open Your Heart"), which is broadcast every Fridays on Channel 11. Weera contended that if the government "does not help producers they will be more

dependent on corporate sponsors and will have to insert more commercials". The advertised products are 'poison-laced chocolates'. To get sponsorship, media producers promote unhealthy products, such as fattening, salty snacks and soft drinks.

Suthichai Yoon, a well-known journalist from The Nation newspaper was also in doubt of the news that the government wanted to reclaim part of the prime time slots on all TV stations for family and children's programmes. According to Deputy Premier Chaturon Chaisaeng, the Committee set up comprised of representatives from education, cultural, and academic agencies. Presumably, these government-appointed experts knew what would be good for Thai families on TV. However, as Suthichai argued, the fact was that these appointed experts' "modus operandi" is bound by bureaucracy and consequently their objective was to "control" not "create" content (Nationmultimedia 6 November 2003).

Bureaucratically, the committee would most likely hold endless meetings on defining what a desirable children's programme should be. Unfortunately, when the Committee did not get directives from the powers-that-be, it tried to second-guess what the bosses would want the final report to read like. This inevitably meant that the real professionals were deliberately left out. The country's most imaginative creators of quality programmes and documentaries would be sidelined for a very simple reason. Creativity did not count in official and political circles. Obedience was what counts.

Foreign ambassadors who were located in Bangkok shared valuable experiences from their countries in the hope that the Kingdom can have a free and diverse broadcast media befitting a democracy. The United States, for example, sent a community radio expert in the early year of 2003 to share his experiences, even though the Thai authorities still regard the few dozen independent community radio operators as outlaws.

The debates lied where the solution was not in designating prime-time slots for government-directed programmes. It was how to unleash the country's creativity in television programming. And that would mean giving free rein to new ideas and independent conventional programming. It would be meaningful if Thai government serve as an objective facilitator rather than seeking control and supervision.

Moreover, they shall detach themselves from imposing its values and standards, seeking to clear the air and setting the ground rules with a level playing field as the real objective. The Government shall get the TV stations to allot "family time" to private producers or government-related agencies and let the viewers have a say in the kind of family, children and documentary programmes they want their children to watch.

Independent producers, who have verifiable track records and those with innovative programming concepts, should all be given a chance to take part in the deliberations. The government wants "mind control" while the professional producers want to pursue creativity, breaking the suffocating old rules wherever and whenever possible. Yet Suthichai Yoon, one of the most famous journalists in Thailand proposes that this country badly needs a public broadcasting television station operated by an independent board of governors or professional broadcasters, who are free from government control and financed by a licence fee, not from the government's budget. Suthichai reaches to his point that without a real "public service television station", any governments claim to upgrade the quality of state-run, highly politicised and strictly controlled media will distribute nothing but a farce. TV broadcasting services in Thailand are under the sponsorship of conglomerates and thus decline to change if that change would reduce the share rating of audience. This issue has long been debatable and disputed between the Government and Media Broadcasting Services.

3.6 Thai Young Adolescents and Television TV Drama Consumption

Audiences differ significantly in their responses to the media. Comparisons between adults and children, males and females, young children and adolescents, black families and white families, heavy consumers of the media and light consumers, and so on indicate many differences based on these demographic and behavioural characteristics. If one is interested in the potential impact of television content, the content that is most regularly viewed by the audience of interest is the best candidate for originating effects. Therefore, rather than looking at all the media that is available in Thailand, the premise of potential effects is better understood in the context of messages more likely to be selected.

3.6.1 Report from ACNielsen Media Index 2003

Media summary from ACNielsen Index, Thailand (2003) indicated the total population age 12 and above with their percentages of media consumption in 2001 as shown in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2 Media Summary by ACNielsen Media Index

% Of All 12+		
	Nationwide	Bangkok
Total Population	50,295,000	8,725,000
Viewed TV yesterday	86,000	93,000
Listened Radio yesterday	36,000	47,000
Read Newspaper yesterday	21,000	44,000
Read Magazine Past 2 weeks	13,000	25,000
Attended Cinema past month	13,000	13,000

Source: ACNielsen Media Index, 2003

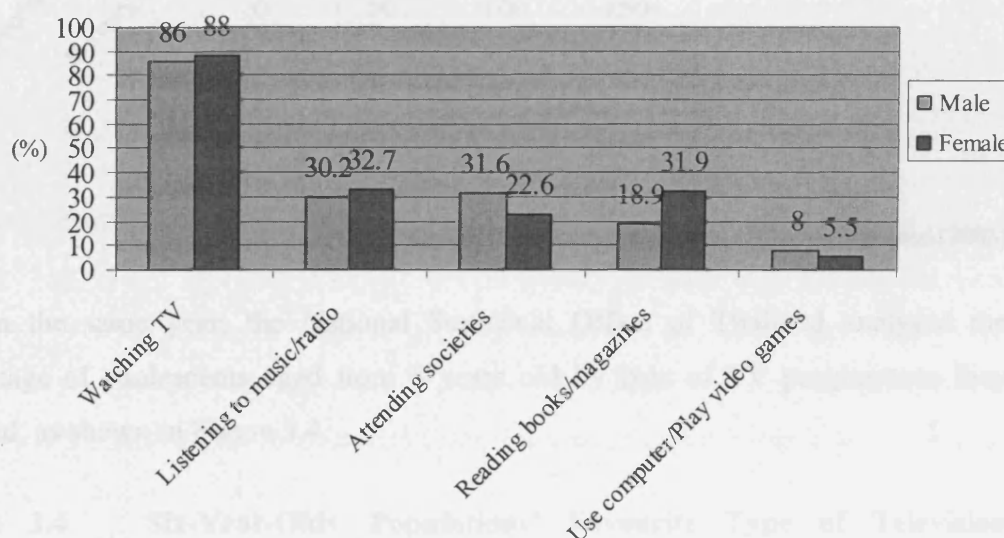
Table 3.2 has shown that Bangkok's population of 8,725,000 from a whole nationwide population of 50,292,000 has its most population spending time watching TV for 93% of all Bangkok population. Not only the Bangkok population who spent most time watching television, in a population nationwide was also found to spend most time watching television (86%).

Within the context of gender differences, a number of audience studies have set out to identify the teenage group as something behaviourally distinct from adults and children. Adolescent girls report reading teen magazines and watching soap operas more than boys do. Young boys spend more time playing video games than girls do (Huston *et al* 1997). As adolescents get older, they spend less time watching television; as a result, their viewing patterns necessarily become more selective. To some extent, the increased selectivity reflected an increase in the homogeneity of adolescents' programme choice. A number of national surveys, studies and reports have indicated Thai youth's TV watching habits, favourite TV programme types, and imitation behaviours. These are explained in the next page.

3.6.2 Reports from the National Statistical Office of Thailand

In 2002, the National Statistical Office of Thailand reported the graph in percentage of male and female children and adolescents aged between 6 and 24 years old and their leisure activities, as illustrated in Figure 3.2.

**Figure 3.2 Six- to Twenty-Four-Year-Old Populations' Leisure activities
Reported by the National Statistical Office of Thailand**

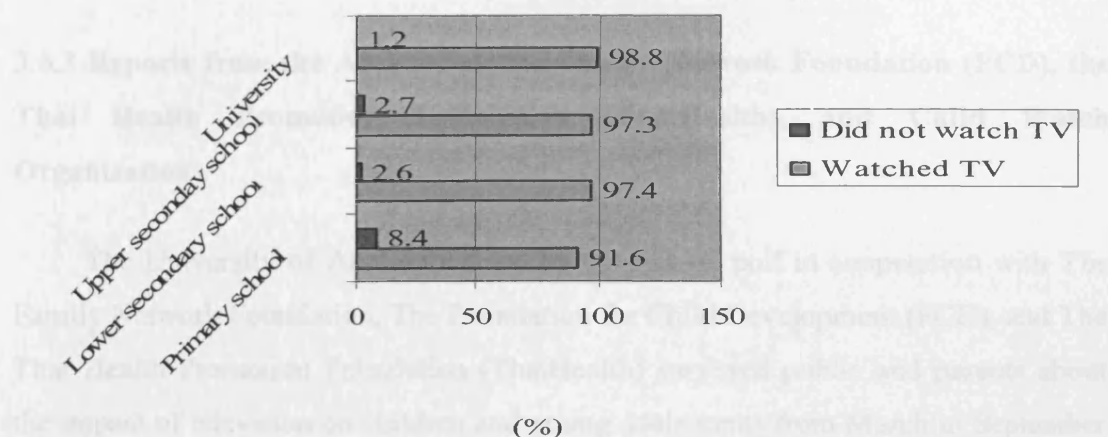


Source: the National Statistical Office of Thailand (2002)

Figure 3.2 indicated that in their leisure time, almost 90% of children and adolescents, comprising of 86% of all male and 88% of all female children, spent time watching TV. For activities including listening to radios, attending school societies, reading books/magazines, the youth spent lower than 40% on these activities.

In 2003, the National Statistical Office of Thailand analysed the TV watching rate of adolescents aged from 15 years old by level of education. Most people in each group of students spent time watching television while only small amount of students who did not watched television at all, as indicated in Figure 3.3

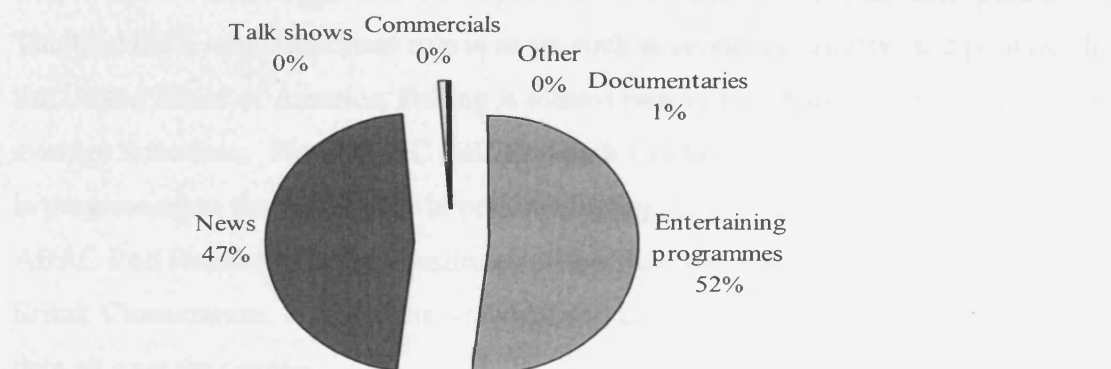
Figure 3.3 Fifteen-Year-Old Populations' Television Habits Reported by the National Statistical Office Thailand



Source: the National Statistical Office of Thailand (2003)

In the same year, the National Statistical Office of Thailand analysed the percentage of adolescents aged from 6 years old by type of TV programmes they watched, as shown in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4 Six-Year-Old+ Populations' Favourite Type of Television Programmes Reported by the National Statistical Office Thailand



Source: the National Statistical Office of Thailand (2003)

Figure 3.4 indicated that among a total of 54.7 million people, most of them watched entertaining programmes and the second most of them watched news while other programmes had much lower ratings among those in their age (6 and more).

3.6.3 Reports from the ABAC Poll, the Family Network Foundation (FCD), the Thai Health Promotion Foundation (ThaiHealth), and Child Watch Organization

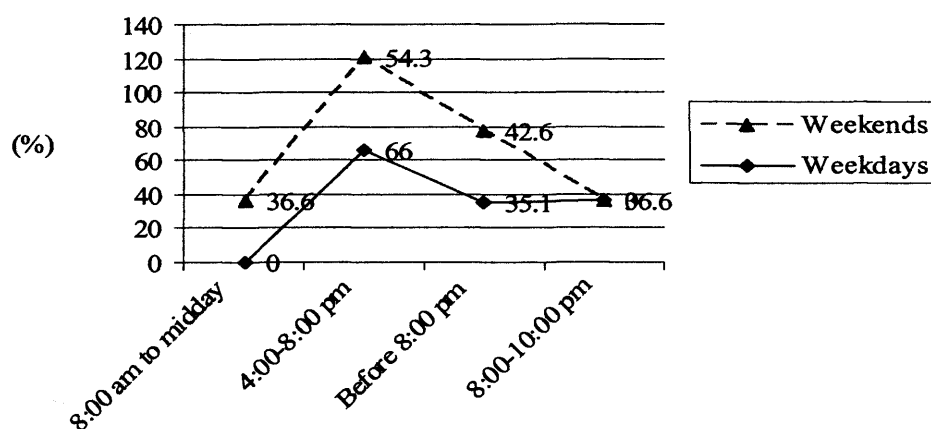
The University of Assumption led by the ABAC poll in cooperation with The Family Network Foundation, The Foundation for Child Development (FCD), and The Thai Health Promotion Foundation (ThaiHealth) surveyed public and parents about the impact of television on children and young adolescents from March to September 2003 (ABAC Poll Research Center 2003a). They reported concern on Thai youths' TV habits that related to imitated behaviours. The survey examined the activities of children and young adolescents aged between 3 and 12 years old in their free time particularly in their school holidays in both weekdays and weekends. This was provided by parents' observation and was found that their children usually watched TV in most of their time. The second favourite activities for children were 'playing with friend', followed by watching video/DVD, went shopping, and went to fitness centre.

ABAC Poll Assumption University is the central agency of national surveying and polling in Bangkok and across the nation and ensuring its validity, reliability, frequency, methodology, and its objective. Nowadays it seems that polling in Thailand has a more important role in areas such as economy, society, and politics. In the United States of America, Polling is almost related as a daily life event with of an average American. Now ABAC Poll Research Centre of the Assumption University is progressing to the fourth year in poll conducting in the Thai society. The source of ABAC Poll Research Centre constitutes of the Director of Research Center, Prof. Dr. Srisak Chamaraman, statisticians, assistant researchers, and over 500 staffs to collect data all over the country.

ABAC's data revealed that most Thai youths watched TV almost everyday. They spent about 5-7 days per week and on an average of 3-5 hours a day. On average, the total hours of viewing from Monday to Friday that Thai youths spent was

3.49 hours a day. Meanwhile, on weekends they spent time watching TV on average of 5.51 hours a day. These are illustrated in Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5 Three- to Twelve-Year-Old Viewers' Television Viewing Time Reported by ABAC Poll



Source: ABAC Poll Research Center (2003a)

As shown in Figure 3.5, ABAC Poll's survey revealed that young adolescents mostly watched TV from 4:00 p.m. to 8:00 p.m. on weekdays (66.0%). On weekends, they watched TV from 8:00 a.m. to noon the most (36.6%). ABAC's report was consistent with Carveth and Alexander (1985), who studied that much of children's occasional viewing occurred during school vacations. However, children were typically home by 3:00 p.m. Other regular viewing occurred during lunch hours, from videocassette recorders or during free periods at school. Similar to Thailand television, Alexander (1985) found that one of TV serials, which is designed to attract young audience by the addition of teen-related storylines and aired at 3:00 p.m. after school, has become quite famous and the most frequent watched serials for his sample respondents.

In addition to that, the officials from Child Watch Organization had carried out a pilot project in 12 provinces in all regions of the country, expressed their concerns that the younger generation is growing up in a morally objectionable environment, a situation that could have consequences for the nation's future (Nationmultimedia 24 February 2003).

Project Co-ordinator Amornvitch Nakhorntub said that Thai children spent more time watching television than in the past, which was 1,000 to 1,200 hours a year, than they do in the classroom, where they spent 900 to 1,000 hours a year. Furthermore, Dr Chanpen Chupraphawan, Deputy Director of the Health Systems Research Institute provided Thai study, which showed a worrying figure that local children spent an average of 2.5 hours watching TV on weekdays and five hours on Saturdays and Sundays. As a result, nearly half of all children these days, she said, had relatively low intelligence levels, with substandard IQ test scores of around 90.

3.7 Concerns about Adolescents' Imitated Behaviours from Television

An emerging awareness of the popularity of dramas among Thai young adolescents has given rise to public concern about what these young viewers may be learning from their exposure. The degree to which depictions of men and women in the media are based on gender stereotypes may impact on adolescent consumers.

There has been a case, as the public alarm for the Thai government, media producers and the public to be fully aware of the consequences of imitated behaviours by young viewers. In January 2006, a six-year-old girl, Ice, copied the behaviour of the leading female character in the "Nang Bab" drama by hanging herself on the kitchen door. This happened the day after Ice watched "Nang Bab" with her family and saw the character acting as slave and hanged herself as the way of public punishment. The girl asked her mother what would happen with this character and her mother reluctantly replied that she would become a ghost.

After being rescued by neighbours, the girl was released from the tight rope strangled on her neck. The girl's father asked her why she did this. She replied that she wanted to know what "the death" was so she pulled the electric wire from the second floor of the house and wrapped around her neck but accidentally the chair she was standing on fell off. The drama was broadcast in the evening but unfortunately young viewers were likely to watch TV around that time. Parents needed to give advice and guidance on TV to their children before this incident might occur again.

Thai psychiatrists expressed their concerns that the media were contributing to the declining moral integrity of Thai youth. Television came in for particular

criticism with psychiatrists saying that the increased focus of local programmes on materialism, sexuality and violence was driving people's obsessions with these subjects. At a seminar on "What Thai Youth Learn from Thai Media?" held by the Royal Psychiatrist College in Bangkok, Pongpana Limsuwan, Chief of Ramathibodi Hospital's Psychiatry Department suggested that "Naturally, people tended to copy rather than analyse and create their own behaviour" (Nationmultimedia 5 December 2002).

The psychiatrist Pongpana was personally anxious about the media's influence on her own family so she did not subscribe to cable TV when her children were in high school for the fear that they would be influenced by the sexuality and violence presented in some programmes. Kasem Tantiphachaiwa, a psychiatrist from Somdej Chaophraya Hospital, added that children under six years of age were most vulnerable to media influences and they should not be allowed to watch television.

One of the respected monks has also voiced concern that Thai children did not know how to think because they shunned reading and preferred to watch TV and movies (Nationmultimedia 10 December 2002). Phrathep Sophon, Rector of the monks' university Maha Chulalongkorn Rajjavitthayalai, raised the point during a seminar at the fourth Reading Festival at the Bangkok Palace Hotel that Thai children and teenagers liked to watch movies and TV more than reading, so they did not develop their knowledge. He added that children should be taught to love reading and to think about what they read.

One of the media screenwriters, Nathiya Sirakornvilai, admitted that her job was restrained by "capitalism". She claimed that her job was among the last processes of the production and depended on the sponsors to choose which type of drama to be aired, and no matter how high the ratings were, screenwriters did not get a share of the pie. She added that if, as in many developed countries, writers would be paid by the government or independent services and chances were there would be more creative entertainment."

Somsak Kanha, the Programme Director for the Art and Culture Institute for Development, or the so-called Maya group, stated that young people spent about 2,236 hours watching television each year, way more than their 1,600 hours in the

classroom (Nationmultimedia 19 November 2003). Vijarn urged that it would be time for families, teachers and communities to encourage the need to expose children to better stimulus, which should be favourable to their learning process. For example, older members of society should teach children how to cook, or to make handicrafts and toys.

Also, there would be a need to persuade children to do exercise for their physical strength, which would solve the obesity problem. Ladda said that the low IQ among children was a result of the fact that many parents did not know how to encourage their children for their learning abilities. She added that parents appeared to have inadequate information about healthcare for their children as well. "Parents tended to leave it all to teachers when it came to their children's learning. Their children's health was thrust into the hands of doctors. In fact, parents needed to play a role in both areas," Ladda asserted.

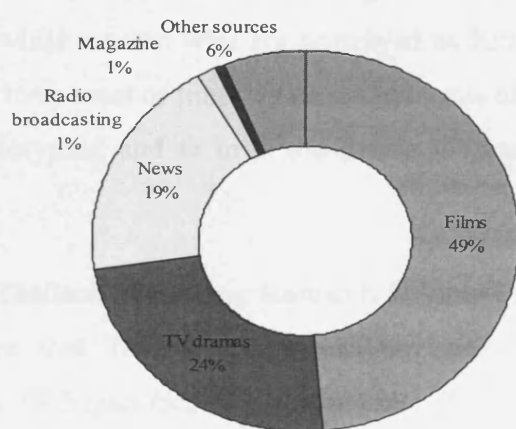
Another study of Thai youths' TV consumption is that the government concentrated solely on children's programmes, forgetting that children could be watching adults' programmes with their family and in their free time. Attawut Trakitthorncharoen, one of the teachers, cautioned authorities about determining news programmes and dramas to affect children's attitudes and behaviours. News features violent content, as well as TV dramas. Although the vigilant characters generally suffered in the end, children were unlikely to follow through every episode that far. Attawut pointed out that he was worried that the children may glimpse bad scenes from the dramas and learn to imitate those behaviours (Nationmultimedia 8 December 2003).

In 2003, a Family Foundation, a Children Development Foundation and Fund Office for the Development of Health had been cooperated with ABAC Poll Research Department Assumption University in conducting a field survey under the topic "Effects of Television Advertisement Toward the Children and the Young" during the period of 28 March and 8 April 2003 (ABAC Poll Research Centre 2003b). According to ABAC poll, television was reported having an influence on children's behaviour. From the observation of the parents, TV shows were found to have the influence on Thai youths' behaviour in the 'Moderate to the higher level' in both positive and negative ways. Most parents agreed that 'television shows' helped their

children in developing knowledge while providing entertainment and reducing tension on the ‘Great’ level, but television shows also had the bad influence about young teenagers’ spending behaviours and copying of characters’ styles. Furthermore, Thai youths imitated the dress style, the inappropriate conversation including cursing, swearing; and violent behaviours such as hitting and gun shooting, in the ‘Moderate to the lesser level’.

In order to find out what young teenagers think about violence, Research Institute of Bangkok University conducted a survey titled “Are Teenaged Students the Violent Trouble-Makers?” (Bangkok University Research Poll 2003b). Survey questionnaires about “Students and Violence” were collected from randomly selected 1,142 Students in Bangkok area, in which 45.3% were male and 54.7% were female aged between 11 and 14 years old, in lower secondary (39.8%) and upper secondary or high school (60.2%) education during 15 – 17 June 2003 at communal places such as shopping malls, academic and language tutorial schools. The margin of error was $\pm 5\%$ at the reliability of 95%. The result was shown in Figure 3.6.

Figure 3.6 The Cause of Imitated Behaviours of Violence by Media Reported by Bangkok University Poll



Source: Bangkok University Poll (2003)

As shown in Figure 3.6, Bangkok University Poll indicated that 63.3% of the respondents told that the violence made by students were the cause of imitated

behaviour from films for 48.5% and TV dramas for 23.9. When asked who were the most influential persons for students' imitation behaviour, the respondents told that 45.3% came from TV stars and singers, 23.1% from parents, 19.3% from friends.

One drama evidently reflected the gender stereotypes and inequity in Thai society. Thai actress, Pornsita "Bens" Na Songkhla filmed as female character, who was portrayed psychologically abused by her father, Nirut Sirichanya, and when she has her own daughter, the child becomes her victim in turn. The public denied if this should be considered as entertaining, but a mirror of the society or morality. This scenario was played out on one of the many series on TV that are said to be plagued with women's stereotypes. The producers and the advertisers said they merely took their lead from society, not vice versa, and that they alone were not to blame. Many viewers enjoyed Bens' character in "Tabtawan" primetime drama while others tuned in for the jarring scenes of abuse, said Boonrat Apichattrisorn, a Women's Right Advocate and the Foreign News Editor of Kom Chad Luek Newspaper (Nationmultimedia 10 July 2003).

Boonrat, at a recent seminar organised by the Office of Women's Affairs and Family Development under the Ministry of Social Development and Human Security, argued that the media were in part constructing gender bias in Thai society and pronounced on TV that, "You can see 'bad' girls sexually harassing the male lead actors every day, while women who are portrayed as having achieved great careers fail in their family lives most of time." The seminar was organised to raise awareness about gender stereotyping and to urge the media to send out better signals about women.

A study by Thailand Marketing Research Society (TMRS) reported that there was half a chance that Thai youths would be influenced by media and peers (Nationmultimedia 18 September 2002). In 2002, TMRS attempted to understand what characterized teenagers. The TMRS set the research survey on "Understanding Thai Teens" and analysed the opinions of 1,200 youths aged between 13 and 18 years old in major cities nationwide. Such work was carried out during July 20 - August 5. It was presented at the conference held at the Imperial Queen's Park hotel with around 300 participants. TMRS found that Thai teens were not only spending more time chatting on the phone, watching soap operas and game shows on television, craving

brand name goods and worshipping superstars, they were also very much concerned with social issues and their responsibilities in life.

To understand Thai teens clearly, TMRS researchers categorised them into four main group characteristics. Among 1,200 respondents, most of them (28%) were “Liberal”, 27% were “Individualists”, 25% were “Follower or Mainstream”, and 20% as “Image seekers”. Among these, the follower or mainstream category and the image seeker category were most likely to be influenced by things they saw for a period of time. The youths identified in these categories would avoid taking a leading role but rather seek acceptance from their friends and would most likely be influenced by their peers, TV and family backgrounds, respectively.

Though the characteristics of Thai teens were defined at some extent, they were considered having a transitional period in their lives. "Some findings conflicted just because they [Thai youths] were still searching for their own identities and something they wanted to adhere to," said Dr Kreaovan Limapichat, TMRS Adviser and Market Researcher. According to TMRS's study, teens spent on the average of three hours per day talking to friends during the week and on the average of five hours per day watching TV on weekends. They spent 1.7 hours a day on homework mid-week but less at weekends.

While the research study from TMRS was based on the youths aged between 13 and 18, Thailand Research Fund (TRF) studied youths aged between 1 and 18 in 2003, and apparently their research findings were distinctive. TRF reported that a compulsive desire to watch television for several hours a day hampered children's intellectual quotient (IQ), limited their creativity, and dragged them away from healthy exercise. That was the warning from Dr Vijarn Panich, Adviser to Thailand Research Fund (TRF), who blamed television-viewing habits for child obesity and youngsters' personal development (Nationmultimedia 1 October 2003).

More than half of children aged between 6 and 18 years old had a low IQ, according to TRF survey. In a standard IQ ranged from 90 to 110 points, TRF survey found that respondents aged from 6 to 12 years old had an average IQ of 91.2, while older respondents had an average IQ of only 89 points. Most respondents aged 10 or

more were also reported lacking creativity, an ability to think analytically, and being unable to manage their emotions and solve problems.

The survey, headed by a university lecturer Associates Professor Ladda Mohsuwan, covered 9,488 children aged from 1 to 18 years old across the country, reported that at least 8% of the country's 12 million children have been obese. Many children were fat and did not have much intellectual, emotional and ethical developments because they watched too much television. On average, the respondents watched TV for 2 to 3 hours every weekday. And on holidays it was double, with respondents aged between 13 and 18 years old saying they spent nearly five hours a day in front of "the tube".

Women's Affairs and Family Development Office Director Suwit Kuntaroj reported to a meeting of officials and other 50 media members that its survey found that 73.2% of Thai people felt that most soap operas did not appropriately raise public awareness of the impact of domestic violence on children and women. However, Channel 7's "Sai Nam Sam Chivit" drama was one that did raise such awareness, he added. Women's Affairs and Family Development Office carried out the survey of 1,899 people of all ages in January 2007. It was found that more than 53% of all respondents believed that local television dramas appropriately promote the role of women and men with gender equality (Nationmultimedia 20 January 2007). However, slightly less than half, which was 41.4% of the respondents, responded that there was no soap opera that appropriately portrayed a family's love and understanding in solving problems without violence. The Head and Working-Team Member at Friends of Women Foundation Supensri Puengkoaksoong added that many television soap operas and advertisements were found to trigger violence. Thai soap operas had violent scenes resulting young audiences to copy those violent actions. Films and TV soap operas often carried implicit sexual and violent messages (Nationmultimedia 14 January 2007).

3.8 The Disputes over the Newly Introduced Television Rating System

Concerned parents and social workers have long worried about the lack of mechanisms to control sex, violence, and unpleasantness on television, the most powerful and far-reaching medium for viewers of all age groups. Especially worrying

is the lack of choice in quality entertainment and the fact that broadcasters gravitate toward the kind of programming that appeals to the lowest common denominator because it is good for their ratings and rakes in tonnes of money. That means evening prime-time entertainment is dominated by dramas featuring excessive profanity, violence and sex. As a result many children, particularly those belonging to poor households or families with non-existent parental supervision, are exposed to this poor quality and potentially harmful content. Many social workers and educators believe prolonged exposure to such gender-role TV programming could have adverse effects on impressions of youths. The correlation between exposure to on-screen violence and real-life violence in young people has been well documented in numerous studies as mentioned earlier in this chapter.

The first important step in improving TV programmes including dramas by the Government in many years took place in December 2003. All six national TV networks, prodded by the Government's Public Relations Department and the Broadcasting Control Board, introduced a voluntary rating system. The Social Development and Human Security Ministry proposed the ideas of promoting the constructive media for children and family. The text included identifying the suitable viewing age for a programme and the age recommendations. This has actually been acted since the end of year 2006 with the hope that this would give a promising result to Thai television for the years to come. Under the new voluntary rating system, each television network analyses its own programmes, including dramas, game shows and celebrity chat shows, and rates them into categories based on their suitability for different groups of viewers, which include pre-school children, young children, early teens, late teens and general viewers. Programmes will be labelled accordingly and accompanied by specific and helpful parental advice that will make it easier for parents to decide whether to allow their children to watch them. Parents will know at a glance whether they should offer some guidance or whether it is safe to let their children watch without supervision. There will also be programmes meant for a mature audience only, which are to be clearly labelled as unsuitable for children and young people.

There are positive rewards to be gained from encouraging broadcasters to take the initiative in self-regulation so that television networks and producers conduct their

business in a socially responsible manner. The system has the added benefit of making redundant state censorship, which can impinge on artistic freedom, freedom of expression or the public's right to information. One of the ideas being pushed by media-freedom campaigners is the establishment of a public broadcasting system similar to the British Broadcasting Corporation, which is free from political interference and greedy, low-brow commercial media executives.

To test if the newly introduced voluntary rating system by the Thai Government would be practical for TV audiences, in June 2006, The Culture Minister invited 5,000 people from all walk of life to join a voluntary committee to rate television programmes on all media. The ministry launched the Media Evaluation (ME) System Project, following a Cabinet resolution in October 2005, requiring it to develop a ratings method for the media, including television, radio, films, the Internet and computer games (NationMultimedia 28 June 2006). Culture Ministry Secretary-General Khunying Dhipavadee Meksawan also encouraged at least 5,000 people to register at websites of www.me.in.th or www.me.or.th to join the committee. She suggested that Culture Ministry had identified initial ways of assessing media for this six-plus-one system of gauges. Programmes were judged on how they set people thinking, such as whether people seek academic knowledge, were taught morality, were detailed skills for living, were encouraged of social awareness with an emphasis on cultural differences, and whether people were promoted good family values. Among the six plus one gauges, the “final” gauge rates sexual, linguistic and violence-related content. Parents, teachers and the media were also encouraged to join the evaluation enterprise to determine how the government supported each programme and what time it should be broadcast. Rating will be explained in details later in this chapter.

Problems occurred on Government's newly introduced television rating system were unbearable. Attempting to regulate a habit in which people have long indulged is like stirring up a hornets' nest. This is true as Thai authorities are recently attempting to introduce ratings and corresponding restrictions on programmes showed on free television stations, which have an audience of tens of millions nationwide (NationMultimedia 3 August 2007). For most of the six free TV stations in Thailand, their highest money-makers are Thai soap operas whose content would put them

under the Parental Guidance and Restricted categories under the new rating criteria. Although this may leave the TV industry fuming over the sacrifice of the freedom they have long enjoyed in producing various programmes, the regulators may win applause from the majority of ordinary citizens for their courage in asserting such control for the greater public benefit.

According to the Culture Ministry and the Public Relations Department, the new rating handbook was implemented on a trial basis from September 2007 to ensure it was understood. The handbook allowed programmes with "Por" (suitable for children aged three to five), "Dor" (suitable for children aged six to 12), and "Thor" rating (suitable for all ages) to be aired at any time. However, programmes with the "Chor" rating (adults only) will only be broadcast from 10:00 p.m. to 5:00 a.m. The "Nor" rating at present is divided into "Nor 13" (suitable for ages 13 and above) and "Nor 18" (suitable for ages 18 and above). The "Nor 13" can be aired from 9:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. and 8:00 p.m. to 5:00 a.m. on weekdays, and from 11:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. and 8:00 p.m. to 5:00 a.m. on weekends. Programmes with the "Nor 18" rating can be aired from 9:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. and 9:00 p.m. to 5:00 a.m. on weekdays and from 11:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. and 9:00 p.m. to 5:00 a.m. on weekends.

Since most of the widely popular Thai dramas that draw big advertising are currently shown between 4:00 p.m. and 8:00 p.m., shifting the show times to later at night could mean a big loss of income for TV stations. For instance, a study released by the National Institute for Child and Family Development estimated that Channels 3 and 7, the country's biggest competitors in TV soap operas, make, a combined 1.05 billions Thai currency a month from commercials aired during the dramas (NationMultimedia 27 August 2007). Thailand's Media-Making Youth Network supports the rating scheme, especially the designation of timeslots to protect young viewers. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child also urged all countries to encourage the media to publish useful information to society and promote guideline development to prevent children from harmful information (NationMultimedia 20 July 2007). The slate of TV offerings these days gave the young generation no choice. Programmes in general portrayed similar things in similar ways. They did not stimulate youngsters' curiosity and learning, while those

programmes targeting young viewers also lacked attractive presentation. TV Rating system's classification and content are as shown in Figure 3.7.

Figure 3.7 Television Rating System Thailand

	<h3>TV ratings</h3> <p>"Por" classification – appropriate for children aged between three and five years old. Content: No rude, aggressive and sarcastic words / No slang / No frightening or heart-rending scenes / No violence / No scenes about prize-giving from lucky draws</p>
	<p>"Dor" classification – appropriate for children aged between six and 12 years old. Content: No rude, aggressive and sarcastic words / No slang / No frightening or heart-rending scenes / No violence / No scenes about prize-giving from lucky draws</p>
	<p>"Tor" classification – appropriate for general viewers Content: No rude, aggressive and sarcastic words / No slang / No frightening or heart-rending scenes / no violence / No scenes about prize-giving from lucky draws / No love scenes such as kissing or hugging</p>
	<p>"Nor" classification – parental guidance required if watched by viewers aged between 13 and 18 years of age Content: No nude scenes / No scenes featuring sexual activities / Scenes featuring physical contact of characters aged over 13 years old allowed if not arousing sexual fantasy / Frequency of scenes including violence, sex and wrong grammar is allowed once or twice in each episode or scene. Airtime: 9am-4pm Monday-Friday; 8pm-5am Saturdays, Sundays and holi?days.</p>
	<p>"Chor" classification – appropriate for viewers aged over 18 years old Content: No nude scenes / No scenes featuring sexual activities / Scenes featuring physical contact of characters aged over 13 years old allowed if not arousing sexual fantasy / Frequency of scenes including violence, sex and wrong grammar is allowed more than three times in each episode or scene. Airtime: 10pm-4am.</p>

Source: NationMultimedia (27 August 2007)

Chutima Jaikhong, a junior at Sukhothai Thammathirat (NationMultimedia 20 July 2007) added that nearly all TV channels run dramas soaked with violence and romance, which are not educational for kids and even prompt them to grow up prematurely in a negative way, especially watching these programmes without parental guidance while the new rating system would come in handy.

International comment from Jonas Delleveaf, an 18-year-old representative from the Philippines, put that his predominantly Catholic country has a rating system supervised by the Movie and Television Review and Classification Board (NationMultimedia 20 July 2007). He suggested that it assigns symbols to programmes that indicate their content and viewing groups and thus TV programmes are not violent. Thailand should thus have a rating system in place while parents help providing guidance to young viewers.

Yet, it is not the end of the road for dramas. Dr. Panpimon Lortrakul, the Director of the Rajanukul Institute and an Adviser to the Committee developing the rating system, pointed out at a seminar at Thailand Knowledge Park (NationMultimedia 20 July 2007) that the new rating system would allow TV dramas to be aired. Dramas that teach about goodness and ethics can be broadcast during the times most children watch television. TV dramas with scenes of violence and rude language could be on air after 10:00 p.m. With the fact that children watch television for 3 to 5 hours a day and so the content of television programmes heavily influenced their behaviours, thinking and decisions, the TV rating system will ensure that children watch what is appropriate for their development. It will not only benefit children, but will also encourage more diversity and better quality of programmes.

Sanpasit Kumpraphan, Director of the Centre for the Protection of Children, also added that most dramas in the country are far-fetched (NationMultimedia 20 July 2007). For instance, in many dramas the hero rapes the heroine but they end up living together happily. In reality, no woman would like a person who raped her. Simultaneously, Supon Vichienchai, Director and executive of BEC Tero, said he supported the ratings and air-time restrictions, but the rating guidelines should be detailed so that producers would know how to abide by the rules in practice. For example, kissing and French kissing are different, he claimed.

The panel will see if programmes aired are suitable to the time and audience by receiving “real” information from all sides by the Media Evaluation team of the Culture Ministry, which will help the subcommittee to adjust the ratings. There are still some issues to be taken into account. For example, air-time scheduling is the main consideration since there are different opinions on whether “prime time” should start at 8:00 p.m., 8:30 p.m. or 9:00 p.m., and it will be an ideal for the panel if “Thor” programmes are aired during prime time. Meanwhile, Channel 3's Operation Manager, Somrak Narong-Wichai, has given the comment that prime time programmes for Channel 3 station will remain unchanged until the end of year 2007 but programme content will be adjusted. For instance dramas aired at 7:00 p.m. will be less violent and more educational.

In fact, what actually required here underneath all the Government's efforts are not simply a ban on prime-time dramas, but a new mindset among those in the television industry. Good TV programmes do not need to be violent or contain foul language to be successful. People in drama business might have had it easy for too long with their formula of success, producing serials based on the same old plots of violence, jealousy and sex roles. Television producers must now confront their fear having to work outside their comfort zone by doing things differently and creatively.

3.9 Conclusion

Thailand television is the most popular mass medium. The situation of TV broadcasting services and Government in Thailand has brought many problems in terms of policy making, political, social and cultural issues that have led to the concern that Thai adolescents might be using TV. For instance, all commercial TV stations rely heavily on advertising revenue to cover operating costs. Programming tends to resemble the commercial format popular in other countries. The programmes must meet with the acceptance and appeal of the audience at large.

The concern has arisen since TV dramas are found to portray sexuality, stereotypical roles, and violence both physically and mentally while the broadcasting time is when most youth watched television, which is in the early evening and after news and current affairs programmes. TV dramas still hold the stereotypical roles of people's lives in and out the city, the fights over girls, and repetition of the stories that

have already been filmed before only to introduce the new actors and actresses. Meanwhile, factual statistics provided that women's status such as employment is narrower than men while the Broadcasting regulations are still under many disputes, among the government, media producers, journalists and professionals.

Many statistics such as ACNielsen Media Index, 2001 The National Statistical Office of Thailand, ABAC Poll were reported. TV programmes are very powerful forces in Thai societies because Thai youths identify strongly with the things they see on TV and relate it to their everyday lives. Professional individuals, mass communications researchers and Governmental agencies such as the officials from Child Watch Organization, and parents have expressed their concerns about the imitation of behaviours, dress style, violent behaviours portrayed from television, particularly from dramas. This has been evident in the news about young girl who tried to copy the behaviour from the female character in the "Nan Bab" drama by hanging herself on the kitchen door because she wanted to know what "the death" was as her mother did not explained her clearly about this. The introduction of new TV rating system from the Government has been through furious resistance from TV producers but given very warm supports from the public and used as a trial basis since September 2007 but still recur many disputes nowadays.

Chapter 4 : Methodology of Study

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is designed to examine the methodology used in investigating TV content and audience perceptions and their relationship regarding cultivation analysis, following Gerbnerian model. It investigates the links between reported viewing of television by young people in Thailand and their perceptions of specific aspects of social reality. These specific aspects of social reality are mainly categorised as social attributes, marriage, family, and occupational roles. Content analyses carried out in this thesis highlight the estimates of TV reality and a survey questionnaire composed of distinct questions of TV reality and the real world. Hypotheses and research questions will be highlighted on the frequencies of male and female distribution of roles on TV, the perceptions of light in comparison with heavy viewers. Details are provided later in this chapter. It is hoped that the current research will help correct the weaknesses that have been criticized by previous studies and hope that this research could contribute to the development of cultivation analysis with a rigorous statistic and strong findings that do not ignore the importance of the type of programmes, and other social factors involved.

4.2 Hypotheses and Research Question

The hypotheses and research questions were established in the responses to the primary focus of the thesis as mentioned previously in the introduction of the thesis in relations to the content analysis and audience perception of social attributes, marriage, family and occupational roles.

4.2.1. Hypotheses

The key hypotheses were developed in two main compartments, which were composed of content analysis and audience survey as indicated below.

4.2.1.1 The portrayal of social attributes, marriage, family or domestic, and occupational roles

Content analysis of social attributes, marriage, family or domestic, and occupational roles is hypothesized as follows.

H1: Males will appear more frequently on TV than females. (Head 1954; Smythe 1954; Gerbner 1972; Courtney and Whipple 1974; Sternglanz and Serbin 1974; Streicher 1974; Tedesco 1974; Turow 1974; Miles 1975; O'Kelly and Bloomquist 1976; Cantor 1979; Greenberg *et al* 1982; Signorielli 1984)

H2: Males will appear more often in marriage roles of 'single' or 'unmarried' than females while females will appear more often in 'married' role than males. (Gerbner 1972; Tedesco 1974; Signorielli 1991; Chow-Hou Wee *et al* 1995; Survey of Population Change 1995-1996 from Thailand National Statistics Office's Population and Housing Census)

H3: Males will appear more often in the following social attributes than females: 'athletic', 'authoritative', 'aggressive', 'intelligent', 'physically helpful', 'ambitious', 'outgoing', 'unfaithful', 'criminal' and 'successful'. (Anastasi 1961; Sears *et al* 1965; Bakan 1966; Gerbner 1972; Katzman 1972; Broverman *et al* 1972; Maccoby and Jacklin 1974; Tedesco 1974; Frueh and McGhee 1975; Williams *et al* 1975; McClelland 1975; Goldsen (1975 also cited in Cantor 1979); Gerbner and Gross 1976; Gerbner *et al* 1977; Marecek *et al* 1978; Henderson and Greenberg 1980, Henderson *et al* 1980; Greenberg *et al* 1980; Buerkel-Rothfuss and Mayes 1981; Pollack and Gilligan 1983; Cassata and Skill 1983; Scheibe 1983; Benton *et al* 1983; Lovdal 1989; Dominick 1990; Signorielli 1998; Noor 1999)

H4: Females will appear more often in the following social attributes than males: 'shy', 'dependent', 'kind', 'nurturing', and 'always in trouble'. (Anastasi 1961; Bakan 1966; Broverman *et al* 1972; Gerbner 1972; Kashiwagi 1974; Tedesco 1974; Maccoby and Jacklin 1974; Turow 1974; Long and Simon 1974; Kashiwagi 1974; McClelland 1975; Frueh and McGhee 1975; Williams *et al* 1975; Tuchman 1978; Signorielli 1998; Noor 1999)

H5: Females will appear more often in the following family roles than males: 'food shopping', 'cleaning floor', 'ironing clothes', 'washing dishes', 'cooking meal', 'taking children to school', and 'disciplining children'. (Gerbner

1972; Katzman 1972; Tedesco 1974; Downing 1974; Turow 1974; McNeil 1975; Tuchman 1978; Henderson and Greenberg 1980; Morgan and Rothschild 1983; Cantor and Pingree 1985; Gilly 1988; Chow-Hou Wee *et al* 1995; Noor 1999; WMCC 2002)

H6: Males will appear more often in occupational roles than females.

(Defluer 1964; Dominick and Rauch 1971; Gerbner 1972; Seggar and Wheeler 1973; Streicher 1974; Tedesco 1974; Courtney and Whipple 1974; McNeil 1975; Verna 1975; Morgan and Rothschild 1983; Chow-Hou Wee *et al* 1995)

H7: Males will appear more often in a higher status position or a more competent job in the following occupational roles than females: management occupation ‘managing director’; professional occupations ‘engineer’, ‘teacher’, ‘judge’, ‘lawyer’, ‘scientist’, and ‘doctor’; service and transportation occupations ‘chef’, ‘police officer’, ‘ambulance / medic driver’, and ‘builder’. (Defluer 1964; Dominick and Rauch 1971; Gerbner 1972; Seggar and Wheeler 1973; Streicher 1974; Tedesco 1974; Turow 1974; McNeil 1975; Lemon 1977; Tuchman 1978; Morgan and Rothschild 1983; Brettl and Cantor 1988; Signorielli 1989; Mazella *et al* 1992; Kolbe and Langefeld 1993; Chow-Hou Wee *et al* 1995)

H8: Females will appear more often in the following occupational roles than males: professional occupation ‘nurse’, and service occupation ‘secretary/ receptionist’. (Defluer 1964; Dominick and Rauch 1971; Gerbner 1972; Seggar and Wheeler 1973; Streicher 1974; Tedesco 1974; Turow 1974; McNeil 1975; Lemon 1977; Tuchman 1978; Morgan and Rothschild 1983; Brettl and Cantor 1988; Signorielli 1989; Mazella *et al* 1992; Kolbe and Langefeld 1993; Chow-Hou Wee *et al* 1995)

4.2.1.2 The study of cultivation effects

The hypotheses examined in this section are formed to test if there is an indication of cultivation effects found among heavy drama viewers. Cultivation effects are indicated as when heavy viewers’ social reality perception of attributes and roles are more consistent with TV world than light viewers’ perception of reality. Cultivation effects will be examined on the perception of social attributes, marriage,

family, and occupational roles in heavy and light drama viewers in the following hypotheses.

H9: Heavy TV viewers will differ from light TV viewers in their social reality perceptions of the following ‘male’ social attributes as heavy viewers’ perceptions are more consistent with the world of TV: ‘athletic’, ‘unfaithful’, ‘criminal’, ‘authoritative’, ‘aggressive’, ‘intelligent’, ‘outgoing’, ‘physically helpful’, ‘successful’, and ‘ambitious’. (Anastasi 1961; Bakan 1966; McClelland 1975; Maccoby and Jacklin 1974; Frueh and McGhee 1975; Williams *et al* 1975; Reeves and Lometi 1978; Morgan 1980; Buerkel-Rothfuss and Mayes 1981; Gunter 1985; Gerbner *et al* 1986; Morgan 1987)

H10: Heavy TV viewers will differ from light TV viewers in their social reality perceptions of the following ‘female’ social attributes as heavy viewers’ perceptions are more consistent with the world of TV: ‘shy’, ‘dependent’, ‘kind’, ‘nurturing’, and ‘always in trouble’. (Kashiwagi 1974; Frueh and McGhee 1975; Williams *et al* 1975; Gross and Jeffries-Fox 1978; Tuchman 1978; Gallagher 1983; Rothschild 1984; Zemach and Cohen 1986)

H11: Heavy TV viewers will differ from light TV viewers in their social reality perceptions of the following marriage roles as heavy viewers’ perceptions are more consistent with the world of TV: ‘single’ or ‘unmarried’ and ‘married’. (Gross and Jeffries-Fox 1978; Morgan 1980; Gallagher 1983; Morgan and Rothschild 1983; Rothschild 1984; Zemach and Cohen 1986)

H12: Heavy TV viewers will differ from light TV viewers in their social reality perceptions of the following family roles as heavy viewers’ perceptions are more consistent with the world of TV: ‘food shopping’, ‘cleaning floor’, ‘ironing clothes’, ‘washing dishes’, ‘cooking meal’, ‘taking children to school’, and ‘disciplining children’. (Morgan 1980; Morgan and Rothschild 1983; Zemach and Cohen 1986; Morgan 1987)

H13: Heavy TV viewers will differ from light TV viewers in their social reality perceptions of the following occupational roles as heavy viewers’ perceptions are more consistent with the world of TV: management occupation

‘managing director’; professional occupations ‘engineer’, ‘teacher’, ‘judge’, ‘lawyer’, ‘scientist’, ‘doctor’, and ‘nurse’; service and transportation and other professional occupations ‘chef’, ‘police officer’, ‘ambulance / medic driver’, ‘builder’, and ‘secretary/ receptionist’. (Boynton 1936; Deutsch 1960; O’Hara 1962; Nelson 1963; Looft 1971; Siegal 1973; Downing 1974; Tedesco 1974; Butler and Paisley 1980; Morgan and Rothschild 1983; Zemach and Cohen 1986; Signorielli 1991; Lyn Harte 1996)

4.2.1.3 The study of mainstreaming effects

The following hypotheses are aimed to discover if there is an indication of mainstreaming effects: the difference in the perceptions of social attributes, marriage, family, and occupational roles among two social groups of male and female heavy viewers is less than that found among male and female light viewers.

Another key area in cultivation theory is to study the effects that occur in heavy viewers who live in two different social group environments and their perceptions of roles are pulled together into the same televisual mainstream. Such description is named as ‘mainstreaming effects’. According to cultivation theory, as mentioned earlier in Chapter 1, mainstreaming effects are referred to as the conceptions that television viewing contributes to the cultivation of common perspectives among otherwise diverse respondents (Gerber *et al* 1980).

The mainstreaming effects occurred in a situation where there were two different social groups of heavy viewers in two different environments. For example, male heavy viewers in comparison to female heavy viewers, where male heavy viewers lived in the high-crime environment and female heavy viewers lived in the low-crime environment, the former believed that there was less crime in TV but because there was high crime in their neighbourhood, they still feared that there were lots of crimes. Meanwhile, female heavy viewers seeing many crimes portrayed on television believed that there were high crimes in TV, but as in their surrounding area there was low crime committed, their beliefs about high crime were reduced. Therefore, the perception of crime in male heavy viewers would have been reinforced while such perception in female heavy viewers would have been coaxed back to the

mainstreaming where both male and female heavy viewers would have the same level of crime perceptions.

H14: Male and female heavy TV viewers will display narrower differences than male and female light TV viewers in their perceptions of the following 'male' social attributes: 'athletic', 'unfaithful', 'criminal', 'authoritative', 'aggressive', 'intelligent', 'outgoing', 'physically helpful', and 'successful'. (Doob and MacDonald 1979 also cited in Condry 1989; Gerbner *et al* 1980 and 1981; Morgan 1987)

H15: Male and female heavy TV viewers will display narrower differences than male and female light TV viewers in the perceptions of the following 'female' social attributes: 'shy', 'dependent', 'kind', 'nurturing', 'always in trouble', and 'ambitious'. (Gerber *et al* 1980 and 1981; Morgan 1987)

H16: Male and female heavy TV viewers will display narrower differences than male and female light TV viewers in the perceptions of the following marriage roles: 'single' or 'unmarried' and 'married'. (Gerber *et al* 1980 and 1981; Morgan 1987)

H17: Male and female heavy TV viewers will display narrower differences than male and female light TV viewers in the perceptions of the following family roles: 'food shopping', 'cleaning floor', 'ironing clothes', 'washing dishes', 'cooking meal', 'taking children to school', and 'disciplining children'. (Gerbner *et al* 1980 and 1981; Morgan 1987)

H18: Male and female heavy TV viewers will display narrower differences than male and female light TV viewers in the perceptions of the following occupational roles: management occupation 'managing director'; professional occupations 'engineer', 'teacher', 'judge', 'lawyer', 'scientist', 'doctor', and 'nurse'; service and transportation occupations 'chef', 'police officer', 'ambulance/ medic driver', 'builder', and 'secretary/ receptionist'. (Gerbner *et al* 1980 and 1981; Morgan 1987)

4.2.2 Research Question

There is another issue that I wish to explore but outside the scope of hypotheses. This issue relates to testing if cultivation effects remain significant after controlling for related variables. Despite the fact that previous Western and Eastern studies raise concerns on such matter, this analysis will employ variables that are related to the respondents' social and demographic backgrounds. This issue will be formed as a research question and will be explained further under this heading section. The research question is distributed as follows.

Q1: Will the perception of social attributes, marriage, family, and occupational roles in viewers, particularly the light and heavy viewers, remain significant after controlling for the following variables: (1) age, (2) gender, (3) education, (4) TV availability in bedroom, (5) the influences of (a) parents (b) friends and (c) celebrities in (I) what to wear, (II) how to behave and (III) what job to have), (6) TV channel viewing measurement of channel 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, ITV and UBC/Sky cable TV?

As previously mentioned in Section 2.6 **The Significance of Television Viewers' Attribute and Role Perceptions While Being Controlled for Related Variables**, page 74, that there were several previous studies that attempted to test the relationships between attribute and role perceptions and TV viewing while controlling for different variables. Some research found that after controlling for related variables, the relationship between the respondents' perceptions of gender-roles and TV viewing remained significant. These included; for example, Gerbner and his associates (1979) who found that the association between amount of television viewing and perception of violence remained even after variables of sex, age, education and, in the case of one sample of adolescents, IQ, have been individually controlled. Another example was Signorielli and Lears (1992) who found statistically significant relationships between television viewing and sex-typed attitudes that were maintained even after controlling for multiple relevant variables including demographic variables as well as the children's specific behaviours or their social background regarding to the chores.

Nevertheless, some previous studies found that cultivation effects were reduced or eliminated after controlling for some variables. For example, Fox and Philliber's (1978) study on the perceptions of affluence which sustains Doob and MacDonald's finding in 1979 that careful controls of various variables tend to reduce or eliminate cultivation effects. The finding in British societies by Gunter and Wober's (1982) survey which found the significant relationships between viewing of serious action-drama programme and perceptions of women both on television and in actuality, but were not found in viewing of other kinds of programme.

Similarly, McLuhan (1988) found that an increased positive attitude toward Americans was observed among the members of the video exchange group, but not the control group. Also, another study made by Kolbeins (2002) to investigate whether one finds the cultivation effect in Iceland. Kolbein found that after putting age, gender, family cohesion / family violence as control variables in the regression, the relationship between viewing of television violence or news and feeling safe or unsafe disappeared / become non-significant. Additionally, Gallagher (1983) did not control level of education, self-perceived intelligent as well as parental attitudes to find out if such positive relationship between television viewing and gender-typed attitudes and behaviours would or would not remain significant. Therefore, her data on significant relationships on such term could possibly be reduced partly or all together after controlling for these importance factors.

This research question is; therefore, aimed at finding out whether the relationships between the perception of social attributes, marriage, family and occupational roles, and TV viewing measurement remained significantly related to TV viewers after controlling for related variables including demographic and social variables as mentioned earlier. To test these hypotheses and research question, I have employed two methods of research, which are a coding frame on one hand and questionnaire on the other, to provide a background for assessment of the responses. The rest of this chapter will endeavour to explain the use of the chosen methodologies.

4.3 Quantitative Content Analysis on Television Drama Programmes

Television content is assessed and analysed in order to identify the most recurrent and stable patterns of images and values in TV drama programmes. The Reliability of the coding frame was checked. The quality of data reflected the reliability of the measurement used. Reliability in content analysis was defined as agreement among coders about categorising content that were relevant to the study goal. Two coders were used. One was the researcher as a primary coder and the other coder, both of which were trained to apply those definitions to the content of interest. The pilot sessions were run first before engaging in the full reliability checking. Such process ended with the assessment of reliability through coder reliability tests. Such tests indicate numerically how well the concept definitions have controlled the assignment of content to appropriate analytic categories. The Scott-Pi test statistic was used as reliability coefficient. The level of agreement between the two coders = 90% with a desired confidence level of .05 (95% confidence level). After running the Kappa test statistic the chance or expected agreement to make reliability figure is 0.90 or 90%.

It is important to remark that in defining the categories and subcategories, the researcher needs to clarify the concepts that might have more than one dimension in their meaning and a number of ways to measure those dimension's meanings. Although the researcher was unable to manifest the concepts such as by counting names because as it was not the best method for the aim of the research, the researcher was studying latent content and looked for the meaning embedded in the content. In other words, the application of defined concepts relied on coder interpretation of content meaning following the object of the research, which should be clearly understood by different audiences. The coders' reliability assessment including the selection procedures and Test for Chance Agreement will be discussed later in this chapter.

4.3.1 Coding session

Each coding session lasted 1 hour and the coders had a 15-minute break before starting another session. The content analysis protocol or the documentary record was made. This is to ensure that content coded on Day 1 of a study should be coded in the

identical way on Day 7 of the study and to make it possible for other researchers to interpret results and replicate the study. The first part, which was an introduction, the researcher specified the goals of the study and generally introducing the major concepts and how they are defined. The second part, which was about the content of the coding schedule, the researcher specified the procedures governing how the content was to be processed. The protocol directed coders to mark those story paragraphs containing sources in some contention of who made attributed statements. The protocol specified further that after one coder had done this, a second coder would review the markings to check the first coder's judgments. Disagreements were resolved by a third tie-breaker coder. This could be seen as identifying content to be coded rather than classifying the content itself. The third part of the protocol specified each category used in the content analysis. For each category, the overall operational definition was given, along with the definitions of the values of each subcategory.

4.3.2 Coding sheet for Thailand television drama programmes, 2005

The following definitions were important in selecting and analyzing the content under study.

I) Time slot for recording TV programmes

TV programmes were recorded for one week from Monday 6th – Sunday 12th January 2006. On weekdays, the programmes were recorded from 3:00 p.m. to 11:00 p.m. and on weekends the programmes were recorded from 11:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m. and 6:00 p.m. to 11:00 p.m. The programmes selected were TV dramas that were broadcast from mid-day to midnight corresponding to the survey questionnaires where the students were asked regarding their perceptions of roles and other attributes portrayed on TV dramas and in real life. The recording time slot was as follows:

Table 4.1 Date and Time Recording TV programmes

Week	Channel	Mon-Fri	Sat, Sun
1	3	3:00 p.m.-11:00 p.m.	11:00 a.m.-2:00 p.m. and 6:00 p.m.-11:00 p.m.
1	7	3:00 p.m.-11:00 p.m.	11:00 a.m.-2:00 p.m. and 6:00 p.m.-11:00 p.m.

Television programmes from the two most popular channels in Thailand, Channels 3 and 7, were recorded throughout the week. Young adolescents finished schools at 3:00 p.m., so weekdays were recorded from 3:00 p.m. to 11:00 p.m. which came into 8 hours recording time each day. The time slot was different on weekends because the young audiences did not go to school and therefore watched TV for longer hours than weekdays from morning programmes throughout the day.

II) TV drama programmes

TV drama programmes in Thailand are categorised into two types in terms of time of transmission: those transmitted during the day up to 8pm (noon to 8:00 p.m.) and those transmitted after the 8 o'clock news programmes, which are aired from 8:00 to 8:30 pm, until midnight (8:30 pm to midnight). Both time slots are restricted to a limit of adult and violent scenes or strong languages along with the policy of the rating system as mentioned in Chapter 3. In reporting my data, I always specify which of these samples of programming is involved: the noon and early evening dramas, or the late evening and midnight dramas. I have, in my analysis, compared the two (factor and regression analyses) when looking for specific answers and combined the two (Chi Square analysis) when there is the need for an overall outcome for my analysis.

III) Characters

The main characters of males and females were analysed. In line with Bretl and Cantor (1988), a primary character was defined as the character who appeared longest and who was judged to have the leading role in plots or storylines. Most main/leading characters were easily identified as the well-known actors or actresses. Particularly, the role of the leading/ main character could be seen as being more important and outstanding than other background or supporting characters in the plot. The main characters could have bad or good characteristics or those who contributed important marks to the analysis such as the way they dressed signified their occupations clearly or the conversations they had with the main characters were the key to the storyline, those would be included into the analysis. Regarding the occupation the characters held, if one character held more than one job during a program then it would depend

on the job he/she was holding at the scene the video tape was recorded. If the job was not on the list it would be put in “other” category.

IV) Attributes and roles

Attributes and roles were defined here as social attributes, marriage, family and occupational roles. There were twenty-four social attributes, marriage, and family roles. Social attributes included roles of aggressive, kind, nurturing, athletic, shy, physically helpful, ambitious, outgoing, dependent, intelligent, unfaithful, successful, always in trouble, criminal, and authoritative. Marriage roles included single or unmarried, and married roles. Family roles included food shopping, cleaning the floor, washing dishes, ironing clothes, cooking meal, taking children to school, and disciplining children. Occupational roles analysed were comprised of 14 roles, which included managing director/ business owner, engineer, nurse, teacher, judge, lawyer, scientist, doctor, builder, chef, fire-fighting officer, police officer, secretary/ receptionist, and ambulance/ medic driver.

4.3.3 Coding procedure

The following steps were taken into the content analysis coding, (a) The second coder, who originally lived in Thailand and was very familiar with the nature, characteristics, storyline and plots found in TV dramas in Thailand, was employed for the coding procedure. (b) All relevant sections of TV content including type of character, age range, marital status, and 24 social attributes, marriage, family, and 14 occupational roles were marked by one coder, check by another, and were given their definitions by the coders. These can be consulted in **APPENDIX C**.

It is important that coders must gain their familiarity with the definitions of coding schedule and understand how these definitions relate to the content of interest. The researcher and the second coder had discussed on what to expect in the content and how much energy and attention would be needed to comprehend it. The researcher explained to the second coder that there were 14 video tapes needed to be analysed, each of which lasted for 8 hours and each coding session should last for a maximum of 2 hours with a 15 minutes break. The session might be a little shorter or longer depending on each scene analysed because the coder should have a flow idea

of what was going on in each scene and to have a break might loose the coder's memory of what he or she had seen in that scene.

Then, each coding session started with a full reading of the coding schedule in order to refresh coders' memory of category definitions. At this stage two coders discussed about the possibilities of any problem in the content and became clear that they were approaching the content from similar frames of references. For example, the definition of "aggressive" was discussed. The two coders concluded that aggressive would be ticked when it was shown that male or female TV character was physically attacking another person, verbally insulting another person, shouting at another person, if not physically attacking but with an act that might harm another person such as trying to slap another person's face. It could be in violent scene when two persons were fighting, encountering each other, standing with two hands on waist and swearing and so on.

4.3.4 Coder reliability assessment

Each variable in the coding sheet was tested by looking at how the coders have agreed on using the relevant values of the variable. While the testing was applied to each coder of the analysis, no interruption, such as telephone call and any music or TV sounds, was allowed to make a formal and rigorous procedure. The content used for training test was not the content being used for the actual study. The programmes have been allowed for necessary replays to ensure the correct situations that happened in the scenes before the coders make their final decisions.

I) Selection procedures of content for testing

The unit of content to be selected for testing is suggested by Wimmer and Dominick (1997 in Riffe *et al* 1998:123) that the body of content to be tested for reliability should be 10% - 20% while Kaid and Wadsworth (1989 in Riffe *et al* 1998:123) suggest 5% - 7% of the content body. Lucy and Riffe (1996:125) noted that this will depend on several other factors which include, firstly, the total number of units to be coded, secondly the desired degree of the confidence level in the reliability assessment, thirdly the degree of precision desired in the reliability assessment, and finally a pre-test or the assumption based on the prior studies.

The first object in applying this procedure was to compute the number of content cases required for the reliability test. The formula used is as follows:

$$n = \frac{(N-1)(SE)^2 + PQN}{(N-1)(SE)^2 + PQ}$$

in which:

N = the population size (number of content units in the study)

P = the population level of agreement (the estimates of agreement in the population)

$$Q = (1-P)$$

n = the sample size for the reliability check

Given the result of this, n is the number of content units needed in the reliability check. Standard error gives the confidence level desired in the test (Riffe *et al* 2005:145), which is usually set at the 95% or 99% confidence level using a one-tailed test because interest is in the portion of the interval that may extend below the acceptable reliability figure. As a desired confidence level is .05 or the 95% confidence level, the number of standard errors needed to include 95% of all possible sample means on agreement is 1.64 in a one-tailed test score. Standard error is computed as $SE = .05/1.64 = .03$. Additionally, it is assumed that an acceptable minimal level of agreement is 85% and P is 90% (5% above the minimum) in a study using 416 content units. The result was as follows:

$$n = \frac{(416-1)(0.03)^2 + (0.9*0.1*416)}{(416-1)(0.03)^2 + (0.9*0.1)}$$

$$n = \frac{3.735 + 37.44}{3.735 + 0.09}$$

$$n = \frac{41.175}{3.825}$$

$$n = 10.7 \text{ or } 11$$

Therefore, 11 test units were used for coder reliability test. This means that if a 90% agreement (P) in coding a variable on those 11 units was achieved, chances were

95 (confidence level) out of 100 that at least an 85% (a minimal level of coders' agreement) or better agreement would exist if the entire content population were coded by all coders and reliability measured.

As the number of test units was known, the researcher did the random sampling systematically by selecting every 37 cases throughout 416 content units to make 11. The coders' agreement was shown in table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Agreement with two coders on 11 content units

Value	Agree	Disagree	Number of coding decisions
1) Aggressive	10	1	3
2) Kind	10	1	2
3) Nurturing	11	0	2
4) Shy	11	0	4
5) Physically helpful	10	1	0
6) Ambitious	9	2	0
7) Outgoing	10	1	3
8) Physically strong	11	0	0
9) Dependent	10	1	2
10) Intelligent	9	2	1
11) Unfaithful	11	0	4
12) Successful	8	3	0
13) Authoritative	11	0	3
14) Always in trouble	9	2	2
15) Criminal	11	0	3
16) Food shopping	11	0	0
17) Cleaning the floor	10	1	1
18) Washing dishes	10	1	0
19) Ironing clothes	10	1	1
20) Cooking meal	10	1	1
21) Taking children to school	10	1	0
22) Disciplining children	10	1	0
Total	212	27	22
Grand total	242		
(%)	91%	11%	

II) Tests for Chance Agreement

A number of reliability tests have been recommended by content analysis texts. The researcher applied Scott Pi (Scott 1995). Scott Pi test computes the agreement

expected by chance by looking at the proportion of times particular values of a category are used in a given test, and then calculates the chance agreement or expected agreement base on those proportions on the basic probability theory (Riffe *et al* 2005:149). The Scott Pi formula is as follows:

$$Pi = \frac{\%OA - \%EA}{1 - \%EA}$$

in which:

OA = observed agreement

EA = expected agreement

OA is the agreement achieved in the test, and *EA* is the agreement expected by chance. The result was as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Scott Pi} &= \frac{.91 - .10}{1 - .10} \\ &= \frac{.81}{.90} \\ &= .90 \end{aligned}$$

That is, .91 was the agreement found achieved in the randomly selected sampling done previously, .10 was the output from the coding decisions made in each value of content units selected for reliability test. For example, 3 of the decisions have been to select value 1 as the correct coding of the category, as shown in Table... above about the number of coding decisions made in each value. Therefore, the output for value 1 is 3/22 coding decisions = .14. As the multiplication rules of probability apply (Riffe *et al* 2005), the probability of using Value 1 on a particular piece of content is .14, but two such events, which means two coders coding the same variable in the same piece of content, requires .14 to be multiplied by .14. A single event is more likely to occur than two such events occurring. The same method is applied for other values and these values are added together.

Therefore, .90 was the agreement that has been achieved as a result of the category definitions and their application by coders, after a measure of the amount of

chance agreement has been removed. Generally, acceptable reliability figures will depend on the test used as an upper limit of 1.0 in the case of perfect agreement and a lower limit of -.01 in the case of perfect agreement. It is usually reported in the .80 to .90 range to make reliability figures. Besides Scott's Scott Pi's test formula, there are Cohen's Kappa, Krippendorff's Alpha, or Schutz's formula for testing reliability but the most important points are that first, some way of controlling for chance agreement should be used and reported along with simple agreement. And second, the use of random samples for reliability checks requires that confidence intervals be reported (Riffe *et al* 1998:133).

4.3.5 Pilot study of coding frame

Pre-testing of the coding frame was done to find out if this could be effectively used for TV programmes. The coding sheet sample is shown in **APPENDIX E**.

4.4 Audience Survey on Adolescents' Perceptions of Roles and Occupations

This section will describe an audience survey's sampling method including location, age, gender, and educational level. It will also examine pilot study, letter of request for authorization, survey questionnaire, and finally data processing employed into this audience analysis.

4.4.1 Sampling

Surveys can reflect the views of a collection of people that is representative or typical of the population under investigation. Kent (1993:38) argues that a sample is "a subset of cases selected by the researcher for the purpose of being able to draw conclusions about the entire population of cases". When it came to sampling, a number of different ways to achieve a sample, which would ensure validity in testing the hypotheses, were considered. As it is apparent from the title of my thesis and hypotheses, the identity of the expected respondents were already specified in terms of their level of education and age group.

After careful consideration, the purposive sampling method was selected to this analysis. According to Hansen *et al* (1998), this is a method in which the researcher selects respondents from already pre-selected year of education, area, age, or school,

and therefore purposive selection is accomplished. Fifteen schools were randomly selected from a wide range of Government and private schools in accords with Bangkok Education Service Areas, which are part of the Ministry of Educational Affairs, within the geographical areas of Bangkok. Therefore, owing to the requirements of this study to explore attitudes of secondary adolescents, this selection was considered to be capable of ensuring validity in testing the hypotheses.

As previously mentioned in the introduction of this thesis, early adolescents in Bangkok area are most likely to provide answers to the questionnaire differently from those who live in the rest of the country. For reasons why Bangkok was chosen as location for this analysis and not other areas of Thailand, please refer back to Sub-Section **II.II Bangkok** under Section **II Research Rationale**, page 3.

Ten different age groups were selected, ranging from 10 to 19 years old from 15 schools. These particular age groups were characterized as “young teenagers” or “young adolescents”. As previously discussed, in the field research of the television, specific attention were made to young people’s culture, and with few exceptions, is limited and is generally focused on very young children. With the case of Thailand, only a handful studies have provided a full academic research concerning young adolescents’ television role perceptions. They are mostly the articles or surveys of public opinions. Thus, by choosing this particular age group and given Thailand as a particular country to study on, I hope to make a contribution to earlier research in the field of television audience research and reported gender role portrayals in TV dramas.

The group was sometimes of a mixed gender in mixed-gender schools and sometimes of a single sex in single male or female schools. I endeavoured to construct a mixed gender group in order to achieve a broad cross-section of discourses, views and ideas. In each school selected, questionnaires were sent out to the randomly selected 40 students from upper secondary (high school) and another set of 40 students from lower secondary in the same school.

Within each set of 40 students, 20 of them were boys and the other 20 were girls. For example, in the first school I visited, questionnaires were given to 40 randomly selected students (20 boys and 20 girls) in the first year of lower secondary

(M.1) and to other 40 students (20 boys and 20 girls) in the first year of upper secondary (M.4) in the same school. Then in the next school, the same was applied to second year of upper and lower secondary students in the same school. Within the quota of 15, 5 questionnaires were added as an extra. The reason for this was that it provided the way over-respondents to allow for drop-outs, incomplete questionnaires and refusals. Therefore, 20 questionnaires were distributed to one group of sex in one educational level. It was expected to have a response sample in the range of 900-1200 respondents if all distributed questionnaires were returned from the sampled schools. The questionnaires were distributed as mentioned previously in **Table I.I The Sampled Schools and Respondents Distributed by Questionnaires**, under Section **II Research Rationale**, page 3.

The school system for secondary education in Thailand is composed of six levels, that is, 1st year lower secondary level (Mattayom 1), 2nd year lower secondary level (Mattayom 2), 3rd year lower secondary level (Mattayom 3), 1st year upper secondary level (Mattayom 4), 2nd year upper secondary level (Mattayom 5), and finally, 3rd year upper secondary level (Mattayom 6). Students in Mattayom 1 and 4 were surveyed from 5 schools, those in Mattayom 2 and 5 were surveyed from other 5 schools, and those in Mattayom 3 and 6 were surveyed from the last 5 schools. Male-only schools as well as female-only schools were included in the analysis. Monk schools and boarding-schools were excluded as the study focus on students watching TV both at home and other places.

Television viewing was initially assessed by asking respondents to estimate the numbers of hours they watched each day. This was found in previous cultivation studies to measure total viewing (Carveth and Alexander 1985; Gerbner *et al* 1978; Gross and Jeffries-Fox 1978; Morgan 1983 and 1984; Morgan and Signorielli 1990; Tan 1979; Volgy and Schwarz 1980).

Respondents were then asked about their perceptions of social roles, behaviours or domestic activities and career aspirations as portrayed on TV and as in their real life. For each of those role adjectives, a short explanation or a similar adjective was attached to make them more understandable and the respondents could interpret the meaning in the same way. For instance, aggressive characteristics meant that TV character was portrayed as shouting, physically and/or verbally attacking/abusing TV

character, assaulting/insulting, being violent. Another example was the description of “shy”. When the TV character was portrayed as smiling but with little confidence, blushes, being nervous, avoided looking at the opposite sex’s eyes when talking, then these would be identified as shyness. The clarification of each role attribute was in conjunction with the coding frame that was designed to analyse the roles portrayed on TV, where the extensive explanations can be found from **APPENDIX C**.

These roles were portrayed on two types of TV programmes, which were daytime and early evening dramas, and late evening and midnight dramas. For full details about the reasons for studying dramas, please refer to Sub-Section **II.IV Dramas** under Section **II Research Rationale**, page 3.

4.4.2 Survey pilot study

Prior to conducting the survey, a pilot study was considered necessary to ensure that uniformity could be maintained for the survey procedures, and to provide a basis for the calculation of the total survey time. “The piloting of questionnaires...is critical for successful research” (Kent 1993:85). Before the pilot questionnaire was presented, it was carefully checked to ensure correct wording, layout and the sequence of questions, paying particular attention to open-ended questions. This small-scale pilot survey was designed to pre-test my main survey, in order to see how it would work and, if necessary, to rectify design errors to the main data collection phase.

The pre-testing took place on Friday 23 November 2005 at Sarawittaya School in Bangkok. The questionnaire was piloted by trying it out on a small number of people to see that it worked as intended. Ten male students and ten female students from Mattayom 4 and 5 (upper-secondary level), aged between sixteen and nineteen, voluntarily filled in the questionnaires after finished their classrooms of Sarawittaya School. This was an opportunity to assess the clarity of the questions, to check that respondents understood the questions and answered the questions asked, and to ensure that the interview flew in an efficient and purposeful manner. Pre-testing helped iron out many of the potential difficulties, which the researcher as being up intimately with the subject, could not always anticipate.

4.4.3 Letter of request for authorization

For ethical purposes, letters of request were sent to the 15 schools. The letter introduced the researcher and the study and was used as the first step when contacting the school head-teachers. The letter provided the researcher's name, institution, the research that is carried out, and the brief explanation of the kind of questions that would ask the students. Then, a request was placed for authorization from the head-teachers for the researcher to carry out the research at their schools, informed the head-teachers that the students' responses were confidential and would only be used for research purposes only.

The researcher explained to the head-teachers the quota of students, year of education, gender that the researcher needed and finally, provided the head-teachers with contact information such as telephone number and postal / email addresses. The researcher later visited the head-teachers and teachers who were providing times for their students to take part in the survey questionnaires with the complimentary gifts. With the assistance of the schools, a number of classes were selected from two different year groups from each school, in order to supply the necessary age range, providing a total sample size of 1,200 students in all 15 schools. The survey was carried out with all the students seated in their classrooms at individual desks. The initial worry that teachers might inhibit the student's responses was less found, as pupil-teacher contact was kept to a minimum, except for the purposes of clarifying the wording of questions.

Participants were invited to complete the questionnaires. They were also asked to retain them, and not hand them in before the allocated time expired, in order to ensure that those students who were taking more time to complete their questionnaires, did not feel marginalized or had a desire to compete with their peers on the basis of time scale. This was thought necessary in order to ensure a high level of completion and eliminate the temptation among the respondents to rush the questionnaire, jeopardizing the quality of its completion. Because there were more than 1000 students doing questionnaires, the researcher was unable to give single one of them 1000 gifts but the researchers expressed thanks and deep appreciations for their volunteers and wished them good luck for their future study. Head of teachers

and teachers received complimentary gifts. The sample of authorisation request letter was shown in **APPENDIX E**.

4.4.4 The questionnaire survey

The questionnaire is a very well known method of data collection. The survey was conducted using a self-completion questionnaire. This facilitated economical and large-scale collection of data from respondents. It was designed to examine several features. First, whether or not respondents watched television, to what extent, and how did they spend time on TV. Second, which TV channel, TV programme genre, media activity were they interested in the most, and how frequently did they watch them. Third, in noon-early evening dramas and late evening-midnight dramas, which gender did they think pursued the roles in these dramas or it was equally pursued by both genders, as on television and as in actuality. Finally, whether or not each of the occupations listed was mostly pursued by either gender or both genders, in TV and in their real life.

The substantive survey questions posed to respondents would not mention television in any way, because if respondents were explicitly thinking about television, it could contaminate their responses by shading their perceptions toward or away from the images of television, and researcher put their data at serious risk. Particular attention was paid to the wording, question order and length of the questionnaire in order to ensure efficient collection of the responses. I endeavoured to prioritize the respondents' needs while wording and phrasing the questions. The researchers should always aim to ensure that each question means the same to every respondent, and indeed to the researchers. Questions that suggest the required answer or direct the respondents in an unintentional or intentional way, can present a serious problem for the researchers. According to Hansen *et al* (1998), a self-completion questionnaire should not be too long and the researchers should not undervalue question order. "Where questions are placed within a questionnaire", they argue, "is as vital a consideration as the wording of those questions" (Hansen *et al* 1998:246).

Thus, the questionnaire was kept reasonably short and the researcher made every effort to ask comprehensible questions and to avoid asking complex, ambiguous and leading questions. Profile-related questions about their gender, age, and year of

education were placed at the beginning of the questionnaire. All questionnaires were completed anonymously to encourage respondents to respond as fully, openly and honestly as possible.

According to Deacon *et al* (1999), two main techniques may be adopted in order to administer self-completion questionnaires. They may be sent through the post, or personally delivered by the researcher, in which the latter may ensure a higher response rate among respondents (Hansen *et al* 1998) in the case of small-scale research. In light of their opinion, a personal approach technique was adopted here, personally delivering and handling the questionnaires to respondents or sometimes to the teachers or administrative office of the sample schools which also saved money on posting and the face-to-face strategy functioned very well. This method is relatively inexpensive and can reach potential respondents better than many other methods, and at the same time, makes only limited demands on the social and personal skills of the researcher.

According to Hansen *et al* (1998), the main problem is that it must adhere to time constraints and therefore the space available for answers must be restricted. Self-completion questionnaire has to be short, they argue, since it is conceded that long questionnaires tend to fatigue respondents, who become very reluctant to fill them in from the beginning till the end. Following Tunstall's (1971) research, Hansen *et al* (1998) suggest that it is advantageous for a researcher to arouse respondents' interests in the topic of research, because then it is easier to increase their "tolerance level" (Hansen *et al* 1998:236). Taking this into account, I endeavoured to make respondents as interested in the topic as possible, by asking questions closely related to their every concern.

The questionnaires were then personally delivered to 15 schools in the Bangkok area. In some schools, the researcher was allowed an access to personally speak with the students and carried on a whole time until the questionnaires were completed; however, some schools arranged their own free time with the students and contacted the researcher to collect the questionnaires at the later time. The questionnaires used in this analysis standardised and organized the collection and processing of information. In this way, identical or very similar questions could be asked of a large number of people. The current research provided self-explanatory questionnaires.

The amount of 1200 lower and upper secondary school students, aged between 11 and 19 years old, were surveyed.

The survey was conducted from December 2005 to February 2006. A particular day was suggested by the participated schools as being convenient because a large number of students were available to take part in the survey with minimal interruption to their studies. As time availability was also vital as my period of research from December to February, students were not on school holidays except only a few days break from New Year's Eve and New Year's Day. And the exam seasons were passed and the next exam was at the end of February so it was in good timing. However, there are some considerations on Special events in school or among schools but was not obstructing the surveys to be carried on.

Cooperation was received from several teachers of various secondary courses and years, among them were Maths, English, and Science, in the Bangkok area. There was no refusal from the schools to participate as a part of the research. This was because the schools believed that this would promote their reputations and to improve their students in the academic world. So when they gave the consents to access to their students, the questionnaires were distributed to randomly selected classrooms either via teachers or directly to the students. In the case of teachers, an instructional letter was attached. In the letter, they were asked to administer the questionnaires in a classroom or taking home and do as part of homework assignments. The participation in each class was on a voluntary basis.

I anticipated the questionnaires to be completed in one-hour timetable slot. Despite the time restriction, I believed the time allocated was sufficient for satisfactory completion of the questionnaire, having tested it in the pilot study. However, towards the end of the session, the time allocated was increased by thirty minutes as some participants were taking longer to finish. Sample of questionnaire is as in **APPENDIX F**. The key question and question themes of the questionnaire in the methodology were that the perception of roles and occupations in heavy TV viewers were more related to the occurrences of portrayals on TV dramas than the perceptions of light TV viewers. These involved a series of hypotheses and research question, as explained earlier in this Chapter.

4.4.5 Data processing: SPSS

The structure of the questionnaire was such that the information collected was in a quantitative format. The general statistical package SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was used for data analysis in both questionnaire and content analysis. The questionnaire contained two distinct forms of questions. There were simple response questions, which involved only one possible answer, and there were multiple response questions such as the frequency of TV exposure by channel, programme type and media activity.

The questionnaire consists of 141 questions, all of which were self-explanatory questions. The data were entered into SPSS for analysis. Data analyses comprised a range of simple descriptive statistics (frequencies, cross-tabulations and chi-square), bi-variate analyses (zero-order and partial correlations) and multi-variate analyses (factor and multiple regression analyses). Partial correlation and multiple regression analyses were used when controlling for demographic profile of age, year of education, media consumption of the availability of television in bedroom, TV channels measurement, and social variables of friends, family and celebrities.

Factor analysis was used on some variables to produce a reduced number of compound variables of 38 social attributes, marriage, family, and occupational roles presented in the questionnaire. As Hair *et al* (1992) suggested that factor analysis is a statistical approach that can be used to analyse interrelationships among a large number of variables and to explain these variables in terms of their common underlying dimensions or factors. It involves condensing the information contained in a number of original variables into a smaller set of dimensions or factors with a minimum loss of information.

The eigenvalues were calculated and used in deciding how many factors to extract in the overall factor analysis and the communalities were used to find out the total proportion of variance that the analysis accounts for in each test. I have run varimax rotation to maximize the variance of the squared loadings of a factor on all variables in a factor matrix, which has the effect of differentiating the original variables by an extracted factor. The new factor variables are mainly comprised of two components in TV daytime and early evening dramas, four components in TV

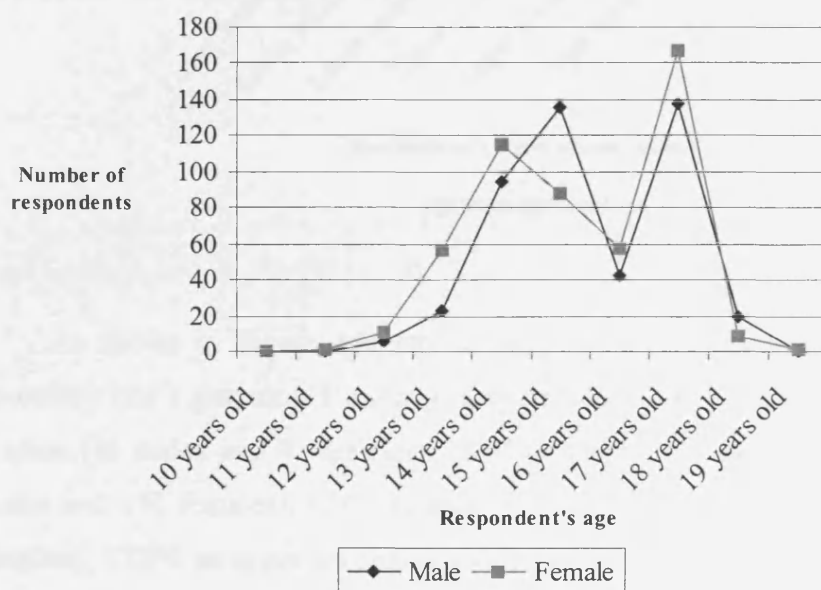
late evening and midnight dramas and finally five components in real life, in which further details will be described in Chapter 6 which reported the results of multi-variation analyses.

4.5 Descriptive Statistic Results of the Respondents' Demographic Profile and Media Consumption

Results of descriptive statistics were summarized as follows. In the content analysis, where a number of TV characters were counted in their portrayal of attributes and roles, there were 416 TV characters, which comprised of 231 male (55.5%) and 185 female (44.5%) characters. Additionally, there were 141 male (73.8% of all TV characters) and 50 female TV characters (26.2% of all TV characters) portrayed as having occupational roles.

In the audience survey questionnaire, from 962 respondents' sample responses received in return, it was comprised of 457 male (47.5%) and 505 female (52.5%) respondents. The number of respondents by age was found from the following figure.

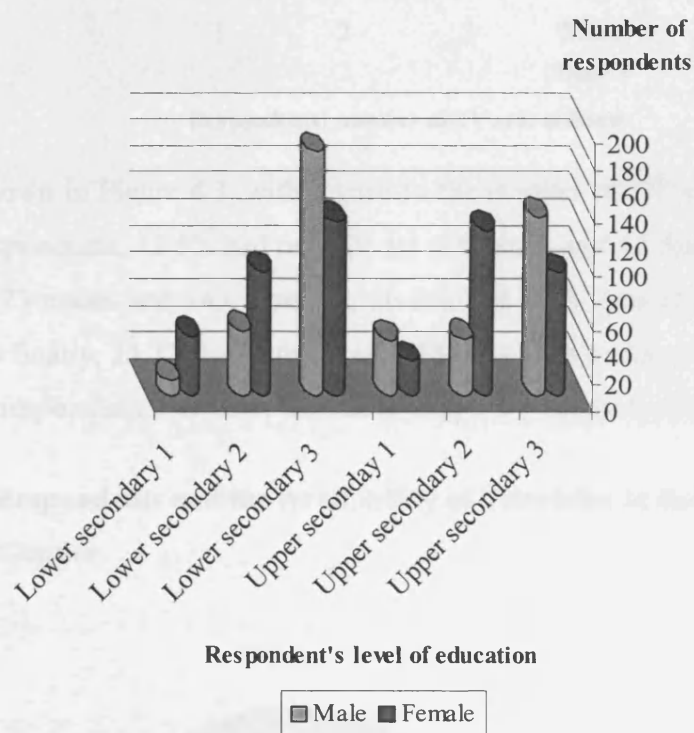
Figure 4.1 Respondents and Age by Gender



As shown in Figure 4.1, among all respondents 1.7% of which were twelve-year-old respondents (5 males and 11 females), 8.2% of which were at their thirteen

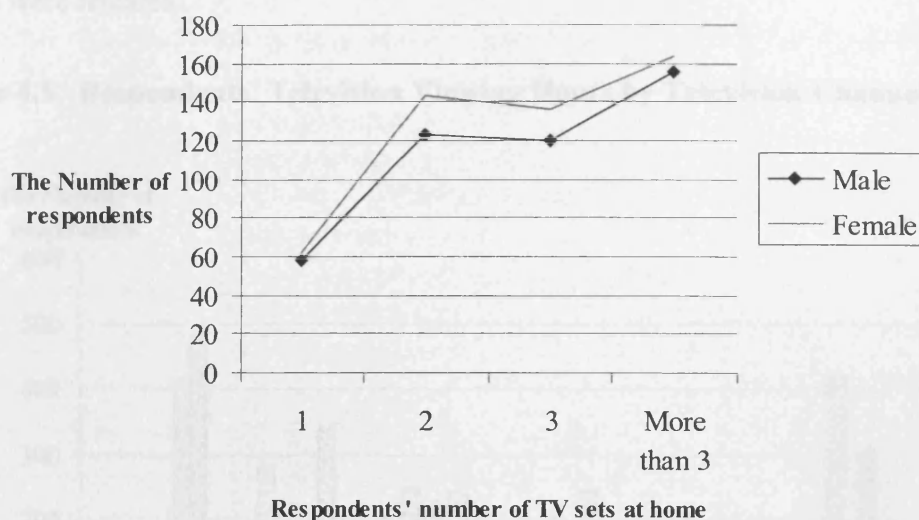
years of age (23 males and 56 females), 21.7% of which were fourteen-year-old (94 males and 115 females), 23.3% of which were fifteen-year-old (136 males and 88 females), 10.3% of which were sixteen-year-old (42 males and 57 females), 31.7% of which were seventeen-year-old (138 males and 167 females), and 2.9% of which were eighteen-year-old respondents (19 males and 9 females). Therefore, most respondents were at their 17 years of age. There were only one female eleven-year-old (0.1%), one female nineteen-year-old (0.1%) and none of which in 10 years of age in reply.

Figure 4.2 Respondents and Secondary Educational Level by Gender



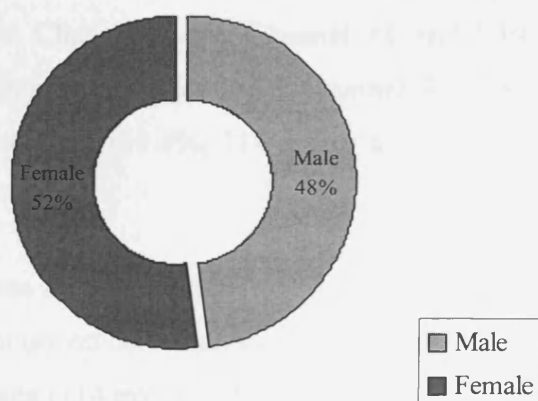
As shown in Figure 4.2, among all respondents, there were 5.7% as lower secondary one's graders (11 males and 44 females), 14.6% as lower secondary two's graders (48 males and 92 females), 32.4% as lower secondary three's graders (182 males and 130 females), 6.9% as upper secondary one's graders (41 males and 25 females), 17.2% as upper secondary two's graders (42 males and 123 females), and 23.3% as upper secondary three's graders (133 males and 91 females). Therefore, most respondents studied in lower secondary three education and least respondents studied in their first year of lower secondary level.

Figure 4.3 Respondents and Television Sets at Home by Gender



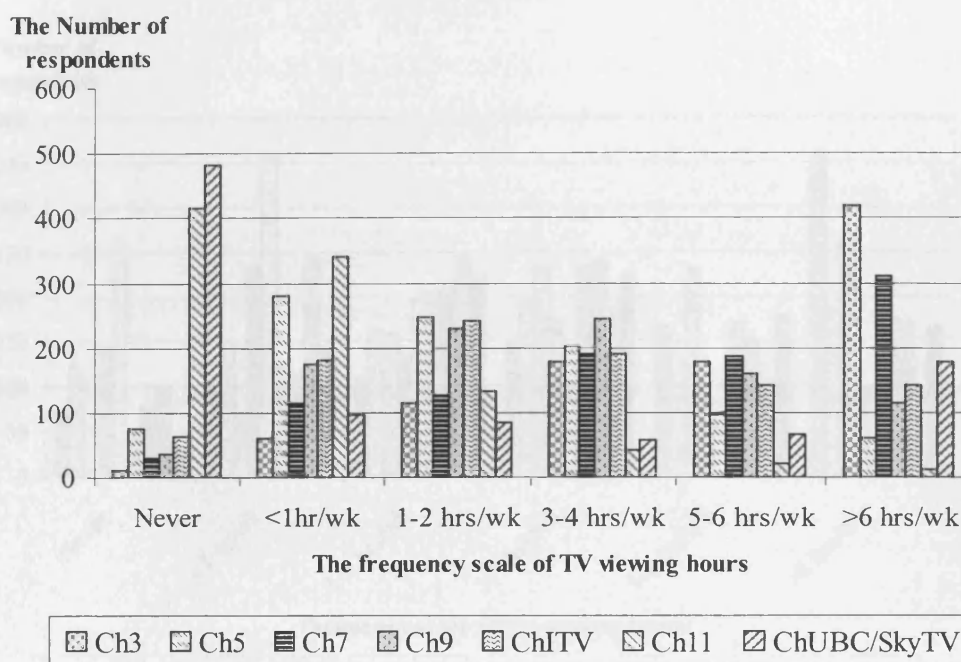
As shown in Figure 4.3, with regard to the number of TV set each household has, of all respondents, 12.5% had one TV set (58 males and 62 females), 27.7% had 2 TV sets (123 males and 143 females), 26.6% had 3 TV sets (120 males and 136 females), and finally, 33.3% had more than 3 TV sets (156 males and 164 females) at home. Most respondent; therefore, had more than 3 TV sets at home.

Figure 4.4 Respondents and the Availability of Television in Bedroom by Gender



In responses of the availability of TV in bedroom for respondents to access, as shown in Figure 4.4, 69.9% did have TV in their bedrooms (47.8% were males and 52.2% were females).

Figure 4.5 Respondents' Television Viewing Hours by Television Channels



The study reported the media consumption of each TV channel in Thailand by male and female respondents, as shown in Figure 4.5. The most popular channels for respondents in secondary education at the time of the survey were Channels 3 and 7. The least popular TV Channels were Channel 11 and UBC/SkyTV, the satellite television. Most respondents watched TV Channel 3 (43.5%, 194 males and 224 females), and TV Channel 7 (32.4%, 119 males and 193 females) for more than 6 hrs/wk.

TV Channel 9 was mostly watched by 25.4% of all respondents (117 males and 127 females) for 3-4 hours on this Channel. TV Channel ITV was watched mostly by 25.1% of all respondents (114 males and 127 females) for 1-2 hrs/wk. TV Channel 5 was mostly watched by 29.1% of all respondents (141 males and 139 females) for less than 1 hr/wk. Most respondents never spent time on TV Channel 11 (43.1%, 181

males and 234 females), and Channel UBC/SkyTV (50%, 223 males and 258 females).

Figure 4.6 Respondents' Television Viewing Hours by Television Programme Genres

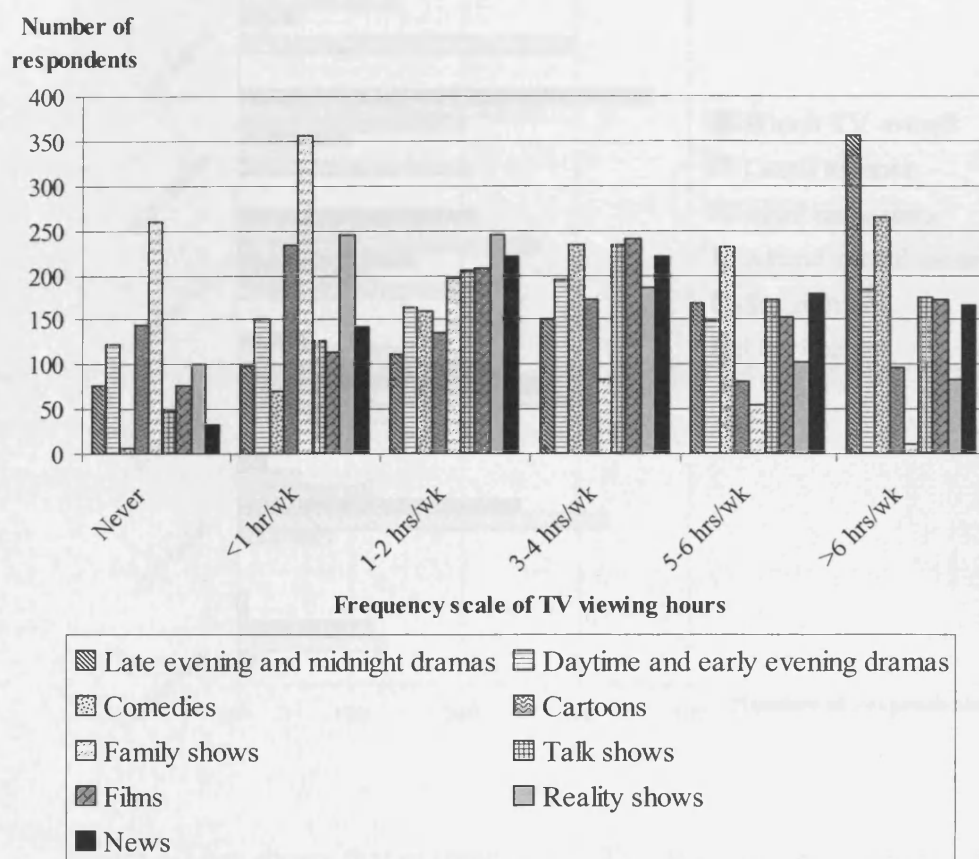


Figure 4.6 has shown that most respondents spent more than 6 hrs/wk watching late evening and midnight TV dramas (37%, 128 males and 228 females), and TV comedies (24.2%, 127 males and 137 females). Three to four hours per week were spent by most respondents on watching TV talk shows (24.3%, 111 males and 123 females), daytime and early evening TV dramas (20.4%) However, most males (93) spent 1-2 hrs/wk while most females (126) spent more than 6 hrs/wk watching TV dramas. TV films were mostly watched by 1-2 hrs/wk by males (114) while such programme type was mostly watched for 3-4 hrs/wk by females (136).

Figure 4.7 Respondents' Television Viewing Hours by Type of Media Activity

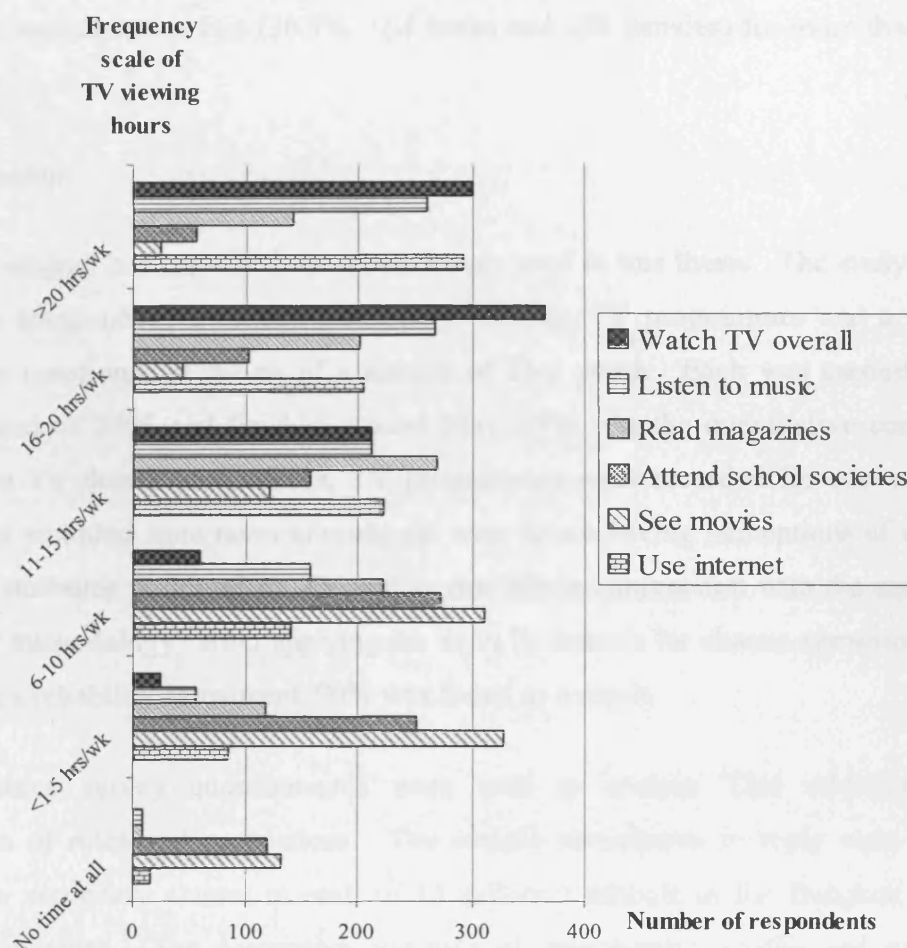


Figure 4.7 has shown that in responses to TV viewers' consumption across all types of media activities, most respondents spent 16-20 hrs/wk watching television in the overall TV channels (38%, 164 males and 202 females). Listening to music was the media activity spent for more than 20 hrs/wk by most male respondents (124) and for 16-20 hrs/wk by most female respondents (153). Reading magazine was spent for 11-15 hrs/wk by most respondents (28.1%, 136 males and 134 females). Most respondents spent only less than 1 to 5 hrs/wk to the cinemas (34.1%, 162 males and 166 females).

Most male respondents (122) spent less than 1 to 5 hrs/wk at social or school societies while most female respondents (161) spent 6-10 hrs/wk taking such activities, thus 28.4% of the overall respondents spent time attending societies.

However, most respondents also used internet for several purposes including watching TV/DVD online, listening to music, and personal uses of electronic mailing and instant messaging service (30.5%, 164 males and 129 females) for more than 20 hrs/wk.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter has explained the methodology used in this thesis. The study had two major components, a content analysis of selected TV programmes and a self-completion questionnaire survey of a sample of Thai youth. Each was carried out from the end of 2005 and finished around May 2006. In the quantitative content analysis on TV drama programmes, TV programmes were recorded for one week. TV dramas recorded from noon to midnight were found having perceptions of roles and other attributes portrayed on TV and in real life in conjunction with the second part of my methodology. After applying the Scott Pi formula for chance agreement in computing a reliability assessment, 90% was found as a result.

Audience survey questionnaires were used to analyse Thai adolescents' perceptions of roles and occupations. The sample participants in reply were 962 students in secondary classes in each of 15 different schools in the Bangkok and metropolitan areas. The descriptive statistics of demographic profile and media consumption of the respondents were reported as previously mentioned in this chapter. In the following chapter, I will then report the statistics involving heavy and light TV drama viewers to find out signs of any significant relationship in each of social attributes, marriage, family, and occupational roles with the perceptions of TV audience.

Chapter 5 : Results of the Content Analysis on Light and Heavy Audience Segments

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will examine firstly, the representation of TV characters that are portrayed in different social attributes, marriage, family and occupational roles, and secondly, the significant perceptions of roles among light and heavy viewers. In previous studies, Gerbner's Cultural Indicator Project was used to identify and analyse the messages that are presented across television landscape, and cultivation theory has been made to examine adolescents' perceptions of these gender-related role attributes that heavy TV viewers will exhibit perceptions that are more consistent with the world of TV drama than do light TV viewers. The study will explore signs of any significant relationship in each of these 38 attributes with the perceptions of TV audience, which are the same as listed in the coding frame and questionnaire surveys. Chi Square analyses are employed to examine if there will be any significant value in viewers' perceptions of the identified roles. Specifically, the viewers are segregated into three main compartments of light, medium, and heavy viewers, while light and heavy viewers were those groups required in testing cultivation effects. Each category is also sub-divided into two distinctive social groups of males and females.

5.2 The Content Analysis Results and the Significant Perceptions of Social Attributes, Marriage, and Family Roles

This section will examine the number of occurrences of TV characters portrayed in TV drama programmed in Thailand. It will then examine the social perception reality of light and heavy drama viewers in terms of overall respondents and in different social groups of males and females.

5.2.1 Content analysis of television characters' attributes and roles

The research investigated the number of occurrences of TV characters in this research's content analysis. In total, 416 TV characters were analysed, consisting of 231 male (55.5%) and 185 female (44.5%) TV characters counted in this analysis.

Table 5.1 below reports the number of TV characters' frequency of attributes and roles by gender.

Table 5.1 TV Drama Character's Social Attributes, Marriage, and Family Roles by Gender

Attributes and roles	Number of character (%)*	
	Male	Female
1) Outgoing	62.2	37.8
2) Physically helpful	56.4	43.6
3) Athletic	87.1	12.9
4) Unfaithful	87.5	12.5
5) Criminal	81	19
6) Authoritative	75.8	24.2
7) Aggressive	59.2	40.8
8) Ambitious	56.9	43.1
9) Kind	52	48
10) Intelligent	53.1	46.9
11) Successful	63.2	36.8
12) Single	54.6	45.4
13) Married	50.8	49.2
14) Shy	9.1	90.9
15) Dependent	14.1	85.9
16) Always in trouble	40.4	59.6
17) Nurturing	41.8	58.2
18) Washing dishes	5.9	94.1
19) Ironing clothes	3.7	96.3
20) Cooking meal	11.6	88.4
21) Food shopping	8.5	91.5
22) Cleaning the floor	8	92
23) Disciplining children	35.7	64.3
24) Taking children to school	45.5	54.5

Note: * = Within all TV characters of 416 characters

As shown in Table 5.1, male TV characters were portrayed as being single, kind, intelligent, and successful; for example, as parts of their characteristics. Meanwhile, female TV characters were mostly portrayed being shy, dependent, nurturing, and always in trouble, as part of their characteristics. Females were also portrayed doing domestic or family roles such as washing dishes, ironing clothes, disciplining children, cooking meal.

Such finding was consistent with the studies found in Eastern societies; for instance, Women's Media Centre of Cambodia (WMCC 2002), Noor's (1999) study of Malaysian societies, Chow-Hou Wee, Mei-Lan Choong and Siok-Kuan Tambyah's

(1995) study of television commercials across Singapore and Malaysia. A number of extensive studies were made in the West, which reaffirmed Eastern studies that gender-stereotyped traits and characteristics were overwhelmingly portrayed by TV characters. Among the western studies are Anastasi (1961), Sears and associates (1965), Bakan (1966), Broverman and associates (1972), Gerbner (1972), Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), Turow (1974), McClelland (1975), Gerbner and Gross (1976), Miller and Reeves (1976), Gerbner and associates (1977), Lemon (1977), Tuchman (1978), Henderson and associates (1980), Henderson and Greenberg (1980), Greenberg and associates (1980), Pollack and Gilligan (1983), Benton and associates (1983), Sarbin and Scheibe (1983), Signorielli (1989, 1998), Mazella and associates (1992), Kolbe and Langefeld (1993).

Nonetheless, as Table 5.1 indicated that most TV characters portrayed as being married were males (50.8%), was not consistent with previous studies such as Tedesco (1974) who found that marital status could be identified and coded for 51% of female characters but for only 32% of male characters. Additionally, the findings reported on Table 5.1 that males (52%) were more likely to be kind than females (48%) was contradicting previous studies such as Tedesco (1974) and Gerbner (1972) who found that women tend to be depicted as more attractive, happier, warmer, more sociable, fairer, more peaceful and more useful.

5.2.2 Audience study data based on all respondents' role perceptions

The researcher created a questionnaire, which had corresponding categories to the coding schedule in content analysis as shown in Table 5.1. The following tables represent the results of Chi Square analyses that were run to find out the relationships that were significant in values. These values were arranged in three standard levels, which were $p < .05$, $p < .01$, and $p < .001$. There represented only the significant values that were found in the data because they were important in further reports on the respondents' perceptions of roles found. Chi Square summary tables indicated right away where significant differences occurred in social perceptions as a function of weight of viewing.

For the purposes of the analyses reported in this chapter, respondents were divided into light, medium and heavy TV viewers based on their self-reported average

amount of TV drama viewing in hours per day. Light TV viewers were defined as viewers who watched TV dramas for less than 1 hour per week or never watched TV at all. Light TV viewers were found to be very rare. Medium TV viewers spent 1-4 hours per week watching TV dramas, and heavy TV viewers spent 5 hours or more per week watching TV dramas. Light TV viewers were compared with heavy TV viewers on cultivation effects, which were indicated when heavy TV viewers' perception of roles were closer to TV world representation than light TV viewers' perceptions of the same roles. Since the research mainly focused on the significant difference between light and heavy viewers and in their two social groups of male and female viewers, medium audience segment was excluded here.

There were 134 light and 284 heavy TV drama viewers found in this analysis, who specifically watched TV drama programmes. It should be noted that as there are two categories of drama programmes: one is a category of dramas broadcast during daytime and early evening drama programmes and the other is a category of dramas broadcast during late evening throughout midnight. Therefore, light TV viewers were defined as viewers who watched TV drama programmes on the average of less than 1 hour per week in both of drama categories. There was none of the viewers who never watched TV at all. Similarly, heavy TV viewers were defined as viewers who watched drama programmes on the average of 5 hours or more in one week in both drama categories. For example, viewers who fell into light viewing category in daytime and early evening dramas but became heavy viewers in evening and midnight dramas, would not be counted. Therefore, viewers who did not have a stable category of their TV viewing hours would not be counted as they could be influenced by either watching TV lightly or heavily.

The attributes below are divided into two categories. One table will present the social attributes that relate to gender traits or characteristics such as 'kind', 'nurturing', 'shy', to name a few, and marriage roles including 'single or 'unmarried' and 'married' roles. The other table will present the family roles that describe the characters' competency and suitability in relation to their behaviours or domestic roles such as 'food shopping', 'cleaning the floor', and 'washing dishes.'

Table 5.2 Chi Square Values of TV Drama Viewers' Social Reality Perception of Social Attributes and Marriage Roles

Social Attributes	TV drama viewers	
	Light	Heavy
1) Outgoing	79.373***	21.484***
2) Intelligent	22.718***	26.981***
3) Always in trouble	34.101***	7.948*
4) Criminal	51.641***	33.113***
5) Physically helpful	32.792***	16.308***
6) Ambitious	33.837***	16.930***
7) Unfaithful	47.025***	35.587***
8) Nurturing	32.817***	18.985***
9) Aggressive	69.581***	18.523***
10) Athletic	49.192***	27.810***
11) Single	41.008***	19.252***
12) Successful	13.988**	13.342**
13) Authoritative	14.723**	12.287**
14) Kind	17.244***	10.834**
15) Married	26.665***	6.329*
16) Dependent	10.019**	1.014
17) Shy	7.105*	2.422

Note: df: 2

Number of cases: 962

* = p value < .05, ** = p value < .01, *** = p value < .001

As shown in Table 5.2, the current Chi Square results indicated where stereotyped perceptions might exist. For example, light TV viewers displayed gender-stereotyped opinions about whether being 'nurturing', 'aggressive', athletic', and single' were more of male or female gender-related roles. The results distributions of social attributes in light and heavy TV viewers shown in Table 5.3 provide further details.

Table 5.3 TV Drama Viewers' Social Reality Perception of Social Attributes and Marriage Roles

Social Attributes	Social reality perception of TV drama viewers					
	Light (%) ¹			Heavy (%) ²		
	Men	Both	Women	Men	Both	Women
1) Criminal	46.2	11.5	42.3	80.6	9.9	9.5
2) Authoritative	48.5	11.5	40	65.8	14.8	19.4
3) Unfaithful	46.2	9.2	44.6	78.2	12.3	9.5
4) Kind	10.8	51.5	37.7	16.5	66.9	16.5
5) Aggressive	40.8	9.2	50	45.1	38.4	16.5
6) Athletic	40.8	17.7	41.5	66.5	24.6	8.8
7) Outgoing	30	14.6	55.4	46.1	38	15.8
8) Nurturing	8.5	30	61.5	22.9	48.2	28.9
9) Single	20.8	21.5	57.7	32.7	42.6	24.6
10) Always in trouble	16.9	18.5	64.6	22.2	41.9	35.9
11) Physically helpful	16.2	26.9	56.9	20.8	53.5	25.7
12) Intelligent	20	14.6	65.4	26.4	37.3	36.3
13) Married	7.7	26.2	66.2	22.9	37	40.1
14) Successful	20.8	13.8	65.4	31.3	26.8	41.9
15) Ambitious	20.4	37	42.6	14.6	27.7	57.7
16) Shy	5.4	8.5	86.2	-	-	-
17) Dependent	16.9	10.8	72.3	-	-	-

Note: 1 = % within all light TV drama viewers (134)

2 = % within all heavy TV drama viewers (284)

As shown in Table 5.3, most light TV and heavy TV viewers did not differ from each other in exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinions that 'criminal' (46.2% and 80.6%), 'authoritative' (48.5% and 65.8%), and 'unfaithful' (46.2% and 78.2%) were more often male than female characteristics while 'married' (66.2% and 40.1%) was the role more often pursued by women than men. Furthermore, they did not differ from each other in exhibiting counter-stereotyped opinions that 'kind' (51.5% and 66.9%) was equally male and female characteristics in actuality. Furthermore, 'successful' (65.4% and 41.9%) and 'ambitious' (42.6% and 57.7%) were perceived by them to be more often female than male characteristics.

Most heavy TV viewers perceived that the attributes of 'aggressive', 'authoritative' and 'athletic' were more often male than female characteristics, which was consistent with Williams and his associates' (1975) and McGhee and Frueh's (1980) studies. Their studies indicated that heavy TV viewers yield more gender-stereotyped opinions than light viewers that male characteristics were related to the following adjectives such as aggressive, assertive, tough or forceful, adventurous,

daring or courageous; independent, logical, boastful, coarse, dominant or autocratic, loud, strong or robust. Also, as shown in Table 5.3, most heavy TV viewers exhibited that 'unfaithful' was the male attribute, was consistent with Buerkel-Rothfuss and Mayes (1981) who reported that college students' viewing of televised dramas were related to their social reality perception that men were the ones who have had affairs in their relationships.

However, most light TV differed from most heavy TV viewers as they exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that 'aggressive' (50%), 'athletic' (41.5%) and 'outgoing' (55.4%) were more often female than male attributes while most heavy TV viewers counter-argued that these attributes were more often male than female attributes (45.1%, 66.5%, and 46.1%, respectively), which were consistent with this thesis's reported content analysis.

Moreover, most light TV differed from most heavy TV viewers in exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinions that 'nurturing' (61.5%), 'always in trouble' (64.6%), 'shy' (86.2%), and 'dependent' (72.3%) were more often female than male characteristics. On the other hand, most heavy TV viewers exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that 'nurturing' (48.2%) and 'always in trouble' (41.9%) were equally male and female traits while there was no significant perception of 'shy' and 'dependent' attributes among heavy TV viewers. Also, most light TV viewers exhibited that 'single' (57.7%), 'physically helpful' (56.9%), and 'intelligent' (65.4%) were more often female than male characteristics; however, these characteristics were perceived by most heavy TV viewers to be equally male and female characteristics in the society they live in (42.6%, 53.5%, and 37.3%, respectively).

With regards to characteristic of 'intelligence', most heavy TV viewers perceived that such attribute was equally male and female traits. This result was not found consistent with Eastern study of Kashiwagi (1974) who found that among Japanese students, masculine characteristics were perceived by heavy Japanese TV viewers to be associated with intelligence as socially desirable for men. Thai young viewers perceived that such characteristic was preferential attribute for both males and females

Table 5.4 will present Chi Square results of weight of viewing in relation to the perceptions of roles that relate to competence or the behavioural suitability in viewers.

Table 5.4 The Chi Square Values of TV Drama Viewers' Social Reality Perception of Family / Domestic Roles

Family / domestic roles	TV drama viewers	
	Light	Heavy
1) Food shopping	63.875***	23.109***
2) Taking children to school	25.139***	12.398**
3) Ironing clothes	43.197***	17.039***
4) Cleaning the floor	42.329***	9.222*
5) Cooking meal	38.418***	4.233
6) Washing dishes	34.227***	5.607
7) Disciplining children	25.847***	7.448*

Note: df: 2

Number of cases: 962

* = p value < .05, ** = p value < .01, *** = p value < .001

As shown in Table 5.4, statistically, the current Chi Square results indicate where stereotyped perceptions might exist. That would be to say; for example, light and heavy TV viewers displayed gender-stereotyped opinions about whether 'shopping for food' and 'taking children to school' are more of stereotypical male or female family roles. The results distributions of family roles in light and heavy TV viewers shown in Table 5.5 provide further details.

Table 5.5 TV Drama Viewers' Social Reality Perception of Family/Domestic Roles

Family/domestic roles	Social reality perception of TV drama viewers					
	Light (%) ¹			Heavy (%) ²		
	Men	Both	Women	Men	Both	Women
1) Ironing clothes	2.3	62.3	35.4	5.6	85.6	8.8
2) Cleaning the floor	4.6	56.9	38.5	5.6	81.3	13
3) Taking children to school	20.8	18.5	60.8	32.7	33.1	34.2
4) Shopping food	7.7	40	52.3	13.4	72.5	14.1
5) Disciplining children	2.3	31.5	66.2	15.8	42.6	41.5
6) Cooking meal	3.1	52.6	42.3	-	-	-
7) Washing dishes	3.1	62.3	34.6	-	-	-

Note: 1 = % within all light TV drama viewers (134)

2 = % within all heavy TV drama viewers (284)

As shown in Table 5.5, most light TV and heavy TV viewers did not differ from each other in exhibiting gender stereotyped opinions that the roles of 'taking children to school' (60.8% and 34.2%) was more often pursued by women than men. Also, they did not differ from each other in exhibiting counter-stereotyped opinions that 'ironing clothes' (62.3% and 85.6%) and 'cleaning the floor' (56.9% and 81.3%) were equally pursued by men and women in real life.

Nonetheless, most light TV differed from most heavy TV viewers in exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinions that 'food shopping' (52.3%), and 'disciplining children' (66.2%) were more often pursued by women than men while most heavy TV viewers perceived that these roles were equally pursued by men and women (72.5% and 42.6%, respectively). Furthermore, most light TV viewers exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that 'cooking meal' (52.6%) and 'washing dishes' (62.3%) were equally pursued by men and women in actuality. There was no significant perception of such roles found among heavy TV viewers.

Finding reported in Table 5.5, in which most heavy TV viewers exhibited gender-stereotyped that taking-children-to-school role was mostly pursued by women as part of their family roles while other family roles were perceived to be equally pursued by men and women in actuality, was not consistent with the content analysis of this thesis and previous research results. These Western studies included Lemon (1977), Tuchman (1978), and Butler and Paisley (1980) who studied if prevalent attributes of women on TV functioned to cultivate existed stereotypes among viewers. They found that among viewers, women were perceived to involve mainly in domestic behaviours and family roles.

5.2.3 Audience study data based on male or female respondents' role perceptions

Male and female respondents were tested under each heading of light and heavy TV viewers to find out if there is any significant difference between these two social groups. The TV viewers were comprised of 35 male and 99 female light TV viewers, 203 male and 81 female heavy TV viewers of two TV drama programmes as mentioned earlier. The Chi-Square Values of light TV drama viewers will be distributed in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Chi Square Values of Light TV Drama Viewers' Social Reality Perception of Social Attributes and Marriage Roles by Gender

Social Attributes	Light TV drama viewers	
	Male	Female
1) Unfaithful	17.463***	28.870***
2) Aggressive	35.516***	35.141***
3) Criminal	13.889**	35.097***
4) Ambitious	7.704*	24.275***
5) Single	10.701**	28.147***
6) Athletic	26.092***	23.838***
7) Outgoing	15.924***	59.356***
8) Physically helpful	13.696**	18.330***
9) Nurturing	14.701**	17.891***
10) Intelligent	10.562**	11.915**
11) Successful	8.462*	6.610*
12) Always in trouble	10.035**	22.229***
13) Married	9.072*	16.292***
14) Dependent	5.656*	4.697
15) Shy	3.897*	4.709
16) Authoritative	5.948	8.888*
17) Kind	4.561	11.831**

Note: df: 2

Number of cases: 962

* = p value < .05, ** = p value < .01, *** = p value < .001

The current Chi Square results indicate where stereotyped perceptions might exist. As shown from Table 5.6, male and female light TV viewers displayed gender stereotyped opinions about, for example, whether being 'unfaithful', 'aggressive', 'criminal', 'ambitious' and 'single' are more of male or female gender-stereotyped social characteristics. Table 5.7 will present the male and female light TV drama viewers' perceptions of these attributes in further details.

Table 5.7 Light TV Drama Viewers' Social Reality Perception of Social Attributes and Marriage Roles by Gender

Social Attributes	Social reality perception of light TV drama viewers					
	Male (%) ¹			Female (%) ²		
	Men	Both sexes	Women	Men	Both sexes	Women
1) Criminal	47.1	8.8	44.1	45.8	12.5	41.7
2) Athletic	35.3	11.8	52.9	42.7	19.8	37.5
3) Unfaithful	47.1	2.9	50	45.8	11.5	42.7
4) Aggressive	29.4	5.9	64.7	44.8	10.4	44.8
5) Outgoing	32.4	14.7	52.9	29.2	14.6	56.3
6) Physically helpful	11.8	23.5	64.7	17.7	28.1	54.2
7) Always in trouble	14.7	17.6	67.6	17.7	18.8	63.5
8) Married	5.9	23.5	70.6	8.3	27.1	64.6
9) Ambitious	11.8	14.7	73.5	10.4	15.6	74
10) Single	17.6	23.5	58.8	21.9	20.8	57.3
11) Nurturing	8.8	20.6	70.6	8.3	33.3	58.3
12) Intelligent	14.7	11.8	73.5	21.9	15.6	62.5
13) Successful	20.6	5.9	73.5	20.8	16.7	62.5
14) Shy	0	11.8	88.2	-	-	-
15) Dependent	11.8	8.8	79.4	-	-	-
16) Kind	-	-	-	11.5	51	37.5
17) Authoritative	-	-	-	51	10.4	38.5

Note: 1 = % within all male light TV drama viewers (35)

2 = % within all female light TV drama viewers (99)

As shown in Table 5.7, most male and most female light TV viewers did not differ from each other in exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinions that 'criminal' (47.1% and 45.8%) was more often seen as male than female characteristics while 'nurturing' (70.6% and 58.3%), 'always in trouble' (67.6% and 63.5%) were more often seen as female than male characteristics, and 'married' (70.6% and 64.6%) was more often pursued by women than men. They did not differ also in their counter-stereotyped opinions that 'outgoing' (52.9% and 56.3%), 'physically helpful' (64.7% and 54.2%), 'ambitious' (73.5% and 74%), 'intelligent' (73.5% and 62.5%), 'successful' (73.5% and 62.5%) were more often female than male characteristics, and 'single' (58.8% and 57.3%), was more often pursued by women than men.

Nonetheless, most male light TV differed from most female light TV viewers in exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinions that 'shy' (88.2%) and 'dependent' (79.4%) were more often female than male characteristics. There was no significant perception of such attributes among female light TV viewers. On the other hand,

most female light TV differed from most male light TV viewers in exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinion that ‘authoritative’ (51%) was more often male than female traits while exhibiting counter-stereotyped opinion that ‘kind’ (51%) was equally male and female traits in actuality. There was no significant perception of such attributes among male light TV viewers.

It was noted that there was an equal proportion of female TV viewers who perceived that ‘aggressive’ (44.8%) was more often seen as male than female traits while the other 44.8% of female light TV viewers perceived that such characteristic was more often seen as female than male traits. Therefore, ‘aggressive’ was equally perceived by female light viewers to be a part of either male or female characteristics.

Table 5.8 will report the Pearson Chi Square significant values reported from light TV viewers by gender and their perception of behavioural or family roles.

Table 5.8 Chi Square Values of Light TV Drama Viewers’ Social Reality Perception of Family Roles by Gender

Family / domestic roles	Light TV drama viewers	
	Male	Female
1) Washing dishes	14.560**	18.830***
2) Ironing clothes	25.106***	19.943***
3) Cooking meal	20.054***	19.885***
4) Food shopping	19.558***	41.662***
5) Cleaning the floor	9.990**	30.177***
6) Disciplining children	9.829**	15.718***
7) Taking children to school	6.545*	17.538***

Note: df: 2

Number of cases: 962

* = p value< .05, ** = p value< .01, *** = p value< .001

As shown from Table 5.8, the current Chi Square results indicate where stereotyped perceptions might exist. For example, male and female light TV viewers displayed gender-stereotyped opinions about whether ‘washing dishes’, and ‘ironing clothes’ are more of stereotypical male or female roles. The results distributions of behavioural roles in light viewers shown in Table 5.9 provide further details.

Table 5.9 Light TV Drama Viewers' Social Reality Perception of Family Roles by Gender

Family / domestic roles	Social reality perception of light TV drama viewers					
	Male (%) ¹			Female (%) ²		
	Men	Both sexes	Women	Men	Both sexes	Women
1) Washing dishes	2.9	55.9	41.2	3.1	64.6	32.3
2) Ironing clothes	2.9	50	47.1	2.1	66.7	31.3
3) Cleaning the floor	2.9	58.8	38.2	5.2	56.3	38.5
4) Cooking meal	5.9	41.2	52.9	2.1	59.4	38.5
5) Disciplining children	2.9	23.5	73.5	2.1	34.4	63.5
6) Food shopping	2.9	41.2	55.9	9.4	39.6	51
7) Taking children to school	23.5	14.7	61.8	19.8	19.8	60.4

Note: 1 = % within all male light TV drama viewers (35)

2 = % within all female light TV drama viewers (99)

As shown in Table 5.9, most male and most female light TV viewers did not differ in exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinions that 'disciplining children' (73.5% and 63.5%), 'food shopping' (55.9% and 51%), and 'taking children to school' (64.7% and 60.4%) were more often pursued by women than men. Also, they did not differ from each other in exhibiting counter-stereotyped opinions that 'washing dishes' (55.9% and 64.6%), 'ironing clothes' (50% and 66.7%) and 'cleaning the floor' (58.8% and 56.3%) were equally pursued by men and women. Most male light TV viewers; nevertheless, differed from most female light TV viewers as they exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that 'cooking meal' (52.9%) was more often pursued by women than men while most female exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that such role was equally pursued by men and women in actuality.

The research will now move on to the heavy level of viewing weights. Heavy TV drama content viewer, classified into two of male and female groups, were run by Chi Square to find out if there would be any significant relationship between these heavy TV drama viewers and their perceptions of roles in actuality.

Table 5.10 will show the Chi Square values that explained social attributes, which were significantly related to male and female heavy TV drama viewers in this analysis.

Table 5.10 Chi Square Values of Heavy TV Drama Viewers' Social Reality Perception of Social Attributes and Marriage Roles by Gender

Social Attributes	Heavy TV viewers	
	Male	Female
1) Outgoing	12.050**	6.507*
2) Unfaithful	19.992***	10.565**
3) Physically helpful	8.710*	6.428*
4) Criminal	26.756***	6.638*
5) Athletic	16.047***	8.318*
6) Aggressive	8.191*	9.247*
7) Single	10.777**	8.620*
8) Intelligent	13.397**	11.012**
9) Ambitious	9.495**	5.013
10) Nurturing	11.236**	5.197
11) Successful	10.220**	3.209
12) Shy	1.867	12.173**
13) Authoritative	4.920	6.274*
14) Married	0.046	15.618***

Note: df: 2

Number of cases: 962

* = p value < .05, ** = p value < .01, *** = p value < .001

As shown in Table 5.10, it was found that male and female heavy TV viewers displayed gender-stereotyped opinions about, for example, whether 'outgoing' was more of a male or a female gender-related attribute. The current Chi Square results indicate where stereotyped perceptions might exist, the results distributions of social attributes in male and female heavy viewers shown in Table 5.11 (next page) provide further details.

Table 5.11 Heavy TV Drama Viewers' Social Reality Perception of Social Attributes and Marriage Roles by Gender

Social Attributes	Social reality perception of heavy TV viewers					
	Male (%) ¹			Female (%) ²		
	Men	Both sexes	Women	Men	Both sexes	Women
1) Athletic	65	25.6	9.4	70.4	22.2	7.4
2) Unfaithful	77.8	11.8	10.3	79	13.6	7.4
3) Aggressive	43.8	37.4	18.7	48.1	40.7	11.1
4) Outgoing	45.3	37.9	16.7	48.1	38.3	13.6
5) Criminal	82.8	7.4	9.9	75.3	16	8.6
6) Physically helpful	19.2	53.7	27.1	24.7	53.1	22.1
7) Single	30	42.9	27.1	39.5	42	18.5
8) Nurturing	22.2	48.8	29.1	-	-	-
9) Ambitious	20.2	36.5	43.3	-	-	-
10) Successful	33.5	26.1	40.4	-	-	-
11) Intelligent	28.1	35.5	36.5	22.2	42	35.8
12) Married	-	-	-	30.9	43.2	25.9
13) Authoritative	-	-	-	70.4	13.6	16
14) Shy	-	-	-	19.8	12.3	67.9

Note: 1 = % within male heavy TV viewers (Total of 81)

2 = % within female heavy TV viewers (Total of 203)

As shown in table 5.11, most male and female heavy TV viewers did not differ from each other in exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinions that 'athletic' (65% and 70.4%), 'unfaithful' (77.8% and 79%), 'aggressive' (43.8% and 48.1%), 'outgoing' (45.3% and 48.1%) and 'criminal' (82.8% and 75.3%) were more often seen as male than female characteristics. Also, they did not differ from each other in exhibiting counter-stereotyped opinions that 'physically helpful' (53.7% and 53.1%), and 'single' (42.9% and 42%) were equally seen as male and female attributes in actuality.

However, male heavy TV viewers differed from female heavy TV viewers as they exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that 'nurturing' (48.8%) was equally male and female traits in actuality while 'ambitious' (43.3%), 'successful' (40.4%) and 'intelligent' (36.5%) were more often female than male traits. There was no significant perception of such characteristics found among female heavy TV viewers except the characteristic of 'intelligent', where female heavy viewers (42%) exhibited that such trait was equally seen as male and female traits.

Female heavy TV viewers differed from male heavy TV viewers not only in exhibiting counter-stereotyped opinions that ‘married’ (43.2%) was equally pursued by men and women, but they also differed in exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinions that ‘authoritative’ (70.4%) was more often male than female attributes and ‘shy’ (67.9%) was more often female than male characteristic. There was no significant perception of all these attributes mentioned above found among male heavy TV viewers.

Williams and his associates (1975) noted that stereotypic sex-role expectations for adults and children might be more consistent for males than for females. Nonetheless, findings in Table 7.11 were reported that both social groups of male and female viewers who watched TV heavily shared the same perceptions that ‘athletic’, ‘unfaithful’, ‘aggressive’, ‘outgoing’ and ‘criminal’ were more likely to be male characteristics than female ones. Furthermore, female heavy TV viewers exhibited further gender-stereotyped opinions that ‘authoritative’ was one of male attributes while ‘shy’ was perceived as female characteristic. The perceptions of such roles were not found among male heavy TV viewers.

The next table will present the significant Chi Square values found in the perception of family roles in heavy TV drama viewers.

Table 5.12 Chi Square Values of Heavy TV Drama Viewers’ Social Reality Perception of Family/Domestic Roles by Gender

Family/domestic roles	Heavy TV drama viewers	
	Male	Female
1) Food shopping	15.517***	13.871**
2) Cleaning the floor	5.982*	7.267*
3) Ironing clothes	13.379**	2.120
4) Disciplining children	7.187*	0.913
5) Taking children to school	7.689*	3.453

Note: df: 2

Number of valid cases: 962

*=p value< .05, **=p value< .01, ***=p value< .001

As shown in Table 5.12, male and female heavy TV viewers displayed gender-stereotyped opinions about, for example, whether food shopping is more of a

stereotypical male or female role. The current Chi Square results indicate where stereotyped perceptions might exist. The results distributions of domestic roles among heavy TV viewers shown in Table 5.13 provide further details.

Table 5.13 Heavy TV Drama Viewers’ Social Reality Perception of Family/Domestic Roles by Gender

Family/domestic roles	Social reality perception of heavy TV drama viewers					
	Male (%) ¹			Female (%) ²		
	Men	Both sexes	Women	Men	Both sexes	Women
1) Taking children to school	34	32.5	33.5	-	-	-
2) Ironing clothes	5.9	86.2	7.9	-	-	-
3) Disciplining children	17.2	41.9	40.9	-	-	-
4) Shopping food	9.9	75.4	14.8	22.2	65.4	12.3
5) Cleaning the floor	3.9	80.8	15.3	9.9	82.7	7.4

Note: 1 = % within male heavy TV drama viewers (Total of 81)

2 = % within female heavy TV drama viewers (Total of 203)

As shown in Table 5.13, most male and female heavy TV viewers did not differ from each other in exhibiting counter-stereotyped opinions that ‘food shopping’ (75.4% and 65.4%) and ‘cleaning the floor’ (80.8% and 82.7%) were seen as equally pursued by men and women in real life.

However, most males differed from most female heavy TV viewers as they exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that ‘taking children to school’ (34%) was more often pursued by men than women. They also exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that ‘ironing clothes’ (86.2%), and ‘disciplining children’ (41.9%) were equally pursued by men and women in actuality. There was no significant perception of such roles in female heavy TV viewers.

5.3 The Content Analysis Results and the Significant Perceptions of Occupational Roles

The section will examine the representation of TV characters in occupational roles. It will also examine the perception of occupations in light and heavy TV

viewers not only in all respondents but also in divided categories of male and female TV viewers.

5.3.1 Content analysis of television characters' occupations

Now the study will examine the respondents' perceptions of occupational attributes. It first begins by representing the most occurrences of each occupation portrayed by male or female television characters. It follows then by presenting TV viewers' perception of occupations.

Table 5.14 TV Character's Occupational Roles Portrayed on TV by Gender

Occupational Roles	TV character (%) [*]	
	Male	Female
1) Managing Director	72.4	27.6
2) Teacher	73.3	26.7
3) Doctor	75	25
4) Police officer	96.1	3.9
5) Chef	100	-
6) Nurse	-	100
7) Secretary/ Receptionist	-	100

Note: * = % within 416 TV characters

As shown in Table 5.14, males were most frequently represented in occupations of 'managing director', 'teacher', 'doctor', 'police officer', and 'chef' while females were most often represented in occupations of 'nurse', and 'secretary/receptionist.'

Such findings were consistent with Eastern studies; for instance, the Women's Media Centre of Cambodia (WMCC 2002), Vietnam studies, reported in The New York Times (1989), Chow-Hou Wee, Mei-Lan Choong and Siok-Kuan Tambyah's (1995) study of television advertisements across Singapore and Malaysia. Also, in Western settings, males were represented as occupying a disproportionately high percentage of the work force, a greater diversity of occupations, and higher status jobs while females were rarely depicted as working outside the home and were likely to occupy a position of subservience or low responsibility when they were employed (Defluer 1963; Dominick and Rauch 1971; Gerbner 1972; Seggar and Wheeler 1973; Streicher 1974; Tedesco 1974; Tuchman 1978; and Morgan and Rothschild 1983,

Brettl and Cantor 1988; Signorielli 1989; Kolbe and Langefeld 1993; Mazella *et al* 1992; Gilly 1988).

5.3.2 Audience study data based on all respondents' role perceptions

The research will test for any statistical links between the frequencies with which certain gender occupational roles are depicted on screen in selected programmes and viewers' perceptions of these occupations. The study looks for any significant relationship between these occupations and TV viewers and Chi Square has been employed as shown in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15 Chi Square Values of TV Viewers' Social Reality Perception of Occupational Roles

Occupational Roles	TV drama viewers	
	Light	Heavy
1) Ambulance / medic driver	9.950**	8.399*
2) Fire-fighting officer	11.888**	4.043
3) Nurse	9.853**	0.044
4) Teacher	3.315	0.422
5) Police officer	0.827	9.434**
6) Scientist	1.588	5.772*
7) Chef	1.785	7.267*

Note: df: 2

Number of cases: 962

*=p value< .05, **=p value< .01, ***=p value<.001

As shown in Table 5.15, light and heavy TV viewers displayed gender-stereotyped opinions about a few occupational roles; for example, whether being a fire-fighting officer is more of a male or a female-suitable occupation. There was no such differential perception among female heavy TV viewers. The current Chi Square results indicate where stereotyped perceptions might exist, the results distributions of occupational attributes in light and heavy TV viewers shown in Table 5.16 provide further details.

Table 5.16 TV Drama Viewers' Social Reality Perceptions of Occupational Roles

Occupational Roles	Social reality perception of TV drama viewers					
	Light (%) ¹			Heavy (%) ²		
	Male	Both sexes	Women	Men	Both sexes	Women
1) Fire-fighting officer	76.9	15.7	7.5	-	-	-
2) Nurse	11.2	21.6	67.2	-	-	-
3) Ambulance driver	73.9	20.9	5.2	88.4	9.9	1.8
4) Chef	-	-	-	67.3	29.2	3.5
5) Police officer	-	-	-	62	34.5	3.5
6) Scientist	-	-	-	41.9	54.6	3.5

Note: 1 = % within light TV drama viewers (Total of 134)

2 = % within heavy TV drama viewers (Total of 284)

As shown in Table 5.16, light and heavy TV viewers did not differ from each other in exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinions that 'ambulance driver' was the occupational role more often pursued by men than women.

They differed from each other; however, in the perceptions of other roles listed in Table 5.16. Most light TV viewers exhibited gender-stereotyped opinion that 'fire-fighting officer' (76.9%) was more often pursued by men than women while 'nurse' (67.2%) was more often pursued by women than men. There was no significant perception of such occupational roles found among heavy TV viewers. Meanwhile most heavy TV viewers exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that 'chef' (67.3%), and 'police officer' (62%) were more often pursued by men than women while exhibiting counter-stereotyped opinions that 'scientist' (54.6%) was occupation equally pursued by men and women. There was no significant perception of such roles found among light TV viewers.

5.3.3 Audience study data based on male or female respondents' role perceptions

Male and female respondents were tested among light TV and heavy TV viewers, who viewed television drama programmes to find out if there is any significant difference between these two social groups of males and females. These are shown in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17 Chi Square Values of TV Drama Viewers' Social Reality Perception of Occupational Roles

Occupational roles	Social reality perception of TV drama viewers			
	Light		Heavy	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
1) Engineer	6.338*	2.397	4.912	0.822
2) Nurse	0.396	12.327**	1.311	3.799
3) Doctor	1.788	6.173*	1.330	0.094
4) Property agent	1.520	10.441**	0.525	3.015
5) Fire-fighting officer	1.441	19.492***	7.449*	1.035
6) Taxi driver	1.898	6.960*	7.912*	1.051
7) Ambulance driver	1.546	8.799*	9.958**	0.044
8) Hotel manager	1.046	0.065	10.134**	1.275
9) Police officer	0.899	1.919	12.547**	0.055
10) Sales agent	0.300	4.566	6.248*	0.120
11) Administrator	1.088	1.257	6.134*	6.713*
12) Teacher	0.392	4.114	3.109	6.297*
13) Chef	0.686	3.874	2.043	6.890*

Note: df: 2

Number of cases: 962

*=p value< .05, **=p value< .01, ***=p value< .001

As shown in Table 5.17, the current Chi Square results indicate where stereotyped perceptions might exist. Male light TV viewers displayed gender-stereotyped opinions about, for example, whether being an engineer is more of a male or a female occupation. There was no such differential perception among female light TV viewers or among male or female heavy TV viewers. The results distributions of occupational attributes in male and female light and heavy TV viewers shown in Table 5.18 and Table 5.19 provide further details.

Table 5.18 Light TV Drama Viewers' Social Reality Perception of Occupational Roles by Gender

Occupational Roles	Social reality perception of light TV drama viewers					
	Male (%) ¹			Female (%) ²		
	Men	Both sexes	Women	Men	Both sexes	Women
1) Engineer	48.6	51.4	0	-	-	-
2) Fire-fighting officer	-	-	-	72.7	17.2	10.1
3) Ambulance driver	-	-	-	72.7	21.2	6.1
4) Doctor	-	-	-	37.4	51.5	11.1
5) Nurse	-	-	-	13.1	20.2	66.7

Note: 1= % within male light TV drama viewers (Total of 35)

2 = % within female light TV drama viewers (Total of 99)

As shown in Table 5.18, most males TV differed from female light TV viewers as most male light TV viewers (51.4%) exhibited counter-stereotyped opinion that ‘engineer’ was an occupation equally pursued by men and women in real life while there was no significant perception of such role found among female light TV viewers. Most female light TV viewers also exhibited counter-stereotyped opinion that ‘doctor’ (51.5%) was the occupation equally pursued by men and women while there was no significant perception of such role found among male light TV viewers. Most female light TV viewers also exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that ‘fire-fighting officer’ (72.7%), and ‘ambulance driver’ (72.7%) were the occupations more often pursued by men than women while ‘nurse’ (66.7%) was the occupation more often pursued by women than men. There was no significant perception of such roles found in the opposite social group light TV viewers.

Table 5.19 Heavy TV Drama Viewers’ Social Reality Perceptions of Occupational Roles by Gender

Occupational Roles	Social reality perception of heavy TV drama viewers					
	Male (%) ¹			Female (%) ²		
	Men	Both sexes	Women	Men	Both sexes	Women
1) Fire-fighting officer	89.7	9.4	1	-	-	-
2) Police officer	59.6	37.4	3	-	-	-
3) Ambulance driver	90.1	8.9	1	-	-	-
4) Teacher	-	-	-	9.9	77.8	12.3
5) Chef	-	-	-	71.6	27.2	1.2

Note: 1 = % within male heavy TV drama viewers (Total of 203)

2 = % within female heavy TV drama viewers (Total of 81)

As shown in Table 5.19, most male and most female heavy TV viewers differed from each other that most male heavy viewers exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that ‘fire-fighting officer’ (89.7%), ‘police officer’ (59.6%), and ‘ambulance/medic driver’ (90.1%) were more often pursued by men than were women. There was no significant perception of such occupational roles found among female heavy TV viewers. Nonetheless, most female heavy TV viewers exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that ‘chef’ was more often pursued by men than women while there was no significant perception of such occupation found among male heavy TV viewers. Most female heavy TV viewers also differed from most male heavy TV viewers in exhibiting counter-stereotyped opinions that ‘teacher’ (77.8%) was equally pursued

by men and women. There was no significant perception of such role found in the opposite sex group of heavy TV viewers. Results shown in Table 5.19 are consistent with Gunter's (1995) study on 13- to 15-years-old teenagers' aspirations for occupations when they became adults and noted that boys tended to present occupations, which were seen to be traditionally male such as the police, army and so on. This was also the case for girls to pursue traditionally female careers.

Despite the fact that lighter TV viewers watched less hours than heavier TV viewers, they could be watching TV content that had more gender-stereotyped portrayals than the counter-stereotyped ones. For example, males could be watching more gender-stereotyped portrayals that women were portrayed being shy and dependent on men than female light TV viewers so they perceived that these attributes belong to women as part of their characteristics. Also, female light TV viewers perceived that men were more authoritative than women while perceiving that both sexes of men and women had kind characteristics, as shown in Table 5.7. Another example is that, as shown in Table 5.9, male light TV viewers' belief that women cooked meal as part of their characteristic in real life while females perceived that such role was not necessary the role of either sex but both men and women did the cooking in actuality.

In the study by Miller and Reeves (1976) on adolescent schoolchildren's perceptions of US television programmes, they found that after the counter-stereotypical social profile was shown to the sample, boys and girls were found equally accepting non-traditional aspirations as a consequence. From Table 5.3 and 5.5, heavy viewers watched TV content that had more counter-stereotyped than gender-stereotyped portrayals and thus they perceived that men and women were, for example, nurturing, intelligent, and could also always be in trouble. Also, as shown in Table 5.11, male heavy TV viewers watched more counter-stereotyped portrayals that men and women were nurturing as part of their characteristics, while women were portrayed being ambitious, successful and intelligent, than female heavy TV viewers. However, female heavy TV viewers perceived that men and women were in equal proportion of being married, not that one sex was counted more as being single than the other sex.

Table 5.13 has also shown that male and female heavy TV viewers were exposed mostly to counter-stereotyped portrayals of ironing clothes, disciplining children, food shopping and cleaning the floor that these roles were not pursued by either sex but both men and women in actuality. From watching counter-stereotyped portrayals of father taking children to school, they perceived that taking children to school was concerned as male role. According to the study of Durkin (1985) who found that girls aged 8-12 might grow used to being presented with the male on television in general as more powerful and knowledgeable, which resulted that girls learned from television programmes that repetitively showed it was a man's world, and thus learned to displace their own perspective. Therefore, as shown in Table 5.19, females could be watching more of male occupations in a higher or more prestige or more male suitable/competent job role and that they perceived that police officer was; for example, pursued by men in social reality. Female heavy TV viewers did not seem to set their occupational aims higher as Morgan (1990) has argued that heavy viewers, by seeing the rather limited roles of women, were more encouraged to want better for themselves.

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter has begun by summarising data from the content analysis that shows the extent to which the 38 features of social attributes, marriage, family, and occupational roles were found to occur in TV programmes. Results were then presented on weight of viewing differences from the survey sample. One section was devoted initially to reporting data for all respondents, then follow on sections for male respondents only and then for female respondents only. In each case, I have discussed the percentage data for light and heavy viewers on those attributes where significant weight of viewing results occurred. As there is a lot of data to digest for the reader, places where non-significant differences occurred in the perceptions of light and heavy viewers were removed from the tables presenting data findings.

This chapter has presented extensive results on the comparison between light and heavy viewers in the context of roles and occupations. TV characters were mostly portrayed in gendered stereotypical ways. For instance, the characteristics of 'athletic', 'unfaithful' and 'criminal' were mostly portrayed by male characters. Light and heavy viewers exhibited both their differences and similarities in their gender-

and counter-stereotyped opinions on social, behavioural and occupational attributes. Males and females among these two group viewers also displayed their significant differences and similarities in their role perceptions as reported earlier in this chapter. There was an evidence for cultivation effects and mainstreaming effects in the perceptions of roles, which will be discussed and interpreted further in the Conclusion Chapter. Chapter 6 will now examine the relationships between perceptions of attributes in TV drama genres and real life and amount of reported TV viewing while being controlled for demographic profile and social variables using factor analysis and multiple regression methodology.

Chapter 6 : Multi-variate Analyses of Relationships between Reported Television Viewing and Gender Attribute Perceptions

6.1 Introduction

This chapter will examine the relationships between perceptions of attributes in TV drama genres and real life and amount of reported TV viewing. Previous researchers such as Doob and MacDonald (1979), Hirsch (1980) and Hughes (1980) criticised Gerbner for failing to build in multiple simultaneous controls for variables other than TV viewing in assessing the distinctive impact TV might have on specific social perceptions. Multi-variate statistical analyses are run to assess of whether perceptions concerning social attributes, and family or domestic roles portrayed in televised drama are related to weight of TV viewing. The perceptions concerning occupational roles are not entered into this analysis as the study specifically examined on social characteristics and family roles, which have a large number of data that can be clustered into compound variables. These analyses also differentiate between different types of televised drama and control for a range of personal characteristics of respondents. In addition, there may be classes of variables that belong together and could represent more robust variables in terms of measuring the nature of public perceptions of social reality. In the current research, such compound variables will be explored through factor analysis that provides an empirical statistical device for clustering isolated perceptions into larger families of perceptual constructs.

6.2 Factor Analysis

Data from the 24 perceptual attribute measures were entered into a factor analysis with varimax rotation. Factor analysis is a preliminary step before the multi-variate relational analyses. It is designed to explore whether more robust variables can be legitimately created from the long strings of perceptual variables measured in the original questionnaire.

The researcher initially did the separate correlations between dependent variables of 24 perceptions of gender roles in TV daytime and early evening dramas (**APPENDIX G**), TV late evening and midnight dramas (**APPENDIX H**) and in real life (**APPENDIX I**), and independent variables of the respondents' weight of TV

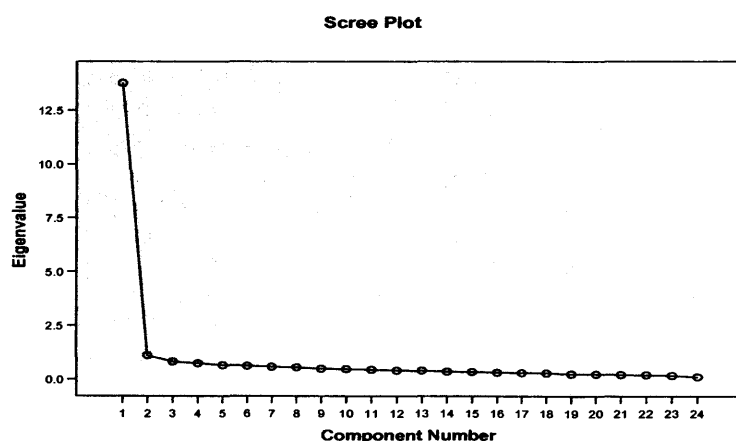
viewing on Channels 3, 5, 7, 9, ITV, 11 and UBS/SkyTV before and while controlling for gender, age, education and the availability of TV sets in bedroom. It was found that even though the variables had been correlated without clustering them, these variables were still significantly correlated and also correlated in the same direction. Therefore, it would be better to cluster these highly correlated variables. Not only might such analyses produce more manageable numbers of dependent variables for analysis, but these new variables might also be more robust as perceptual constructs. This process was important because the researcher needed to know before clustering the attributes to see how they were related among themselves.

A scree test was used to determine the cut off point for acceptance of factors yielded by this analysis. Then I reported the eigenvalues and percent of variance scores for each accepted factor. Factor analysis was run more than once on the basis of two TV drama categories perceptions, consisting of daytime and early evening dramas, and late evening and midnight dramas, and then for real life perceptions.

6.2.1 Television daytime and early evening drama perceptions

This section will examine the TV viewers' perceptions of roles and attributes that were presented in TV daytime and early evening dramas. These perceptions were clustered in to compound variables in order to establish a more perceptual construct.

Figure 6.1 Scree Plot of Television Daytime and Early Evening Drama Perceptions



As shown in Figure 6.1, the scree plot is a graph of the eigenvalues against all the factors. After running factor analysis on 24 attributes and roles portrayed in TV daytime and early evening dramas (Noon-8:00 p.m. TV dramas), it was found that the **eigenvalue** or amount of variance in the original variables accounted for by component 1 was 13.772 and by component 2 was 1.109. For the **percent of variance** attributable to each factor, the first factor accounted for 42.937% of the variance and the second 19.070%. All the remaining factors were not significant. The graph is useful for determining how many factors to retain. The point of interest is where the curve starts to flatten. The curve began to flatten between factors 2 and 3. Note also that factor 3 had an eigenvalue of less than 1 (0.824) so only two factors were retained.

Table 6.1 Factor Analysis of TV Daytime and Early Evening Drama Perceptions

Factor variables in TV daytime and early evening dramas	Component	
	1	2
Aggressive	.669	.309
Kind	.743	.357
Nurturing	.674	.425
Shy	.695	.367
Physically helpful	.711	.365
Ambitious	.712	.332
Dependent	.711	.345
Intelligent	.681	.383
Single	.640	.316
Married	.723	.276
Successful	.603	.410
Always in trouble	.619	.423
Food shopping	.751	.238
Cleaning the floor	.797	.323
Washing dishes	.760	.448
Ironing clothes	.822	.321
Cooking meal	.798	.209
Taking children to school	.672	.317
Disciplining children	.765	.313
Athletic	.463	.438
Outgoing	.379	.655
Unfaithful	.292	.712
Authoritative	.291	.752
Criminal	.234	.778

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

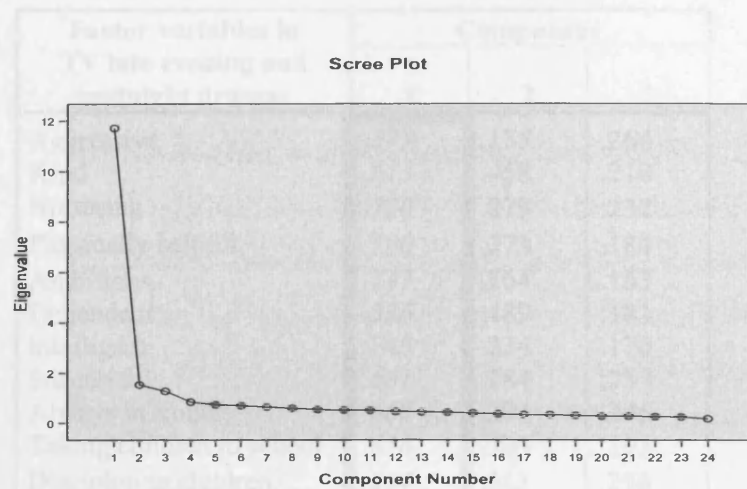
As shown in Table 6.1, by using varimax rotation, the attributes and roles most highly associated with the first component were “Aggressive”, “Kind”, “Nurturing”, “Shy”, “Physically helpful”, “Athletic”, “Ambitious”, “Dependent”, “Intelligent”, “Single”, “Married”, “Successful”, “Always in trouble”, “Food shopping”, “Cleaning the floor”, “Washing dishes”, “Ironing clothes”, “Cooking meal”, “Taking children to school”, and “Disciplining children”. According to a number of previous studies (such as Scheibe 1983, Benton *et al* 1983, Lovdal 1989, Signorielli 1998 and Noor 1999), attributes of aggressive, physically helpful, and athletic, to name a few, were considered as male attributes while attributes of dependent, always in trouble, and the roles of homecare, were considered as female attributes and roles. These attributes were; therefore, categorised as *“Men and women’s social attributes and domestic roles in TV daytime and early evening dramas”*.

The second component had high loadings from attributes “Outgoing”, “Unfaithful”, “Authoritative”, and “Criminal”. These attributes were considered by previous studies such as Henderson, Greenberg and Atkin (1980), Greenberg, Richards and Henderson (1980), Pollack and Gilligan (1983), to name a few, as male attributes. The factor variables in the second component were categorised; therefore, as *“Men’s social characteristics in TV daytime and early evening dramas”*.

6.2.2 Late evening and midnight drama perceptions

This section will examine the TV viewers’ perceptions of roles and attributes that were presented in late evening and midnight dramas. These perceptions were clustered in to compound variables in order to establish a more perceptual construct.

Figure 6.2 Scree Plot of Television Late Evening and Midnight Drama Perceptions



From Figure 6.2, after running factor analysis on 24 attributes and roles portrayed in TV late evening and midnight dramas (8:00 p.m.-midnight TV dramas), it was found that the **eigenvalue** or amount of variance in the original variables accounted for by component 1 was 11.714, by component 2 was 1.529, and by component 3 was 1.276. For the **percent of variance** attributable to each factor, the first factor accounted for 25.856% of the variance, the second 21.652%, and the third 12.987%. All the remaining factors were not significant. Therefore, the curve from the scree plot began to flatten between factors 3 and 4. Note also that factor 4 had an eigenvalue of less than 1 (0.852) so only three factors were retained. The results of the factor analysis of television late evening and midnight drama perceptions will be shown in Table 6.2 (next page).

Table 6.2 Factor Analysis of TV Late Evening and Midnight Drama Perceptions

Factor variables in TV late evening and midnight dramas	Component		
	1	2	3
Aggressive	.579	.155	.264
Kind	.613	.458	.218
Nurturing	.720	.273	.232
Physically helpful	.700	.273	.184
Ambitious	.747	.264	.163
Dependent	.536	.489	.181
Intelligent	.748	.234	.170
Successful	.681	.284	.237
Always in trouble	.660	.294	.246
Taking children to school	.616	.300	.197
Disciplining children	.564	.513	.256
Single	.504	.376	.236
Married	.533	.388	.296
Shy	.351	.651	.205
Food shopping	.300	.720	.168
Cleaning the floor	.252	.800	.224
Washing dishes	.288	.807	.227
Ironing clothes	.277	.823	.168
Cooking meal	.332	.724	.222
Athletic	.171	.234	.635
Criminal	.159	.166	.740
Outgoing	.251	.294	.606
Unfaithful	.238	.172	.719
Authoritative	.474	.073	.611

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

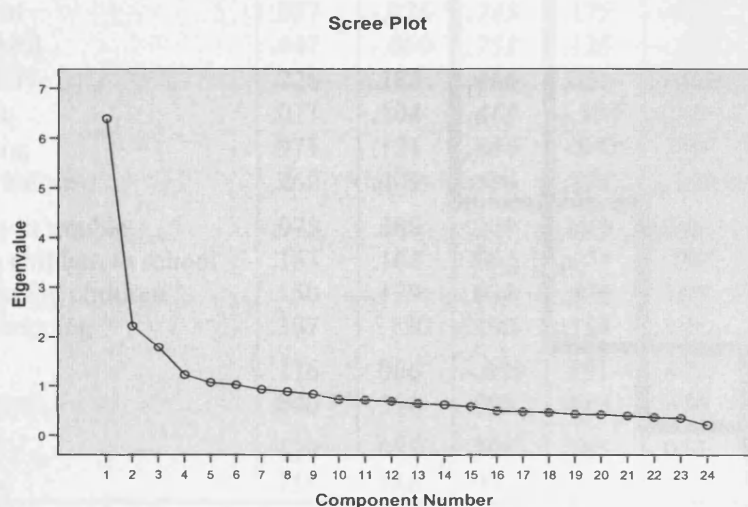
As shown in Table 6.2, by using varimax rotation, the attributes and roles most highly associated with the first component were “Aggressive”, “Physically helpful”, “Ambitious”, “Intelligent”, “Successful”, “Kind”, “Nurturing”, “Dependent”, “Always in trouble”, “Taking children to school”, “Disciplining children”, “Single”, and “Married”. The factor variables in the first component have been categorised as *“Men and women’s social attributes and family roles in TV late evening and midnight dramas”*. The second component had high loadings from attributes and roles “Shy”, “Food shopping”, “Cleaning the floor”, “Washing dishes”, “Ironing clothes”, and “Cooking meal”. The factor variables in the second component were categorised as *“Women’s social characteristic and domestic roles in TV late evening and midnight dramas”*.

The third component was most strongly associated with attributes “Athletic”, “Criminal”, “Outgoing”, “Unfaithful”, and “Authoritative”. The factor variables in the third component were categorised as “Men’s social characteristics in TV late evening and midnight dramas”. The names given in each of these components of male or female attributes, family or domestic roles, and marriage roles, were based on previous studies, as mentioned earlier in previous section.

6.2.3 Real life perceptions

This section will examine the TV viewers’ social reality perceptions of roles and attributes similar to the ones presented in TV daytime and early evening drama, and late evening and midnight dramas. These perceptions were clustered into compound variables in order to establish a more perceptual construct.

Figure 6.3 Scree Plot of Real Life Perceptions



From Figure 6.3, after running factor analysis on 24 attributes and roles men and women had in real life, it was found that the **eigenvalue** or amount of variance in the original variables accounted for by component 1 was 6.388, by component 2 was 2.217, by component 3 was 1.786, by component 4 was 1.227, by component 5 was 1.070, and by component 6 was 1.024. For the **percent of variance** attributable to each factor, the first factor accounted for 12.084% of the variance, the second 11.924%, the third 11.407%, the fourth 9.483%, the fifth 6.334%, and the sixth 5.907%. However, the curve from the scree plot here began to flatten between factors

6 and 7. Note also that factor 7 had an eigenvalue below 1 (0.931). However, from the sixth factor on, the line was almost flat, meaning the each successive factor was accounting for smaller and smaller amounts of the total variance so only five factors have been retained.

Table 6.3 Factor analysis of Real Life Perceptions

Factor variables in real life	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Cleaning the floor	.719	.079	.117	.171	.027	.185
Washing dishes	.835	.120	.062	.093	.150	.087
Ironing clothes	.821	.107	.100	.093	.131	.007
Cooking meal	.688	.207	.215	.195	-.034	-.004
Nurturing	.025	.442	-.036	.438	.216	.227
Kind	.119	.591	.212	.031	.173	.233
Helpful	.287	.658	.142	-.060	.100	.193
Ambitious	.039	.536	.032	.354	.306	.162
Intelligent	.062	.580	.020	.332	.227	-.039
Successful	.126	.641	.004	.447	-.021	-.046
Intelligent	.062	.580	.020	.332	.227	-.039
Criminal	.077	-.026	.745	.175	-.088	.075
Unfaithful	.047	-.050	.731	.125	-.104	.244
Aggressive	.226	.183	.466	.035	-.022	-.007
Athletic	.073	.104	.663	-.103	.366	-.026
Outgoing	.071	.121	.606	-.042	.298	.193
Authoritative	.269	.409	.506	.108	-.153	-.225
Always in trouble	.073	.388	.279	.449	.045	.131
Taking children to school	.163	.164	.052	.673	-.001	-.050
Disciplining children	.150	.179	.028	.670	.169	.048
Food shopping	.387	-.150	.196	.554	.198	.212
Shy	.176	.086	-.029	.191	.671	.081
Dependent	.040	.314	.098	.113	.676	-.013
Single	.129	.085	.306	.165	.037	.723
Married	.156	.446	.032	-.011	.059	.673

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

What is notable is the much more sophisticated and diverse factor solution for real life perceptions than for TV drama-related perceptions. As shown in Table 6.3, by using varimax rotation, the roles most highly associated with the first component were “Cleaning the floor”, “Washing dishes”, “Ironing clothes”, and “Cooking meal”. The factor variables in the first component were categorised as “*Women’s domestic roles in real life*”. The second component was most highly associated with attributes

“Nurturing”, “Kind”, “Physically helpful”, “Ambitious”, “Successful”, and “Intelligent”. The factor variables in the second component were categorised as *“Women and Men’s social attributes in real life”*.

The third factor was most highly associated with attributes “Criminal”, “Unfaithful”, “Aggressive”, “Athletic”, “Outgoing”, and “Authoritative”. The factor variables in the third component were categorised as *“Men’s social characteristics in real life”*. The fourth factor was most highly associated with attributes and roles “Always in trouble”, “Taking children to school”, “Disciplining children”, and “Food shopping”. The factor variables in the fourth component were categorised as *“Women’s family roles in real life”*. Finally, the fifth factor was most highly associated with attributes “Shy” and “Dependent”. The factor variables in the fifth component were categorised as *“Women’s social characteristics in real life”*. The names given in each of these components of male or female attributes, family or domestic roles, and marriage roles, were based on previous studies, as mentioned earlier in previous sections.

The remaining components from the sixth component were accounted for very small significance for the total variance as mentioned in the Scree Plot and would NOT therefore be accounted for in this analysis. This was the sixth factor (Men’s and Women’s Marriage roles in real life) comprised of “Single” and “Married”.

6.3 Stepwise Multiple Regression

This section will present results of multivariate analyses that were used initially to examine links between reported weights of TV viewing and attribute perceptions. In order to find out if there is any significant relationship between dependent and independent variables, multivariate statistics namely Stepwise multiple regression have been applied. Dependent variables consisted of factor variables of the perceptions of respondents in specific aspects of attributes and roles, which included 24 attributes and roles portrayed on two different TV drama genres and in real life. Independent variables consisted of demographic variables including age, gender, level of education and TV availability in bedroom, TV Channel viewing measurement from Channel 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, ITV and UBC, and other social variables including the

influences of parents, friends and celebrities. So there were 14 explanatory variables in this Stepwise multiple regression analysis.

The direction of the relationship is determined by the codes of the linear variables. In the coding procedure, each of the factor variables that have been put into this analysis was coded like this: "Respondents perceive that males are more likely than females to have this characteristic or to pursue this role" as 1; "Respondents perceive that males and females are equally having this characteristic or pursuing this role" as 2; "Respondents' perception that females are more likely than males to have this characteristic or to pursue this role" as 3. These are the codes for dependent variables.

The codes for independent variables include respondent's gender, which was coded like this: "Male" as 1; "Female" as 2. For "the Influences of Friends", "the Influences of Parents", and the Influences of Celebrities", these were coded in terms of the degree of influence in percentage like this: 0-25% as 1; 26-50% as 2; 51-75% as 3; 76-100% as 4. TV Channel viewing measurement was coded like this: "Never" as 1; "less than one hour per week" as 2; "1-2 hours per week" as 3; "3-4 hours per week" as 4; "5-6 hours per week" as 5; "more than 6 hours per week" as 6. For age variable, "Respondents age 10 years old" was coded as 1, while the other end of the line, which was "Respondents age 19 years old was coded as 10. For educational level, "Respondents study in 1st year lower secondary class" was coded as 1 while "Respondents study in 3rd year upper secondary class" was coded as 6. For the availability of TV set in bedroom was coded like this, "Respondents have no TV set in their bedrooms" was coded as 0 and "Respondents have TV set(s) in their bedrooms" was coded as 1.

In other studies controlling variables are the important determination in the changes of TV influence. For instance, Doob and MacDonald (1979) reported that in the study of the topic of violence, controls for neighbourhood were more reliable than the controls for income used by Gerbner. Similarly, Hirsch (1980, cited in Livingstone 1990:16), argued that an apparent relationship between exposure to violence on television and fear of crime could be explained by the neighbourhood, where viewers live in. This study was aimed to analyse the relationship between amount of TV viewing and respondents' perceptions by controlling gender, age, level

of education, the availability of bedroom, TV Channel viewing measurements, influences of friends, families, and celebrities.

The independent variables and dependent variables were entered into multiple regression analysis to find out if there would be any significant relationship or more than one relationship existed among these variables and if so, which direction of the relationships they were. The results indicated that the multiple regression analysis does not really show much here, even if this predictor variable emerged with significant beta and t values. However, it is important to study this as it gives significant statements about the overall results of the thesis. The results were found and summarized from Table 6.4 to 6.12.

6.3.1 Television daytime and early evening drama perceptions

This section will examine the relationships between amount of TV viewing and perceptions of respondents about attributes and roles portrayed in daytime and early evening dramas while demographic and social profiles, and reported TV viewing channels were controlled. Results are concluded in Table 6.4 and 6.5.

Table 6.4 Regression Results of Men and Women's Social Attributes and Domestic Roles in TV Daytime and Early Evening Dramas

Predictor	Unstandardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Adjusted R ²
	Beta			
(1) TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week	.273	8.194	.000	.096 ^a
(2) TV Ch3 viewing hour(s)/week	.100	3.027	.003	.103 ^b
(3) UBC/ SkyTV viewing hour(s)/week	-.067	-2.164	.031	.107 ^c
(4) TV availability in bedroom	.063	2.038	.042	.110 ^d

Note: ^a = for predictor (1), ^b = for predictors (1) and (2), ^c = for predictors (1), (2) and (3),
^d = for predictors (1), (2), (3), and (4).

Dependent variable: men and women's social attributes and domestic roles in TV daytime and early evening dramas (aggressive, kind, nurturing, shy, physically helpful, athletic, ambitious, dependent, intelligent, single, married, successful, always in trouble, food shopping, cleaning the floor, washing dishes, ironing clothes, cooking meal, taking children to school, and disciplining children).

Independent variables: age, gender, education, TV availability in bedroom, TV channel viewing measurement of channel 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, ITV and UBC/Sky cable TV, and the influences of parents, friends, and celebrities.

As shown in Table 6.4, there were four significant predictors to this dependent variable, which were *TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week*, *TV Ch3 viewing hour(s)/week*, *UBC/SkyTV viewing hour(s)/week*, and *TV availability in bedroom*. The adjusted R² score indicates the percentage of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the predictor variable. The first predictor, which was *Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week* accounted for 9.6% of the variance of the dependent variable. Furthermore, the final predictors, which included all four significant predictors, explained for 11% of the variance of the dependent variable. Therefore, the predictor *Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week* was by far away the most significant predictor for this dependent variable. If the model was derived from the population rather than a sample it would account for approximately 11% less variance in the outcome. These variables were statistically significant and the probability that these did not occur by chance, but as they explained for 11% of the overall variance then they could be socially significant.

In correlation coefficients, Beta value for *UBC/SkyTV viewing hour(s)/week* was -2.164 ($p < 0.05$) meaning that there was a significantly negative relationship between *UBC/SkyTV viewing hour(s)/week* and *men and women's social attributes and domestic roles in TV daytime and early evening dramas*. Thus, the more the hours respondents reportedly watched UBC/SkyTV, the more the respondents exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that *men and women's social attributes and domestic roles in TV daytime and early evening dramas* were more likely to be portrayed by male than female TV characters on TV daytime and early evening dramas.

Further, such dependent variable had the positive significant relationships with *Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week* (Beta values= .273, $p < .001$), *Ch3 viewing hour(s)/week* (Beta values= .100, $p < .01$), and *TV in bedroom* (Beta values= .063, $p < .05$). Thus, as respondents' reported viewing hours of TV Channel 7, and/or viewing hours of TV Channel 3 increased, and/or respondents had a TV set in their bedrooms, the respondents more likely to exhibit gender-stereotyped opinions that *men and women's social attributes and domestic roles in TV daytime and early evening dramas* were seen as being more likely to be portrayed by female rather than male TV characters, than respondents who reportedly watched less viewing hours of these TV channels or did not have TV in bedrooms.

Table 6.5 Regression Results of Men's Social Characteristics in TV Daytime and Early Evening Dramas

Predictor	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Adjusted R ²
	Beta			
(1) TV Ch11 viewing hour(s)/week	.074	2.235	.026	.007 ^a
(2) TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week	.066	2.016	.044	.010 ^b

Note: ^a = for predictor (1), ^b = for predictors (1) and (2).

Dependent variable: men's social characteristics in TV daytime and early evening dramas (outgoing, unfaithful, authoritative, and criminal).

Independent variables: age, gender, education, TV availability in bedroom, TV channel viewing measurement of channel 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, ITV and UBC/Sky cable TV, and the influences of parents, friends, and celebrities.

As shown in Table 6.5, there were two significant predictors to this dependent variable, which were *TV Ch11 viewing hour(s)/week* and *TV Ch 7 viewing hour(s)/week*. The adjusted R² score indicates the percentage of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the predictor variable. The first predictor, which was *TV Ch11 viewing hour(s)/week* accounted for 0.7% of the variance of the dependent variable. Furthermore, the final predictors, which included all two significant predictors, explained for 1% of the variance of the dependent variable. Therefore, the predictor *TV Ch11 viewing hour(s)/week* was by far away the most significant predictor for this dependent variable.

In correlation coefficients, the dependent variable *men's social roles in TV daytime and early evening dramas* was found significantly related to the independent variables *TV Ch11 viewing hour(s)/week* (Beta value= .074, $p < .05$) and *TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week* (Beta value= .066, $p < .05$) in a positive direction. This indicated that the more the hours respondents reportedly watched TV Channel 11 and 7, the more the respondents exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that *men's social roles in TV daytime and early evening dramas* were seen as being more likely to be portrayed by female than male TV characters.

6.3.2 Late evening and midnight drama perceptions

This section will examine the relationship between amount of TV viewing and respondents' attribute perceptions in late evening and midnight dramas while demographic and social profiles, and reported TV viewing channels were controlled. Results are concluded in Table 6.6 and 6.8.

Table 6.6 Regression results of Men and Women's Social Attributes and Family Roles in TV Late Evening and Midnight Dramas

Predictor	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Adjusted R ²
	Beta			
(1) TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week	.118	3.679	.000	.011
(2) Celebrities' influence	-.110	-3.436	.001	.022

Note: ^a = for predictor (1), ^b = for predictors (1) and (2).

Dependent variable: men and women's social attributes and family roles in TV late evening and midnight dramas (aggressive, physically helpful, ambitious, intelligent, successful, kind, nurturing, dependent, always in trouble, taking children to school, disciplining children, single, and married).

Independent variables: age, gender, education, TV availability in bedroom, TV channel viewing measurement of channel 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, ITV and UBC/Sky cable TV, and the influences of parents, friends, and celebrities.

As shown in Table 6.6, there were three significant predictors to this dependent variable, which were *TV Ch 7 viewing hour(s)/week* and *celebrities' influence*. The adjusted R² score indicates the percentage of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the predictor variable. The first predictor, which was *TV Ch 7 viewing hour(s)/week* accounted for 1.1% of the variance of the dependent variable. Furthermore, the final predictors, which included all two significant predictors, explained for 2.2% of the variance of the dependent variable. Therefore, the predictor *TV Ch 7 viewing hour(s)/week* was by far away the most significant predictor for this dependent variable.

In correlation coefficients, Beta value for *TV Ch 7 viewing hour(s)/week* was .118 ($p < .001$) meaning that there were significantly positive relationships between *TV Ch 7 viewing hour(s)/week* and this dependent variable. Thus, the more the hours

respondents reportedly watched TV Channel 7, the more the respondents exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that attributes and roles including kind, nurturing, dependent, always in trouble, taking children to school, disciplining children, and married were seen as being more likely to be portrayed by female than male TV characters. Also, they exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that aggressive, physically helpful, ambitious, intelligent, successful, and single were seen as being more likely to be portrayed by female than male TV characters on TV late evening and midnight dramas.

Further, such dependent variable had the significantly negative relationships with celebrities' influence (Beta values= -.110, $p < .01$). Thus, as celebrities' influence reportedly increased, the respondents, while exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinions that aggressive, physically helpful, ambitious, intelligent, successful, and single were seen as being more like to be pursued by men than women, exhibiting counter-stereotyped opinions that kind, nurturing, dependent, always in trouble, taking children to school, disciplining children, and married were seen as being more likely to be portrayed by male than female TV characters on TV late evening and midnight dramas.

Table 6.7 Regression Results of Women's Social Characteristic and Domestic Roles in TV Late Evening and Midnight Dramas

Predictor	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Adjusted R ²
	Beta			
(1) TV Ch3 viewing hour(s)/week	.172	5.137	.000	.048 ^a
(2) Respondent's gender	-.147	-4.710	.000	.076 ^b
(3) Celebrities' influence	.082	2.654	.008	.083 ^c
(4) TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week	.090	2.643	.008	.090 ^d
(5) Respondent's year of education	.066	2.117	.035	.093 ^e

Note: ^a = for predictor (1), ^b = for predictors (1) and (2), ^c = for predictors (1), (2) and (3),

^d = for predictors (1), (2), (3) and (4), ^e = for predictors (1), (2), (3), (4) and (5).

Dependent variable: women's social characteristic and domestic roles in TV late evening and midnight dramas (shy, food shopping, cleaning the floor, washing dishes, ironing clothes, and cooking meal).

Independent variables: age, gender, education, TV availability in bedroom, TV channel viewing measurement of channel 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, ITV and UBC/Sky cable TV, and the influences of parents, friends, and celebrities.

As shown in Table 6.7, there were five significant predictors to this dependent variable, which were TV Ch3 viewing hour(s)/week, respondent's gender, celebrities' influence, TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week, and respondent's year of education. The adjusted R^2 score indicates the percentage of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the predictor variable. The first predictor, which was TV Ch3 viewing hour(s)/week accounted for 4.8% of the variance of the dependent variable. Furthermore, the final predictors, which included all five significant predictors, explained for 9.3% of the variance of the dependent variable. Therefore, the predictor TV Ch3 viewing hour(s)/week was by far away the most significant predictor for this dependent variable. If the model was derived from the population rather than a sample it would account for approximately 9.3% less variance in the outcome. These variables were statistically significant and the probability that these did not occur by chance, but as they explained for only 9.3% of the overall variance then they could be socially significant.

In correlation coefficients, Beta value for *respondent's gender* was $-.147$ ($p < .001$) meaning that there were significantly negative relationships between *respondent's gender* and this dependent variable. Thus, female respondents were reportedly exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that *women's social characteristic and domestic roles in TV late evening and midnight dramas* were seen as being more likely to be portrayed by male than female TV characters on TV late evening and midnight dramas.

Further, such dependent variable had the positive significant relationships with *TV Ch3 viewing hour(s)/week* (Beta values= $.172$, $p < .001$), *celebrities' influence* (Beta values= $.082$, $p < .01$), *hour(s)/week watch TV Ch7* (Beta values= $.090$, $p < .01$) and *respondent's year of education* (Beta values= $.066$, $p < .05$). Thus, as respondents' reported viewing hours of TV Channel 3, and/or viewing hours of TV Channel 7 increased, and/or as celebrities' influence increased, and/or respondent's year of education increased, the respondents more likely to exhibit gender-stereotyped opinions that *women's social characteristic and domestic roles in TV late evening and midnight dramas* were seen as being more likely to be female rather than male roles, than respondents who reportedly watched less viewing hours of these TV channels or have a lower year of education.

Table 6.8 Regression Results of Men's Social Characteristics in TV Late Evening and Midnight Dramas

Predictor	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Adjusted R ²
	Beta			
(1) TV Ch11 viewing hour(s)/week	.091	2.855	.004	.008 ^a
(2) Friends' influence	-.088	-2.758	.006	.015 ^b

Note: ^a = for predictor (1), ^b = for predictors (1) and (2).

Dependent variable: men's social characteristics in TV late evening and midnight dramas (athletic, criminal, outgoing, unfaithful, and authoritative).

Independent variables: age, gender, education, TV availability in bedroom, TV channel viewing measurement of channel 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, ITV and UBC/Sky cable TV, and the influences of parents, friends, and celebrities.

Table 6.8 has shown that there were two significant predictors to this dependent variable, which were *TV Ch11 viewing hour(s)/week* and *friends' influence*. The adjusted R² score indicates the percentage of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the predictor variable. The first predictor, which was *TV Ch11 viewing hour(s)/week* accounted for 0.8% of the variance of the dependent variable. Furthermore, the final predictors, which included all two significant predictors, explained for 1.5% of the variance of the dependent variable. Therefore, the predictor *TV Ch11 viewing hour(s)/week* was by far away the most significant predictor for this dependent variable.

In correlation coefficients, Beta value for *TV Ch11 viewing hour(s)/week* was .091 ($p < .01$) meaning that there were significantly positive relationships between *TV Ch11 viewing hour(s)/week* and this dependent variable. Thus, the more the hours respondents reportedly watched TV Channel 11, the more the respondents exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that *men's social characteristics in TV late evening and midnight dramas* were seen as being more likely to be portrayed by female than male TV characters.

The dependent variable was negatively significant related to friends' influence (Beta value= -.088, $p < .01$). This indicated that as friends' influence increased, the

respondents exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that *men's social characteristics in TV late evening and midnight dramas* were seen as being more likely to be portrayed by male than female TV characters.

6.3.3 Real-life perceptions

This section will examine the relationships between amount of TV viewing and respondents' social reality perceptions while demographic and social profile, and reported TV viewing channels were controlled.

After entering the dependent variable *women's domestic roles in real life*, which consist of "Cleaning the floor", "Washing dishes", "Ironing clothes", and "Cooking meal" with independent variables of demographic profile, social influences, and reported TV viewing hours, it was found no significant relationships between these variables. While controlling for the independent variables of demographic, social, and self reported TV viewing hours profile, TV viewers' social reality perceptions of women's domestic roles remained significant. Other results are concluded in Table 6.9 and 6.12.

Table 6.9 Regression Results of Women and Men's Social Attributes in Real Life

Predictor	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Adjusted R ²
	Beta			
(1) Friends' influence	.119	3.727	.000	.013

Note: Dependent variable: women and men's social attributes in real life (nurturing, kind, physically helpful, ambitious, successful, and intelligent).

Independent variables: age, gender, education, TV availability in bedroom, TV channel viewing measurement of channel 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, ITV and UBC/Sky cable TV, and the influences of parents, friends, and celebrities.

As shown in Table 6.9, there was one significant predictor to this dependent variable, which was *friend's influence*. The adjusted multiple R² in this predictor was accounted for 1.3%. There was an indication that *women and men's social attributes*

in real life had positive significant relationships with *friends' influence* (Beta value=.119, $p < .001$). This indicated that as *friends' influence* increased, the respondents were more likely to exhibit gender-stereotyped opinions that the characteristics of nurturing and kind were seen as being more likely to be female than male characteristics, while the same respondents exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that physically helpful, ambitious, successful, and intelligent were seen as being more likely to be female than male characteristics.

Table 6.10 Regression Results of Men's Social Characteristics in Real Life

Predictor	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Adjusted R ²
	Beta			
(1) TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week	-.127	-3.668	.000	.031 ^a
(2) TV Ch3 viewing hour(s)/week	-.096	-2.794	.005	.037 ^b
(3) Respondent's gender	.074	2.313	.021	.042 ^c

Note: ^a = for predictor (1), ^b = for predictors (1) and (2), ^c = for predictors (1), (2) and (3).

Dependent variable: men's social characteristics in real life (criminal, unfaithful, aggressive, athletic, outgoing, and authoritative).

Independent variables: age, gender, education, TV availability in bedroom, TV channel viewing measurement of channel 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, ITV and UBC/Sky cable TV, and the influences of parents, friends, and celebrities.

Table 6.10 shows that there were three significant predictors to these dependent variables, which were *TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week*, *TV Ch3 viewing hour(s)/week*, and *respondent's gender*. The adjusted R² score indicates the percentage of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the predictor variable. The first predictor, which was *TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week* accounted for 3.1% of the variance of the dependent variable. Furthermore, the final predictors, which included all three significant predictors, explained for 4.2% of the variance of the dependent variable. Therefore, the predictor *TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week* was by far away the most significant predictor for this dependent variable. If the model was derived from the population rather than a sample it would account for approximately 4.2% less variance in the outcome. These variables were statistically significant and the probability that these did not occur by chance, but as they explained for only 4.2% of the overall variance then they could be socially significant.

In correlation coefficients, Beta values for *TV Ch7* and *TV Ch3* viewing hour(s)/week were $-.127$ ($p < .001$) and $-.096$ ($p < .01$), respectively, meaning that *TV Ch7* and *TV Ch3* viewing hour(s)/week were found significantly related to *men's social characteristics in real life* in the negative direction. Thus, the more the hours respondents reportedly watched TV Channels 7 and 3, the more the respondents exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that *men's social characteristics in real life* were seen as being more likely to be male than female characteristics.

Such finding supported my hypotheses that heavy viewers differed from light viewers as heavy viewers' perceptions were closer to TV world representation than light viewers' perceptions. Viewers who watched TV Channels 3 and 7 heavily, were more likely than lighter viewers of these TV channels to exhibit gender-stereotyped opinions that *men's social characteristics in real life* were seen as being more likely to be pursued by men than women. Such opinions of heavy viewers were closer to TV world than those of light viewers.

Further, such dependent variable had the positive significant relationships with *respondent's gender* (Beta values= $.074$, $p < .05$). Therefore, heavy female TV viewers were more likely than heavy male TV viewers to exhibit counter-stereotyped opinions that *men's social characteristics in real life* was seen as being more likely to be pursued by women than men.

Table 6.11 Regression Results of Women's Family Roles in Real Life

Predictor	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Adjusted R ²
	Beta			
(1) TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week	-.100	-3.117	.002	.008 ^a
(2) UBC/ SkyTV viewing hour(s)/week	-.064	-1.976	.048	.011 ^b

Note: ^a = for predictor (1), ^b = for predictors (1) and (2).

Dependent variable: women's family roles in real life (always in trouble, taking children to school, disciplining children, and food shopping).

Independent variables: age, gender, education, TV availability in bedroom, TV channel viewing measurement of channel 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, ITV and UBC/Sky cable TV, and the influences of parents, friends, and celebrities.

Table 6.11 indicated that there were two significant predictors to these dependent variables, which were *TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week* and *UBC/SkyTV viewing hour(s)/week*. The adjusted R^2 score indicates the percentage of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the predictor variable. The first predictor, which was *UBC/SkyTV viewing hour(s)/week* accounted for 0.8% of the variance of the dependent variable. Furthermore, the final predictors, which included all two significant predictors, explained for 1.1% of the variance of the dependent variable. Therefore, the most notable single variance that was the most significant predictor to this dependent variable was the first predictor. These variables were statistically significant and the probability that these did not occur by chance, but as they explained for only 1.1% of the overall variance then they could be socially significant.

In correlation coefficients, Beta values for TV Ch7 and UBC/SkyTV viewing hour(s)/week were -.100 ($p < .01$) and -.064 ($p < .05$), respectively, meaning that *TV Ch7* and *UBC/SkyTV viewing hour(s)/week* were found significantly related to *women's family roles in real life* in a negative direction. Thus, the more the hours respondents reportedly watched TV Channel 7 and/or UBC/SkyTV, the more the respondents exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that *women's family roles in real life* were seen as being more likely to be pursued by women than men.

Such finding supported my hypotheses that heavy viewers differed from light viewers in having social reality perception of attributes and roles closer to TV world than light viewers. Heavy viewers who watched TV Channel 7 and UBC/SkyTV were more likely than light viewers to exhibit gender-stereotyped opinions that *women's family roles in real life* were seen as being more likely to be pursued by women than men.

Table 6.12 Regression Results of Women's Social Characteristics in Real Life

Predictor	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Adjusted R ²
	Beta			
(1) Respondent's year of education	.129	4.054	.000	.019 ^a
(2) Respondent's gender	-.123	-3.838	.000	.029 ^b
(3) TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week	-.116	-3.614	.000	.040 ^c
(4) Celebrities' influence	.080	2.533	.011	.045 ^d

Note: ^a = for predictor (1), ^b = for predictors (1) and (2), ^c = for predictors (1), (2) and (3),
^d = for predictors (1), (2), (3) and (4).

Dependent variable: women's social characteristics in real life (shy and dependent).

Independent variables: age, gender, education, TV availability in bedroom, TV channel viewing measurement of channel 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, ITV and UBC/Sky cable TV, and the influences of parents, friends, and celebrities.

Table 6.12 indicated that there were four significant predictors to these dependent variables, which were *respondent's year of education*, *respondent's gender*, *TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week* and *celebrities' influence*. The adjusted R² score indicates the percentage of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the predictor variable. The first predictor, which was *respondent's year of education* accounted for 1.9% of the variance of the dependent variable. Furthermore, the final predictors, which included all four significant predictors, explained for 4.5% of the variance of the dependent variable. Therefore, the predictor *respondent's year of education* was by far away the most significant predictor for this dependent variable.

In correlation coefficients, Beta values for *respondent's year of education* and *celebrities' influence* were .129 ($p < .001$) and .080 ($p < .05$), respectively, meaning that there were significantly positive relationships between *respondent's year of education* and the dependent variable *women's social characteristics in real life*, and also between *celebrities' influence* and such dependent variable. Therefore, the higher the educational secondary year of respondents and/or the more the influences of celebrities on the respondents, the more they exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that *women's social characteristics in real life* were seen as being more likely to be female than male characteristics.

The dependent variable *women's social characteristics in real life* also had the significant relationships with respondent's gender (Beta values= -.123, $p < .001$) and *TV Ch7 viewing hour(s)/week* (Beta values= -.116, $p < .001$) in a negative direction. Thus, as respondents' reported viewing hours of TV Channel 7 increased, the respondents more likely to exhibit counter-stereotyped opinions that *women's social characteristics in real life* were seen as being more likely to be male rather than female attributes, than respondents who reportedly watched less viewing hours of these TV channels.

Such finding contradicted my hypotheses that heavy TV viewers differed from light TV viewers as heavy TV viewers' social reality perceptions of roles were closer to TV world than light TV viewers. Heavy viewers of Channel 7 and UBC/SkyTV were more likely to exhibit counter-stereotyped opinions that *women's social characteristics in real life* were seen as being more likely to be male rather than female attributes, than lighter viewers of these channels. Further, heavy female respondents were more likely than male respondents to exhibit counter-stereotyped opinions that *Women's social characteristics in real life* were seen as being more likely to be male than female traits.

As shown from findings in Table 6.7 and 6.12, as respondent's year of education increased, the respondents were more likely to exhibit gender-stereotyped opinions that *women's social characteristic and domestic roles in TV late evening and midnight dramas* and *women's social characteristics in real life* were seen as being more likely to be female rather than male attributes and roles. Such findings are consistent with Frueh and McGhee (1975) who reported that since heavy viewers probably see these gender-stereotyped characteristics depicted regularly on their television screen, their sex-stereotypic perceptions are maintained, and even strengthened.

Moreover, findings from Table 6.7 and 6.12 that female respondents were reportedly exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that *women's social characteristic and domestic roles in TV late evening and midnight dramas* and *women's social characteristics in real life* were seen as being more likely to be male than female traits and roles were consistent with previous study of Frueh and McGhee (1975). Similarly, finding from Table 6.10 was that heavy female TV viewers were more likely than heavy male TV viewers to exhibit counter-stereotyped opinions that *men's*

social characteristics in real life was seen as being more likely to be pursued by women than men.

Frueh and McGhee (1975) suggested that with an increasing age of heavy viewers, the perceptions of male stereotypes were maintained among male respondents while that of female stereotypes were not found among female respondents. Males were found in Frueh and McGhee's study that they were already very highly gender-stereotyped across all the grade levels while females who were heavy viewers were least stereotyped in their perceptions of roles in grade 1, but they became more gender-stereotyped as they got older. Williams added that masculine traits in males may be more concrete and have more obvious behavioural referents than the female traits and characteristics (Williams *et al* 1975).

Further, finding in Table 6.6 that celebrities played an important role in TV viewers' social reality perception of *men and women's social attributes and family roles in TV late evening and midnight dramas* was consistent with previous studies such as such as Cole and Leets (1999), Gamson (2001), and Giles and Maltby (2004), who suggested that celebrities could play a vital role in the socialisation process. Giles and Maltby (2004) reported that "Media figures play an important part in [adolescent identity] development, since they offer a variety of possible selves that a young person might wish to try out and provide exemplars "of how to think and feel in different circumstances" (p.814).

Also, Table 6.7 and 6.12 showed that as celebrities' influence increased, the respondents were more likely to display gender-stereotyped opinions that *women's social characteristic and domestic roles in TV late evening and midnight dramas* and *women's social characteristics in real life* were seen as being more likely to be female rather than male attributes and roles, than respondents who were less influenced by celebrities.

Table 6.8 reveals that as friends' influence increased, the respondents exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that *men's social characteristics in TV late evening and midnight dramas* were seen as being more likely to be portrayed by male than female TV characters was consistent with Palmer's (1983) study. Palmer suggested that friends might also enhance the desirability of certain media or reduce the appeal of

other media. Personal experiences of the adolescent viewers with peers may challenge or strengthen the relationship between drama exposure and correlated perceptions. Furthermore, if personal experiences confirm the perception of roles and drama depiction, then one might get “resonance” creating even stronger cultivation effects, as hypothesised by Gerbner. These experiences could be the difficulties adolescents encountered in various situations including establishing new relationships with peers, getting along and maintaining close friendships or going steady. Also, as *friends’ influence* increased, the respondents were more likely to exhibit gender- and counter-stereotyped opinions about *women and men's social attributes in real life*.

Other factor variables, which were accounted for very small significance for the total variance in factor analysis, would not be entered into Stepwise regression because it would only produce a very small effect. These factor variables included men and women’s marriage roles in real life. As illustrated in the Scree plot in Table 6.5, the fifth and the sixth factor on the Scree plot’s line was almost flat, meaning the each successive factor was accounting for smaller and smaller amounts of the total variance so only this sixth factor which comprised men and women’s marriage roles in real life were retained.

From the regression report, the adjusted multiple R^2 were found very low throughout, which could be explained that while their internal validity and goodness of fit may have been high because these scores did not differ greatly from the adjusted multiple R^2 , the overall scores in all analyses were small. Thus, the predictor variables entered into the Stepwise multiple regression analyses seemed to account for only tiny proportions of the variance in the dependent variables. The variables found in regression analysis were statistically significant and the probability that these did not occur by chance, but as they explained for only a small amount of the overall variance then they could be socially significant. The analysis; therefore, does not really show much here, even if some predictor variables emerged with significant beta and t values. Other variables, that Stepwise excluded, might be explained for by other factors. Even though other variables’ t scores were high but might not be statistically significant to the dependent variables and that then Stepwise has excluded them from the significant predictors.

6.4 Conclusion

Previous studies such as Hirsch (1980) or Doob and MacDonald (1979) contended that after controlling some variables such as neighbourhoods, the cultivation effects have been reduced or removed altogether. This study investigated if after controlling for relevant variables, the cultivation effects remained significant or the effects would be removed. The researcher applied Stepwise multiple regression on the data to find out if there was any significant relationship between demographic assets such as age, gender, education, TV availability in bedroom; social factors such as the influences of social factors including celebrities, friends, and family; TV viewing channels measurement of Channel 3, 5, 7, 9, ITV, 11, UBC/Sky TV, and the perception of roles and attributes among TV viewers.

Before clustering the variables, the researcher had analysed each attribute using partial correlation and found that nearly 100 percent of all attributes were highly significant to one another, as suggested in **APPENDIX G, H and I**. This chapter has produced an extensive result on the factor variables and multiple regression as multivariate analysis for this research.

After clustering the variables of 24 attribute and role perceptions portrayed in two TV drama genres and as being pursued in actuality, the result indicated how highly correlated they were in each genre and in real life. Multi-variate analyses revealed an extensive number of significant relationships between reported TV viewing and gender attribute perceptions. The results indicated that gender, age, level of education, TV viewing measurement of Channel 3, 5, 7, 9, ITV, 11, and UBC/SkyTV, and the influences of parents, friends, and celebrities, had significant influences on the viewers' perceptions of role in both gender- and counter-stereotyped ways as reported in this chapter. Despite the presence of some statistical significant predictor variables, the overall variance accounted-for scores are low.

Chapter 7 : Discussion: Nature and Implications of Findings

7.1 Introduction

This chapter attempts to discuss on the nature and implications of findings of the thesis. The research was conducted within a cultivation analysis framework that necessitated the collection of data about the nature of television output and about young people's perceptions of aspects of social reality. Research presented in this thesis has examined the representation of TV portrayals in social, behavioural, family and occupational roles, and the relationships between reported television viewing and gender-attribute perceptions of young people in Thailand. The study will also discuss and conclude the findings about cultivation and mainstreaming effects. A detailed review and critique of the cultural indicators research literature identified both its relevance to this research and the limitations of early studies in this area.

The main focus of this study was placed on adolescents' and their perceptions of gender attributes and roles. A fairly conventional self-completion questionnaire methodology was adopted to obtain data from young Thai viewers about their television viewing habits and gender-related perceptions. This exercise was supplemented by an analysis of selected television programming – drama – that was judged to contain material of most relevance in informational terms to the perceptions being explored. Content analysis was used to extract the most frequent occurring TV male or female characters on roles and occupations depicted on Thailand TV dramas.

Although cultivation effects with regards to gender stereotypes in TV drama programmes in the Western societies such as United States, Britain, and Australia, have been studied extensively, less is known about gender-role presentation in TV drama programmes in Thailand. This study attempts to fill this gap. Moreover, there were only a handful studies of gender representation particularly TV prime-time programmes in neighbouring countries of Thailand such as Vietnam, Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic. These studies seem to be associated with their histories and thus their media especially TV services are following the slow pace of the countries' development. Many studies about gender representation in countries in South East Asia countries and in the other part of Asia Pacific region mostly relay on

commercials, be it a single country study or a comparison between Western and Eastern countries or a comparison among Asian countries as being examined in the previous chapters. Further, the studies in Thailand often give out only statistics or majority's responses from universities' national surveys, governments' national statistical Office of Thailand, and marketing research global companies that perform the TV or advertising measurement within the country.

7.2 Research Design and Descriptive Data

This study investigated whether there were significant differences between two social groups of male and female respondents in their television consumption. The research presented not only descriptive statistics but also the multivariate statistics such as factor analysis, zero-order, partial correlations and stepwise multiple regression to confirm rigorous and appropriate standard statistical procedures. The data has been analysed both before and after controlling for demographic profile including gender, age, education and TV in bedroom and social influences including parents, peers and celebrities. The current research collected a large sample size, analyzing it in various possible ways, studying young adolescents who study in secondary education level. The respondents are not those who are confined to the home much of the time and are neither those who stay home as housewives nor sick people.

7.2.1 Television Channel

The analysis began by examining the regular viewing of TV channels by the respondents in order to find out which channels were the most preferred by the respondents to spend time on. The research indicated that TV channels 3 and 7 were the most popular channels for the respondents as they spent on average more than 6 hours per week watching programmes shown on these TV channels. This was consistent with other findings from polls and surveys previously made in Thailand such as Thailand Media Profile 2002 reported by Siriyuvasak (2002) that entertainment programmes were the most favourite type of programmes for most TV channels particularly channel 3 (74.47%) and channel 7 (75.54%).

7.2.2 Television Programme Type

Among the types of programmes being analysed in this research were cartoons, family shows, talk shows, comedies, daytime and early evening dramas, late evening and midnight dramas, reality shows, and news and current affairs. TV dramas that were broadcast during 8:00 p.m. and noon, and comedies were the most watched TV programme types. There were 28% of male and 45.1% of female who spent more than 6 hours per week watching TV dramas broadcast in the evening slot as mentioned above. And there were 27.8% of males and 27.1% of females who spent the same amount of TV viewings watching comedies.

Most respondents spent more than 6 hrs/wk watching 8:00 p.m. and midnight TV dramas and TV comedies, which was very interesting. This was because late evening and midnight dramas were certainly popular for the youths in Thailand but comedies, although providing entertainment value, were usually broadcast around lunchtime on weekdays when kids would usually be at schools. However, comedies were aired around afternoon on the weekends and kids would be exposed to this type of programme.

7.2.3 Media Activity

Media activity was analysed to find out how many hours the respondents spent using each type of media activities. These media activities were composed of watching TV overall, listening to music, reading magazines, attending societies, using internet, and seeing movies. The respondents spent 16-20 hours per week watching TV overall while the respondents spent more than 20 hours per week using internet. As mentioned in Chapter 4 that internet can be used multi-functionally. The respondents might have spent time watching television on the internet as well as writing e-mails simultaneously.

Such descriptive data about media consumption and social perceptions presents results that focus on gender differences between survey respondents in their use of different media, programme genre preferences and social perceptions linked to various gender-related roles, behaviours and activities as seen on television and in real

life. These findings are useful in determining the basic descriptive statistics contributed to this research.

7.3 Hypotheses and Results

The research analysed the data using both message system analysis and cultivation analysis in order to assess both the kinds of messages that were represented in television and what images and messages that the viewers themselves had actually perceived from.

The hypotheses and research questions were tested and the results were found as follows:

7.3.1 The portrayals of social attributes, marriage, family or domestic, and occupational roles

The hypotheses were tested and the results were indicated below.

(1) The hypothesis that males would appear more frequently on TV than would females was proved to be true and supported by an extensive number of previous studies. The content analysis indicated that male presence on TV was more frequent than female presence. It was reported that male presence in relation to female presence was 55.5% and 44.5% respectively, which showed that the number of male characters was still higher than the number of female ones. This was supported from previous studies (Tedesco 1974; Head 1954; Smythe 1954; Gerbner 1972; Courtney and Whipple 1974; Turow 1974; Sternglanz and Serbin 1974; Streicher 1974; Miles 1975; O'Kelly and Bloomquist 1976; Cantor 1979; Greenberg *et al* 1982; Signorielli 1984). Nevertheless, it counter-argued with the findings from Downing (1974), Turner (1974), Kalzman (1972), and Seggar and his associates (1981), who argued that men and women appeared in equal number or in a more balanced presentation in dramas.

(2) The hypothesis that males would appear more often in 'single' or 'unmarried' role than women was proved to be true and supported from previous studies; however, the hypothesis that women would appear more often as being 'married' than do men was proved not to be true and contradicted with previous

studies. A result of a content analysis showed that 54.6% of male and 45.4% of female TV characters were portrayed as being single while 50.8% of male and 49.2% of female TV characters were portrayed as being married. Thus, the content analysis indicated that male TV characters were more frequently portrayed not only as being single or having unidentified marital status, but also being married than female TV characters.

Such finding was found contradicting the factual statistics reported from the Survey of Population Change 1995-1996 from NSO; Population and Housing Census that there were more single females (52.8%) and single males (47.2%). It was also found contradicting with several other previous studies, which found that 'married' was more likely to be portrayed by females than males. For example, Gerbner (1972) and Tedesco (1974) found that women were more likely to be depicted as being married or "about to be married", as marital status could be identified and coded for 51% of female characters but for only 32% of male characters. Nevertheless, this hypothesis received support from Chow-Hou Wee, Mei-Lan Choong and Siok-Kuan Tambyah (1995)'s study about television commercials of TV Channels SBC 5 (Singapore), RTM 1 and TV 3 (Malaysia) across Singapore and Malaysia, that married men were over-represented while married women were under-represented.

(3) The hypothesis that males would appear more often in the social characteristics of athletic, authoritative, aggressive, intelligent, physically helpful, ambitious, unfaithful, criminal, and successful than did females proved to be true and was supported by previous studies. The content analysis indicated that the social attributes of 'athletic' (87.1%), 'authoritative' (75.8%), 'aggressive' (59.2%), 'intelligent' (53.1%), 'physically helpful' (56.4%), 'ambitious' (56.9%), 'unfaithful' (87.5%), 'criminal' (81%), and 'successful' (63.2%) were more often portrayed on television by male than female TV characters.

This hypothesis received support from previous Western studies. Males tended to be represented to as more powerful, stable, tolerant, rational, independent and work-oriented and supposed to have a higher level of achievement orientation, which involves the drive to accomplish external goals, to achieve success, and being assertive, independent and self-centred, than women. Whenever women on television were involved in violence, they were more likely than men to be the victim than the

aggressor. Men were depicted outside the home. (Anastasi 1961; Bakan 1966; Gerbner 1972; Turow 1974; Maccoby and Jacklin 1974; Tedesco 1974; Frueh and McGhee 1975; McClelland 1975; Williams *et al* 1975; Gerbner and Gross 1976; Gerbner *et al* 1977; Marecek *et al* 1978; Pollack and Gilligan 1983; Scheibe 1983; Benton *et al* 1983; Cassata and Skill 1983; Lovdal *et al* 1989; Dominick 1990; Signorielli 1998). Men were found to display more physical and verbal aggression (Sears *et al* 1965). Men issued more orders and that those orders were more likely to be followed than orders issued by women. Males tended to drive more, participate in sports, use firearms, conduct business on the phone, and drink and smoke more than did women (Henderson *et al* 1980; Greenberg *et al* 1980). Aggressiveness, competitiveness, independence, and self-confidence were considered to be traditional masculine traits while neatness, tactfulness, gentleness, and talkativeness were considered to be traditional feminine traits (Broverman *et al* 1972).

Across the studies achieved in the East, such as a study of Japanese students, Kashiwagi (1974) similarly found that masculine characteristics associated with the factor that could be referred to "intelligence" and "activeness," were perceived as socially desirable for men. Also, in Lao People's Democratic Republic, Committee to Eliminate Discrimination against Women of Lao People's Democratic Republic had strong embedded notions, which validated male leadership and authority in the country such as the notion of men's role as heads of household (WOM/1479 20 January 2005).

(4) The hypothesis that females would appear more often in the social characteristics of shy, dependent, nurturing, and always in trouble than did males was proved to be true and was supported by a number of previous studies. The content analysis indicated that 'shy' (90.9%), 'dependent' (85.9%), 'nurturing' (58.2%), and 'always in trouble' (59.6%) were more often female than male characteristics.

In Japanese studies, Kashiwagi (1974) found that feminine characteristics were associated with the factor that suggested "submissiveness with elegance" or 'shy' judged as socially desirable for women. In Singaporean and Malaysian cross-commercial research, Noor (1999) noted in supplement of such finding that women were still found typically being portrayed as homebound, dependent, subordinate to

males, and emotionally helpless, selling commodities using sexuality, whereas men were depicted as rational, independent, and work-oriented.

In conjunction with studies in the East, Western studies have shown that gender-stereotyped traits and characteristics were overwhelmingly portrayed on television, particularly dramas. Television depicted women as incompetent, particularly when they appear in anything other than marital and family roles. Females were closely attached with affiliation orientation by showing their concerns for other people's feelings, seeking approval from others, creating nurturing relationships with others and maintaining interpersonal harmony (Anastasi 1961; Bakan 1966; Broverman *et al* 1972; Tedesco 1974; Maccoby and Jacklin 1974; Long and Simon 1974; McClelland 1975; Frueh and McGhee 1975; Bartos 1982). Tuchman (1978) added that even when women were portrayed in leading or serious roles and outside the home, they were more likely to be attacked, in trouble, surrounded or rescued by males, even their conversations outside the home tended to revolve around domestic matters (Gerbner 1972; Miller and Reeves 1976; Sarbin and Scheibe 1983). This reinforced the ideas that passivity and submissiveness were typical female characteristics. Television depicted women as incompetent, particularly when they appear in anything other than marital and family roles (Turow 1974).

However, content analysis indicated that 'kindness' was not portrayed mostly by females as being hypothesized. The attribute of 'kind' (52%) was mostly portrayed by males. Such finding contradicted previous studies such as Signorielli (1998) who reported that television portrayed women to be younger, more attractive, more nurturing, more concerned with romance, and more likely to be victimised than males or Gerbner (1972) and Tedesco (1974) that women tended to be depicted as more attractive, happier, warmer, more sociable, fairer, more peaceful and more useful than did men. It was also dissimilar to Frueh and McGhee's (1975) studies that female stereotypes were tapped on the following adjectives, which were gentle, dreamy; emotional, excitable or high-strung; fickle or rattle-brained; talkative; frivolous; fussy or nagging; whiny or complaining; soft-hearted, sentimental or sensitive; appreciative; sophisticated or affected; meek or mild.

(5) The hypothesis that females would appear more often in the domestic roles of shopping food for the family members, cleaning the floor, ironing clothes, washing

dishes, cooking meals; and family roles of taking children to school and disciplining children than males were proved to be true and was supported by several previous studies. The content analysis indicated that females were mostly portrayed as 'Food shopping' (91.5%) for the family members, 'cleaning the floor' (92%), 'ironing clothes' (96.2%), 'washing dishes' (94.1%), 'cooking meals' (88.4%), 'taking children to school' (54.5%), and 'disciplining children' (64.3%).

The hypothesis received support from the studies found by several researchers (Gerbner 1972; Katzman 1972; Tedesco 1974; Turow 1974; Downing 1974; McNeil 1975; Henderson and Greenberg 1980; Bartos 1982; Morgan and Rothschild 1983; Cantor and Pingree 1985; Gilly 1988; Signorielli 1989; Mazella *et al* 1992; Kolbe and Langefeld 1993) that women in television were portrayed closely associated with 'home and hearth' than in others. Women were cast as homemakers while taking responsibility and care of children. Women were more frequently portrayed preparing and serving food, and performing indoor housework. Females were most likely to be cast in a leading role when some family or romantic interests are centrally involved in the plot. Tuchman (1978) who referred to 'symbolic annihilation of women' that was practised by the mass media serves to confirm that the roles of mother, wife, bride, and homemaker are the fate of women in a patriarchal society. Women were cast as homemakers while taking responsibility and care of children.

This also reflected the Asian cross commercial study made in Malaysia and Singapore by Chow-Hou Wee, Mei-Lan Choong and Siok-Kuan Tambyah (1995) who found that all three channels of SBC 5 (Singapore), RTM 1 and TV 3 (Malaysia) TV commercials portrayed women overwhelmingly as housewives and mother. Women were depicted mostly in roles that were relative to others, chief of which was the mother. In Cambodia, Women's Media Centre of Cambodia (WMCC 2002) reported that television oppressed women by restricting them to traditional roles of wife, mother, lover, sex object and entertainment.

(6) The hypothesis that males would appear more often in occupational roles than females was proved to be true and received support for an extensive number of studies across the West and the East. The content analysis found that there were more male (73.8%) than female (26.2%) TV characters portrayed as having occupational roles. This finding was consistent with several previous Western studies (Defluer

1964; Dominick and Rauch 1971; Gerbner 1972; Seggar and Wheeler 1973; Streicher 1974; Tedesco 1974; Verna 1975; McNeil 1975; Morgan and Rothschild 1983)

Such findings also received support from Eastern studies; for instance, Chow-Hou Wee, Mei-Lan Choong and Siok-Kuan Tambyah (1995), studied television commercials across Singapore and Malaysia and noted that on the Malaysian channels of RTM 1 and TV 3, women were consistently less likely to appear as employed than men. Culturally, the authors suggested that this could be a reflection of the traditional Islamic role of women who stayed at home for the family. However, this also appeared in other part of Asian Continent. Women's Media Centre of Cambodia (WMCC 2002) referred to IMIC's study, in September 2000 on the 'Attitudes to Media Coverage of Women and Social Issues', which reported that men were portrayed in higher and better roles and positions than women. Further, in Vietnam studies, where The New York Times (1989) reported the gender-stereotyped images of nurse as female occupational roles in Vietnam war despite the fact that there were approximately 10,000 nurses, both males and females, who serves in Army, Navy and Air Force.

(7) The hypothesis that males would appear more often in a higher status position or a more competent job in the occupational roles of managing director, teacher, doctor, chef, and police officer than females was proved to be true and supported by many studies made previously.

The content analysis indicated that occupational roles of 'managing director' (72.4%), 'teacher' (73.3%), 'doctor' (75%), 'chef' (100%), and 'police officer' (96.1%) were more often portrayed by male than female TV characters. These findings strengthened the ideas that traditional masculine roles were defined as roles that were typically associated with males including certain professions such as pilot, doctor, lawyer, business manager, executive, athlete and manual worker (Signorielli 1989; Mazella *et al* 1992; Kolbe and Langefeld 1993). Such findings were consistent with Chow-Hou Wee, Mei-Lan Choong and Siok-Kuan Tambyah's (1995) study on television commercials across Singapore and Malaysia. They found that men were more likely to be portrayed in management positions than women while there were only three women on SBC 5 and one on TV 3 were seen as top executives.

The hypothesis was further supported by other studies (Defluer 1964; Dominick and Rauch 1971; Gerbner 1972; Seggar and Wheeler 1973; Streicher 1974; Tedesco 1974; Turow 1974; McNeil 1975; Lemon 1977; Tuchman 1978; Morgan and Rothschild 1983; Brett and Cantor 1988) which suggested that males were represented as occupying a disproportionately high percentage of the work force, a greater diversity of occupations, and higher status jobs while females were rarely depicted as working outside the home and were likely to occupy a position of subservience or low responsibility when they were employed. Males are more likely to be cast in serious roles while females are more likely to be cast in comic or light roles.

Most male characters were portrayed as 'teacher' (73.3%) as indicated in the content analysis. This contradicted with several previous studies. (Defluer 1964; Dominick and Rauch 1971; Gerbner 1972; Seggar and Wheeler 1973; Streicher 1974; Tedesco 1974; McNeil 1975; Lemon 1977; Morgan and Rothschild 1983; Signorielli 1989; Mazella *et al* 1992; Kolbe and Langefeld 1993), that traditional feminine roles included service workers such as waitress, maid, hostess or secretary, teacher, housewife, and mother.

(8) The hypothesis that females would appear more often in the occupational positions of nurse and secretary/receptionist than males was proved to be true and received supported from previous research. The content analysis found that females appeared more often in roles of 'nurse' (100%), or 'hotel receptionist' (100%) than did males. This hypothesis received support from several studies achieved in the past. For instance, Chow-Hou Wee, Mei-Lan Choong and Siok-Kuan Tambyah (1995) who reported some data that although more women were found employed outside the home, they were mainly found in white-collar and service occupations.

Role of 'nurse' was traditionally defined as female occupation since decades ago and this confirms such idea in the 21st century world. Joan Furey, a former Army nurse in South Vietnam, also noted that TV production in Vietnam served standard images of female gender as nurses in Vietnam War (The New York Times 1989). The findings also received support from several works done in the past (Signorielli 1989, Defluer 1964; Dominick and Rauch 1971; Gerbner 1972; Seggar and Wheeler

1973; Streicher 1974; Tedesco 1974; Morgan and Rothschild 1983; Brettl and Cantor 1988; Gilly 1988; Mazella *et al* 1992; Kolbe and Langefeld 1993).

Therefore, for Thailand TV dramas, there remains weak evidence to convince the reader that there is progressively less gender stereotyping in traits, characteristics, and roles portrayed on TV and in the employment aspect than there was in the past. Compared with male TV characters, female TV characters continue to be less likely than men to be visibly employed outside the home, and they continue to have a narrower range of jobs. The institutions such as business or organizations in Thailand hold power in the society and determine what Shanahan called the “dominance social paradigm” (Shanahan *et al* 1997) in mass message system content. Putting it more specifically, media inspire meanings of portrayals to show who has power, which in this research would be men, and who is subjugated, or women.

This thesis was not only aimed to find out the most occurring of TV drama characters, it also hypothesized that heavy TV drama viewers would differ from light TV drama viewers as the former would have their reality perceptions of social attributes, marriage, family/domestic, and occupational roles closer to TV world representation than light viewers’ perceptions of the same attributes and roles. Such occurrence is referred to as cultivation effects, which are investigated as follows.

7.3.2 The cultivation effects in the perceptions of heavy television drama viewers

The results of hypotheses concerning the indication of cultivation effects as mention earlier were reported as follows.

(1) The hypothesis that heavy TV drama viewers would differ from light TV drama viewers in their social reality perceptions of male social attributes of athletic, unfaithful, criminal, authoritative, aggressive, and outgoing, as heavy viewers’ perceptions of these attributes were closer to the world of TV than that of light TV drama viewers, or an occurrence of cultivation effects, was proved to be true and received supported from previous studies as indicated below.

The audience survey found that most light and heavy TV drama viewers exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that ‘athletic’ (41.5%), ‘aggressive’ (50%),

and 'outgoing' (55.4%) were more likely to be seen as female than male characteristics. On the other hand, most heavy TV drama viewers exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that such characteristics (66.5%, 45.1%, and 46.1%, respectively) were more often seen as male rather than female characteristics. Further, the audience survey indicated that most light TV and most heavy TV drama viewers did not differ from each other in exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinions that 'unfaithful' (46.2% and 78.2%), 'criminal' (46.2% and 80.6%), 'authoritative' (48.5% and 65.8%) were more likely to be male than female characteristics. The perceptions of these characteristics in most heavy TV drama viewers were not only consistent with the world of TV male TV characters were portrayed as being 'athletic' (87.1%), 'unfaithful' (87.5%), 'criminal' (81%), 'authoritative' (75.8%), 'aggressive' (59.2%), and 'outgoing' (62.2%), but they also have a higher percentage of these perceptions than that of light viewers.

Such findings received support from studies made previously. For instance, Gunter's (1985) study found that on British crime-drama series, male violence on a female victim were perceived to be significantly more realistic, frightening, personally disturbing, and likely to disturb other people than a female violence. Social attributes or traits of 'athletic', 'unfaithful', 'criminal', 'authoritative', 'aggressive', and 'outgoing' were related to males (Anastasi 1961; Bakan 1966; Maccoby and Jacklin 1974; McClelland 1975; Frueh and McGhee 1975; Williams *et al* 1975; Reeves and Lometi 1978; Morgan's 1980; Buerkel-Rothfuss and Mayes 1981; Gunter 1985; Gerbner *et al* 1986; Morgan 1987).

(2) The hypotheses that heavy TV drama viewers would differ from light TV drama viewers in their social reality perceptions of the female social attributes of shy', dependent', 'kind', 'nurturing', and 'always in trouble', and family/domestic roles of 'cleaning the floor', 'ironing clothes', 'washing dishes', 'cooking meal', 'taking children to school', and 'disciplining children' as heavy viewers' perceptions are closer to the world of TV were not proved to be true. Therefore, there was no indication of cultivation effects among Thai youths in terms of their perceptions about these female social attributes and family or domestic roles.

(3) The hypothesis that heavy TV drama viewers would differ from light TV drama viewers in their social reality perceptions of the occupational roles of chef and

police officer as heavy viewers' perceptions were closer to the world of TV was proved to be true and supported by a number of authors in the previous studies.

Most heavy drama viewers exhibited gender-stereotyped opinion that 'chef' (67.3%) and 'police officer' (62%) were more often pursued by men than women while audience survey reported that there was no significant perception of such occupational roles found among light TV drama viewers. Heavy TV viewers' perceptions of these roles were consistent with the evidence being reported in the content analysis. The content analysis found that male TV characters were mostly portrayed as 'chef' (100%) and 'police officer' (96.1%). Therefore, there was an indication of cultivation effects in heavy TV Thai teenage drama viewers' perceptions of occupational roles of chef and police officer. This hypothesis was supported from previous research (Boynton 1936; Deutsch 1960; O'Hara 1962; Nelson 1963; Looft 1971; Siegal 1973; Downing 1974; Tedesco 1974; Butler and Paisley 1980; Morgan and Rothschild 1983; Zemach and Cohen 1986; Signorielli 1991; Lyn Harte 1996).

Therefore, cultivation effects were evident in heavy TV drama Thai young teenage viewers' perceptions of social attributes of athletic, unfaithful, criminal, authoritative, aggressive, outgoing, and occupational roles of chef and police officer, as heavy TV drama viewers' perceptions of these characteristics and roles were more consistent with the evidence being reported in the content analysis than light TV drama viewers' perceptions.

7.3.3 The mainstreaming effects in the perceptions of male and female heavy television drama viewers

Another key area in the study of cultivation theory was the concept of 'mainstreaming' effects, which was introduced by Gerbner in response to critics that came from; for instance, Doob and Macdonald (1979) and Hirsch (1981), to explain how and why linear relationships between weight of viewing and social perceptions could occur in contrary directions among different social groups. This phenomenon could be explained as in two different social groups, such as middle-class and working-class viewers, who might display different worldviews of specific issues. However, heavy viewers between these two social groups might display narrower differences than light viewers. Thus, in Gerbner's terms (Gerber *et al* 1980 and 1981,

and Morgan 1987), viewers who were heavily dependent upon television and watched it a lot might have their worldviews pulled towards a televisual 'mainstream'. The same type of effect could occur among male and female viewers who display different opinions or perceptions of social, behavioural and occupational roles.

The following hypotheses were distributed to studying if the perceptions or attributes among heavy TV drama viewers in two social groups of males and females were less different than the perceptions found among light TV drama viewers in the two social groups, indicating mainstreaming effects.

(1) The hypothesis that the perceptions about male social characteristics of athletic, unfaithful, aggressive, and outgoing found among male and female heavy TV drama viewers were narrower than such perceptions found among male and female light TV drama viewers was proved to be true and received support from research previously done.

The audience survey indicated that most male and most female heavy TV drama viewers exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that the attribute of athletic (65% of males and 70.4% of females), unfaithful (77.8% of males and 79% of females), aggressive (43.8% of males and 48.1% of females), and 'outgoing' (45.3% of males and 48.1% of females) were more often seen as male than female characteristics.

However, most male light drama viewers exhibited counter-stereotyped opinion that 'athletic' (52.9%), 'unfaithful' (50%), 'aggressive' (64.7%), and 'outgoing' (52.9%) were the roles more often seen as female than male characteristics. On the other hand, most female light drama viewers exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that 'athletic' (42.7%), 'unfaithful' (45.8%) were more often seen as male than female attributes. Further, they (44.8%) had their opinion split in half about the attribute of 'aggressiveness' as 44.8% of them exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that such attribute was mostly seen as part of male characteristics while 44.8% of them exhibited counter-stereotyped that such attribute was mostly seen as female characteristics. Also, they exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that 'outgoing' (56.3%) was seen as the characteristic of women than men.

Male and female heavy TV drama viewers were 5.4%, 1.2%, 4.3%, and 2.8% difference in the perceptions of attributes of athletic, unfaithful, aggressive, and outgoing, respectively. On the other hand, male light TV drama viewers were found having their perception of characteristics of athletic, unfaithful, and aggressive in the opposite direction from the perceptions of female light TV drama viewers. Further, female light TV drama viewers have the perceptions in a mixed direction among themselves. Despite the fact that male and female light TV drama viewers did not differ from each other in exhibiting gender-stereotyped opinions about the attribute of 'outgoing' as mentioned earlier, there was 3.4% difference found between them, which is bigger than the difference found between male and female TV heavy drama viewers (2.8%). Therefore, mainstreaming effects were indicated in these findings as male and female heavy TV viewers had narrower differences in their social reality perceptions of characteristics of athletic, unfaithful, aggressive, and outgoing than male and female light TV viewers.

This hypothesis was consistent with previous studies such as Doob and MacDonald (1979) who conducted their survey with people who lived in the low- and high- crime areas of Toronto. They argued that the possibility that fear of the environment might be due to the actual incidence of crime in a person's neighbourhood rather than to the frequency of watching television, when the controls for local neighbourhood crime rates were employed. However, what they found was that heavy TV viewers who lived in different areas as low- and high-crime areas have the same perceptions of specific aspects such as fear of crimes, which indicated mainstreaming effects.

Gerbner and his associates (1980:18) pointed out that 'those groups who in general were *least* likely to hold a television-related attitude were *most* likely to be influenced toward the 'mainstream' television view; and those who were most likely to hold a view *more* extreme than the TV view might be 'coaxed back' to the 'mainstream' position'. Once viewers learned the 'facts' about the world from the programming they observed, they then turned outward and compared those perceptions with the ones they experienced in the 'real world' on a daily basis.

(2) The hypothesis that the perceptions about female social characteristics, marriage, family/domestic, and occupational roles found among male and female

heavy TV drama viewers were narrower than such perceptions found among male and female light TV drama viewers was proved not to be true as there was no indication of mainstreaming effects found in heavy TV viewers' perceptions of these characteristics and roles.

Therefore, mainstreaming effects were indicated in the male social attributes of athletic, unfaithful, aggressive, and outgoing as male and female heavy TV drama viewers had narrower differences in their social reality perceptions of these characteristics than male and female light TV drama viewers.

7.3.4 The television viewers' role perceptions while being controlled for the related demographic profile and social variables

(1) The research question that asked whether the relationship between perception of social attributes, marriage, and family roles in TV drama viewers would remain significantly related to weight of viewing after controlling for the related demographic profile and social variables was answered and presented the results as indicated below. These related variables were (1) age, (2) gender, (3) education, (4) TV availability in bedroom, (5) parental influences (6) friends' influences, (7) celebrities' influences, and (8) TV channel viewing measurement of Channel (a) 3, (b) 5, (c) 7, (d) 9, (e) 11, (f) ITV and (g) UBC/Sky cable TV.

As previously mentioned in Chapter 4, which explained the methodology used in this thesis, factor analysis and multiple regression were employed. Factor analyses were used to investigate how highly correlated attributes clustered together and to produce a smaller and more manageable number of dependent variables. Before running factor analysis, a series of zero-order and partial correlations were computed to find out if there were any significant relationships between the perception of roles in real life and the measurement of TV viewing channels.

The variables had been correlated without clustering them using factor analysis. Before and after controlling for variables gender, age, education and TV sets in bedroom, the variables remained significant. It was found that these variables were still highly significantly correlated and also correlated in the same direction. Therefore, it would be better to cluster these highly correlated variables. Not only

might such analyses produce more manageable numbers of dependent variables for analysis, but these new variables might also be more robust as perceptual constructs. This process was important because the researcher needed to know before clustering the attributes to see how they were related among themselves. Stepwise multiple regressions were then employed into this thesis to examine if there was any significant relationship or more than one relationship existed among these variables and if so, which direction of the relationships they were, between factor variables as dependent variables, and independent variables, which consisted of the demographic, TV viewing measurement, and social variables, as mentioned earlier in this section.

Some previous studies suggested that the relationships between perception of roles and TV viewing while controlling for different variables were found statistically significant and maintained even after controlling for the related variables such as demographic variables and social background of respondents (Signorielli and Lears 1992), respondents' demographic variables of sex, age education and in some case with IQ (Gerbner *et al* 1979).

Although there was an extensive evidence about heavy TV viewing correlating with a stronger cultivation effect because heavy TV viewers had more accessible TV information to rely on and project from, some previous research contended that this decreased somewhat, or died out entirely, when demographic variables and consumption of media other than television were controlled for; for instance, sex, age, socio-economic class of respondents (Gunter and Wober 1982); the respondents' perceptions of affluence (Fox and Philliber 1978); TV news and political magazines viewing intensity (McLuhan 1988); and age, gender, family cohesion and violence (Kolbein 2002). Also, there was other single study made by Gallagher (1983) that did not previously control related variables such as education, self-perceived intelligent, and parental attitudes to find out if relationship between television viewing and gender-related attitudes and behaviours of her respondents would or would not remain significant.

The results I found provided that there were some variables that were significantly related to the increasing perceptions of gender-related attributes and roles in the respondents while some variables were found to reduce such significant associations. Nevertheless, these controlling variables had small effects but relatively

significant in the associations between TV viewing and perceptions of characteristics and roles in TV drama viewers. There was an indication that while the multiple regression analyses used in this thesis showed a number of significant predictor variables in relation to the dependent variables, in overall terms the analyses accounted for very small amounts of variance. The multiple R^2 scores were low throughout these analyses. The overall percentages of variance accounted for in each dependent variables used in the regression were summarised as shown in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 Overall Percentages Variance Accounted for in Dependent Variables in Regression

Dependent variables	Overall Percentages Variance Accounted for
In TV daytime and early evening dramas	
1) Men and women's social attributes and domestic roles (Table 6.4)	11%
2) Men's social characteristics (Table 6.5)	1%
In TV late evening and midnight dramas	
3) Men and women's social characteristics and family roles (Table 6.6)	2.2%
4) Women's social characteristic and domestic roles (Table 6.7)	9.3%
5) Men's social characteristics (Table 6.8)	1.5%
In real life	
6) Women and men's social attributes (Table 6.9)	1.3%
7) Men's social characteristics (Table 6.10)	4.2%
8) Women's family roles (Table 6.11)	1.1%
9) Women's social characteristics (Table 6.12)	4.5%

The independent variables for these dependent variables listed in Table 7.1 were statistically significant and the probability that these did not occur by chance, but as they explained for very small amount of the overall variance then they could be socially significant. This means; for example, if the final predictors, which included all significant predictors, explained for 11% of the variance of the dependent variable, the other 89% could be other social factors that are not age, gender, education, the

availability of TV in bedroom, TV viewing measurement, and social influences from parents, friends, and celebrities. Other social factors could be anything such as socio-economic status, family cohesion and violence, the perceptions of affluence of the respondents, and so on.

In examining the main result further, there were three main issues to be reported from controlling for related variables in the data. These main issues to be considered were (1) Perceived gender differences accounted for by TV viewing variables, (2) Perceived gender differences in overall perceptions of male and female roles and attributes, and finally (3) Perceived gender differences accounted for by other demographic and social variables.

(1) Perceived gender differences accounted for by TV viewing variables

The respondents exhibited their perceptions about attributes and roles of men and women portrayed on TV daytime and early evening dramas, late evening and midnight dramas, and in real life in relation to their TV channel viewing hours as indicated below.

Some TV Channels reinforced the respondents' beliefs about social aspects of some attributes and roles in the gender-stereotypical ways. As the respondents' reported viewing hours of TV Channel 7, and/or TV Channel 3 increased, the respondents were more likely to exhibit gender-stereotyped opinions that the attributes (kind, nurturing, shy, dependent, married, always in trouble), and domestic roles (food shopping, cleaning the floor, washing dishes, ironing clothes, cooking meal, taking children to school, and disciplining children) portrayed on TV daytime and early evening dramas, and the attribute (shy), and the domestic roles (food shopping, cleaning the floor, washing dishes, ironing clothes, and cooking meal) portrayed on TV late evening and midnight dramas were seen as being more likely to be female rather than male traits and roles, than respondents who reportedly watched less viewing hours of these two TV channels.

Further, the respondents who reportedly watched TV Channel 7 heavily were more likely than those who reportedly watched such TV channel for less hours to exhibit gender-stereotyped opinions that attributes of kind, nurturing, dependent,

always in trouble; and marriage and family roles of taking children to school, disciplining children, and being married portrayed on TV late evening and midnight dramas were seen as being more likely to be female than male characteristics and roles. Also, the respondents' gender-stereotyped opinions about roles portrayed in daytime and early evening dramas were reinforced if the respondents reportedly had a TV set in their bedrooms. The audience survey indicated that there were 69.9% of respondents who were reported having TV sets in their bedrooms, 48% of which were males and 52% of which were females.

Nevertheless, the same TV channels that reinforced gender-stereotyped opinions in the respondents could establish counter-stereotyped opinions in other attributes and roles as follows. The respondents who reportedly watched TV Channel 7 and 3 exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that attributes of aggressive, physically helpful, athletic, ambitious, intelligent, single, and successful, which were considered to be masculine characteristics by an extensive number of previous studies (Lovdal 1989; Signorielli 1998; Noor 1999) portrayed on TV daytime and early evening dramas were seen as being more likely to be parts of female than male characteristics. Further, the respondents who reportedly watched TV Channel 7 exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that aggressive, physically helpful, ambitious, intelligent, successful, and single portrayed on TV late evening and midnight dramas were seen as being more likely to be female than male traits.

Moreover, the respondents' gender-stereotyped opinions about social aspects of specific issues could be reduced after watching some TV Channels as follows. The respondents who reportedly watched cable TV channels from UBC/SkyTV stations were more likely than those who watched less hours of such Channels to exhibit counter-stereotyped opinions that kind, nurturing, shy, dependent, married, always in trouble; and domestic roles of food shopping, cleaning the floor, washing dishes, ironing clothes, cooking meal, taking children to school, and disciplining children portrayed on TV daytime and early evening dramas were seen as being more likely to be male than female characteristics and roles. Meanwhile, they exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that aggressive, physically helpful, athletic, ambitious, intelligent, single, and successful in daytime and early evening dramas were seen as being more likely to be male than female traits.

The respondents who reportedly watched TV Channel 7 and/or 11 heavily, were more likely than those who watched these TV Channels for less hours to exhibit counter-stereotyped opinions that outgoing, unfaithful, authoritative, and criminal portrayed on daytime and early evening dramas were seen as being more likely to be female than male attributes. Further, the respondents who reportedly watched TV Channel 11 heavily were more likely to exhibit counter-stereotyped opinions that attributes of athletic, criminal, outgoing, unfaithful, and authoritative portrayed on late evening and midnight dramas were seen as being more likely to be female than male characteristics.

The perceptions of the respondents in attributes and roles portrayed in TV dramas might not always be consistent with their perceptions of the same attributes and roles as actually happened in their real life. Despite the fact that heavy TV Channel 7 viewers exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that aggressive, athletic, outgoing, unfaithful, authoritative and criminal attributes portrayed on TV daytime and early evening dramas were seen as being more likely to be portrayed by female than male TV characters, they exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that these roles were seen as more likely to be male than female characteristics in real life. Heavy TV Channel 3 viewers also exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that these roles were seen as being more likely to be male than female characteristics in actuality. Therefore, viewers who watched TV Channels 3 and 7 heavily, were more likely than lighter viewers of these TV channels to exhibit gender-stereotyped opinions that criminal, unfaithful, aggressive, athletic, outgoing, and authoritative, were seen as being more likely to be male than female traits in real life.

Despite the fact that heavy TV UBC/SkyTV viewers exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that the attributes of always in trouble, and the family roles of taking children to school, disciplining children, and food shopping portrayed on TV daytime and early evening dramas were seen as being more likely to be male than female roles, they exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that such roles were seen as being more likely to be female than male roles in actuality.

The respondents also showed that their perceptions of attributes and roles portrayed across two TV drama genres are consistent with their perceptions of the same attributes and roles in real life. Heavy viewers of Channel 7 exhibited gender-

stereotyped opinions that attribute of always in trouble, and family roles of taking children to school, disciplining children, and food shopping were seen as being more likely to be female than male traits and roles not only across all TV drama genres, but also in real life.

The gender-stereotyped opinions of heavy TV Channel 7, 3, and UBC/Sky TV viewers in the perceptions of roles as mentioned above supported my hypotheses that heavy viewers differed from light viewers in having social reality perception of attributes and roles closer to TV world than light viewers. These were, for example, heavy TV drama viewers who watched TV Channel 7 and UBC/SkyTV were more likely than light viewers to exhibit gender-stereotyped opinions that attribute of always in trouble and family roles of taking children to school, disciplining children, and food shopping were seen as being more likely to be pursued by women than men in actuality.

Another example was that heavy viewers who watched TV Channel 7 and 3 were more likely than light viewers to exhibit gender-stereotyped opinions that attributes of criminal, unfaithful, aggressive, athletic, outgoing, and authoritative were seen as being more likely to be pursued by men than women in real life. Such perceptions of heavy viewers were closer to TV world representation than the perceptions found among light viewers. The content analysis carried out in this thesis, as shown in Table 5.1, indicated that attributes of always in trouble, and family roles of taking children to school, disciplining children, and food shopping were mostly portrayed by female than male TV characters and the characteristics of criminal, unfaithful, aggressive, athletic, outgoing, and authoritative were mostly portrayed by male than female TV characters.

Although heavy TV viewers of Channel 7 exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions of a number of male and female attributes and roles, as indicated above, they exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions about attributes of shy and dependent that these attributes were seen as being more likely to be male than female traits. Such findings did not; therefore, support my hypothesis as mentioned above that heavy TV viewers were closer to TV world than light TV viewers. Such findings were not consistent with the content analysis' result shown in Table 5.1, page 150, which

described that the attributes of being shy and dependent were mostly portrayed by female than male TV characters.

(2) Perceived gender differences in overall perceptions of male and female roles and attributes

It was found from an audience survey findings in my thesis that female respondents reportedly exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that women's social characteristic of shy and domestic roles of food shopping, cleaning the floor, washing dishes, ironing clothes, and cooking meal portrayed on TV late evening and midnight dramas were seen as being more likely to be male than female characteristics and roles. Further, they were more likely than male respondents to exhibit counter-stereotyped opinions that male social characteristics of criminal, unfaithful, aggressive, athletic, outgoing, and authoritative were seen as being more likely to be female than male characteristics in real life while female social characteristics of shy and dependent were seen as being more likely to be male than female characteristics in real life. Such findings were consistent with previous studies (Frueh and McGhee 1975; William *et al* 1975) that despite the fact that heavy viewers had more stereotyped perceptions than light viewers, the perceptions of male stereotypes were maintained with increasing age while no comparable interaction effect was obtained for perceptions of female stereotypes. The perceptions of male attributes and roles in male respondents were maintained and even stronger than female respondents' perceptions of female attributes roles as their ages increased. Masculine traits in males could possibly be more concrete and have more obvious behavioural referents than the female traits and characteristics

(3) Perceived gender differences accounted for by other demographic and social variables

This section investigates the respondents' role perceptions in TV drama genres and in real life in relation to their demographic profile of education and social backgrounds including family, friends, and celebrities.

Education

Education was taken into account in the perceptions of attributes and roles among heavy TV viewers. It was found from findings in this thesis that the higher the educational secondary year the respondents had, the more the respondents exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that women's social characteristic of shy and domestic roles of food shopping, cleaning the floor, washing dishes, ironing clothes, and cooking meal portrayed on TV late evening and midnight dramas, women's social characteristics of shy and dependent in real life were seen as being more likely to be female than male traits and roles. Such findings were consistent with Frueh and McGhee's (1975) study that males were already very highly gender-stereotyped across all the grade levels while females who were heavy viewers were least stereotyped in their perceptions of roles in grade 1, but they became more gender-stereotyped as they got older.

There are also social factors that influence TV viewers' perceptions of attributes and roles. These are families, friends, and celebrities, which are described as follows.

Family

It was found that there was no significant relationship found between TV drama viewers' perceptions of roles and attributes and the influence of parents. Previous studies (Larson and Kubey 1983; Gerbner *et al* 1986; Larson *et al* 1989; Brown *et al* 1990; Chaffee *et al* 1971) indicated that adolescents whose parents were more involved in their television viewing showed smaller relationships between amount of viewing and degree of perceiving the world in terms of television portrayals. If parental influence was found not significantly related to TV viewers' perceptions of roles, this could possibly lead the young teenage TV viewers to have a high degree of perceiving the reality world similar to the TV world. Lack of parental availability, either because the mother worked or was a single parent, was found to increase exposure both to television and radio (Brown *et al* 1990).

Friends

It was found that the more the friends' influence the respondents had, the more the respondents exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that athletic, criminal, outgoing, unfaithful, and authoritative were seen as being more likely to be portrayed by male than female characteristics in TV late evening and midnight dramas (Table 6.8) while nurturing and kind were seen as being more likely to be female than male traits in real life (Table 6.9). However, the respondents exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that physically helpful, ambitious, successful, and intelligent were seen as being more likely to be female than male attributes in reality. Palmer (1983) suggested that friends might enhance the desirability of certain media or reduce the appeal of other media. Personal experiences of the adolescent viewers with peers might challenge or strengthen the relationship between drama exposure and correlated perceptions. For example, friends' influence on TV viewers enhanced the desirability of perceiving that criminal, outgoing, unfaithful, and authoritative were seen as more likely to be male than female attributes. Moreover, if personal experiences confirmed the perception of roles and TV drama depiction, then one might get "resonance" creating even stronger cultivation effects, as hypothesised by Gerbner.

Celebrities

Celebrities also play an important role in TV viewers' social reality perceptions of attributes and roles in both gender and counter-stereotyped opinions. Findings from this thesis indicated that as celebrities' influence were reportedly increased, the respondents exhibited gender-stereotyped opinions that aggressive, physically helpful, ambitious, intelligent, successful, and being single were seen as being more like to be male than female traits and roles while social characteristic of shy and domestic roles of food shopping, cleaning the floor, washing dishes, ironing clothes, and cooking meal portrayed on late evening and midnight dramas (Table 6.6), and shy and dependent in real life were seen as being more likely to be female than male characteristics (Table 6.12). The respondents who were heavily influenced by celebrities also exhibited counter-stereotyped opinions that kind, nurturing, dependent, always in trouble characteristics and family-related roles of taking children to school, disciplining children, and being married portrayed on TV late evening and midnight dramas were seen as being more likely to be male than female

attributes and roles. Previous studies (Cole and Leets 1999; Gamson 2001; Giles and Maltby 2004) suggested that celebrities could play a vital role in the socialisation process. Giles and Maltby (2004) reported that “Media figures play an important part in [adolescent identity] development, since they offer a variety of possible selves that a young person might wish to try out and provide exemplars “of how to think and feel in different circumstances” (p.814).

7.4 Interpreting and Evaluating Findings

Although studies, which have been conducted in the U.S., have repeatedly found relationship between people’s viewing of television and their feeling of insecurity and fear of crime and violence, non-U.S. research has for the most part failed to replicate those findings. In the previous studies of Hawkins and Pingree (1981) and Wober (1990), they have found some evidence on the audience viewing of U.S. programming. They did not find any relationship between their samples viewing of non-U.S. programmes and the ‘Mean World’ syndrome.

The replication of cultivation theory on gender-related role issue in this thesis, which is carried out outside of the U.S. has given a mixed picture in response to the cultivation hypothesis. The thesis’s findings indicated a few occurring of cultivation effects and even fewer in mainstreaming effects. Cultivation effects were evident in heavy TV drama Thai young teenage viewers’ perceptions of social attributes of athletic, unfaithful, criminal, authoritative, aggressive, outgoing, and occupational roles of chef and police officer, as heavy TV drama viewers’ perceptions of these characteristics and roles were more consistent with the evidence being reported in the content analysis than light TV drama viewers’ perceptions. Also, mainstreaming effects were indicated in the male social attributes of athletic, unfaithful, aggressive, and outgoing as male and female heavy TV drama viewers had narrower differences in their social reality perceptions of these characteristics than male and female light TV drama viewers. There is an indication of cultivation effects in a few, if not at all, perception of attributes and roles.

It has to be admitted that one cannot easily come up with an explanation for these unexpected and surprising results. Previous studies’ related explanations might be possible. The reason lies in the heart of Gerbner’s cultivation hypothesis, which

assumes that all television programmes carry the same underlying message to the audience. American television programmes portrayed a distorted picture of reality where crime was much more than the real world. Consequently, the television viewers were told repetitively that they lived in the dangerous world and therefore should not trust anyone. But the world of American television is a world of crime and violence, which is supported by the fact that people who view TV American programmes but do not view non-U.S. programmes have been found to be related to their perceptions of fear and mistrust (Kolbeins 2002; Hawkins and Pingree 1981).

Previous studies (such as Gunter 1995, 1986) argued that light viewers who expressed their gender-stereotyped opinions about specific roles could be the reasons of content of TV programmes they watched. Some TV programme types were believed to have a stronger correlational influence on viewers about their gender-role and gender-behaviour appropriateness. Light viewers who watched overall TV viewing might watch TV in which its content more often portrayed male characters having gender-stereotyped attributes than did females. On the other hand, drama content has portrayed TV characters mostly in gender-stereotyped ways that even viewers who watched drama very lightly still picked up the stereotypical ideas of male- or female- characteristics.

Light, medium, and heavy TV viewers were divided using a three-way split of hours of self-reported daily TV viewing of all respondents in the data. Gerbner defined those who watched television less than two hours as light TV viewers, comparing to people who watched television for more than four hours a day as heavy TV viewers. This thesis's data was reduced to relative viewing categories of those who watched TV dramas for less than 1 hour per week or never watched at all as light TV viewers, comparing to those who spent 5 hours or more per week watching TV dramas as heavy TV viewers. Gerbner's cultivation theory remarked that it focused on basic differences in viewing levels, not the actual or specific amount of viewing, which simply meant that those who watched TV for more hours are more likely to have indicated the cultivation effects than those who watched TV for fewer hours.

Several studies, (Gunter 1995; Wober and Gunter 1988 cited in Buckingham 1998:136) pointed out that the approach of dividing light and heavy viewers of television assumed that television was all the same and neglect the diversity of

material to which viewers might be exposed. It depends on whether among light viewers some still view enough to be influenced by television and also the context of the nature of the viewing diet. If some types of programmes were more critical than others, because of their contents, to influencing specific social belief, it would be feasible that a light viewer who spent all his time watching those programmes could view as much of those programmes as a heavy viewer who spent only part of his viewing time watching those programmes.

For instance, a light viewer may watch TV for 2 hours a day and spends all his time watching soap operas. A heavy viewer watches for 6 hours a day, but devotes 2 hours a day to soap operas. Beliefs that might be particularly sensitive to soap opera viewing could be equally influenced among both heavy and light viewers in this case. Weight of viewing is less important as a measure than knowing the types of programmes people watch. Besides, light viewers might, in any case, live in the same cultural environment as heavy viewers, and also what light viewers did not get through television could be acquired indirectly from others who do watch more (Morgan and Signorielli 1990).

Interestingly, most light TV viewers were found in this thesis displaying gender-stereotyped opinions in some characteristics and roles ('criminal' 46.2%; 'shy' 86.2%; 'dependent' 72.3%; 'nurturing' 61.5%; 'always in trouble' 64.6%; 'Married' 66.2%; 'food shopping' 52.3%; 'taking children to school' 60.8%; 'disciplining children' 66.2%; 'nurse' 67.2%; and 'police officer' 56.6%).

Despite the fact that the findings of this thesis primarily focus on the portrayals and the perceptions of attributes and roles in the specific type of programme genre, which is drama, which heavily portray gender-stereotypical roles as mentioned from several reports and poll studies in Thailand (ABAC Poll 2002), there are only a few role perceptions that indicate the cultivation effects among Thai young teenage drama viewers. Based on the known evidence such as from Wober, what may be true in America is not true in the rest of the world, which could partly due to national differences (Wober and Gunter 1988). It is also important to remark that the methodology employed in the U.S. was content analysis study while the methodology used in England to study gender-stereotypical roles by authors such as Wober and Gunter, was the study of viewing diary measurement. So research conducted in these

two countries used the different approaches to measure TV viewers' role perceptions. Nevertheless, culture can be crucial factor that defines for people both events that are important and how those events should be interpreted.

Multi-variate analyses have emphasized the robust findings to the thesis. Results from these hypotheses have shown that the most occurring of attributes and roles portrayed by male and female TV drama characters did not always have to correspond with the perceptions of same attributes and roles in heavy TV drama viewers. TV drama viewers were reported to have perceived that some traits and roles were seen as being equally male and female characteristics and roles in Thai societies. The respondents' answers could also be mediated by their individual, social, and cultural experiences outside the world of TV. These results have shown that age, gender, education, TV availability in bedroom, TV Channel viewing measurement, and influences of friends and celebrities are significant for Thai adolescent television viewers' perceptions of gender-related characteristics and roles.

After these factors were entered into the regression, the relationships between these factors and TV viewers' role perceptions were conditional. Some factors increased gender-stereotyped beliefs in TV young viewers while some tended to reduce such beliefs. It is important to remark that the findings concerning controlling variables of demographic and social aspects were results of the regression where the overall multiple adjusted R^2 scores, as mentioned earlier in Table 7.1, were found to be relatively small, which indicated that these demographic and social portions were socially significant to the dependent variables in the diminutive quantity. Nonetheless, such findings were important to study because they contributed to the thesis the meaningful statement about the overall significance of the results.

Only the most optimistic media researcher would claim that television alone could make a difference to young TV viewers' gender-stereotyped role perceptions and socialization. The findings from this research show how Thai youth select and interpret the television content. Thai young teenage viewers received information about gender-related roles from a variety of sources and all other relevant social influences, of which television is one. Anderson and Collins (1988) suggested that television viewing should not be seen as a passive activity, young TV viewers are mentally active during television viewing. Although the gender role content offered

by the various forms of media will constrain what the adolescent might learn and respond to, ultimately the effect of that content will depend on who that adolescent is when he or she comes to use the media. Despite the fact that TV dramas were found portraying traditional stereotypical roles heavily, some adolescents were ready and eager for the messages provided, while some adolescents were not interested or would not have the background necessary for understanding the message. Nevertheless, adolescents who used television to learn about social relationships believed that television portrayals were more realistic than did other adolescents (Truglio 1992). After all, there would be no effects to consider if there were not messages filled with content that is repetitive and consistent.

An audience's perceptions of roles and occupations could change when conditions of audiences change. This also arise the question of a reciprocal causal relation or a circular or spiral effect. That is, audiences seek information from TV to support their pre-existing belief and TV information tends to reinforce the audience's values and beliefs, in which somehow the latter causality appears to a certain degree stronger. Addressing the educational impact of television, Ball and his associates (Bell *et al* 1986) concluded that "the major educational impact of television viewing may well be in teaching children about society and about themselves" (p.134).

Finally, Thai adolescents' viewing does not always cultivate in them gender traits and roles in what roles are appropriate for them or what they want to be when they grow up or complete their studies. It is thus argued that the lack of cultivation effects in other countries than U.S. is simply due to the fact that Gerbner's assumption about the world of television and its messages is only applicable to and true for U.S. television and that content of specific TV genres is more powerful in the emphasizing gender-stereotypical ways than others. Despite the fact that this thesis concentrated on the study of one specific television programme genre, which was drama, a few indications of cultivation effects were found and even fewer indications of mainstreaming effects as explained earlier in this Chapter.

As this thesis has given a mixed response for the cultivation hypothesis, it is proposed that the cultivation effect of television is to be found where the audience is exposed to television that put vast emphasis on gender-stereotyped traits and roles, and with the belief that television information is believable and realistic, and is

supported by demographic profile such as older age, male gender, upper level of secondary education, having TV in bedroom, and social factors such as friends and celebrities, in the ways that reinforced the audience's beliefs about gender appropriateness. Individual differences are important in audience's determination of their role perceptions. The audience will become more counter-stereotyped in their gender roles if they are exposed heavily to counter-stereotypical roles while friends and celebrities have shown them a broader range of roles men and women can do in their societies. After all, television should be seen as an educational reinforcement.

7.5 Limitations and Future Research

This thesis examined the manifest forms of gender representation, which includes roles, activities and jobs shown on TV by male and female characters. It would be advantageous for the future research to extend the scope of research on gender representation to examine "latent characteristics" which include facial expression, gesture, and all camera techniques provided in each scene. Studies on latent and manifest features were previously done by Liebes and Livingstone (1994) and Livingstone (1998) who attempted to examine more latent features in soap operas through qualitative forms of text analysis. This would provide a better picture of whether stereotypical roles do exist quite intensely in TV characters through explicit and implicit expressions. However, this would add an additional dimension, which was beyond the scope of this study. Also, the studies of counter-stereotypical role portrayals which have previously done by Durkin (1985) and Williams and his associates (1981) help emphasizing the idea that television could be an educational reinforcement for the young TV viewers about what men and women's wider roles in the societies.

Additionally, to avoid the young respondents being influenced by the questions within the questionnaire, such as to avoid them using the TV answer to apply for reality answer, Amir Hetsroni and Riva Tukachinsky's (2006) study has shown how to eliminate or reduce such effect. Setting out two separate sets of questionnaires as the solution in not leading the respondents into any biased answers given in the second part, which is about estimates of real world. Each questionnaire set is used in two different interval time and with randomly selected respondents, included estimates of either the real world or the TV world, measures of TV exposure (total

viewing and viewing of particular television formats), newspaper reading, Internet use, age, sex, and ethnicity (control variables). Future research should embrace these views indicated above and that future research must regard the question of gender role as a process that varies in time and space. The results will be clearer if the analyses are performed in different continents of the world where different changes are happening; for example, cross-cultural studies between Thailand and Britain.

7.6 Conclusion

This study indicated that there were significant differences between male and female respondents in their perceptions of attributes and roles in their TV drama consumption. The research analysed the data using both message system analysis and cultivation analysis in order to assess both the kinds of messages that were represented in television dramas and what images and messages that the viewers themselves had actually perceived from. The findings included not only descriptive statistics but also the multivariate statistics such as factor analysis, zero-order, partial correlations and stepwise multiple regression to confirm rigorous and appropriate standard statistical procedures. The methodological approach of dividing light and heavy viewers of television assumed that television was all the same and neglect the diversity of material to which viewers might be exposed. An indication of cultivation effects and mainstreaming effects were found in some male social attributes and some occupational roles. Regression reported that after controlling for demographic variables, media consumption variables, and social variables, male and female respondents' role perceptions were influenced in both gender- and counter-stereotypical ways. Although regression results granted small effects, they were meaningfully contributed to the overall significant results of this thesis. Finally, I hope that the thesis would serve as a base for future studies, which attempt to understand gender traits, characteristics and roles portrayed on Thailand's television dramas and the perceptions about these gender traits, characteristics and roles in Thai young teenage viewers.

Appendices

APPENDIX A. Statements Used by Gerbner to Measure Public Perceptions of the Occurrences of Crime and Violence in Society

-
1. During any given week, what are your chances of being involved in some kind of violence? ABOUT ONE IN TEN? About one in 100?"

(Real world estimates obtained by Gerbner and his associates from official police statistical records indicated 0.41 violent crimes per 100 people, while cultural indicators data for the world of television drama showed, at the time this analysis was carried out, that over 64 per cent of fictional characters became involved in some form of violence).

2. What per cent of all males who have jobs work in law enforcement and crime detection? One per cent/ FIVE PER CENT?

(United States Census figures available at this time indicated that one per cent of the actual population were employed in these areas, while cultural indicators' research found that only 12 per cent of all male characters of prime-time television between 1969 and 1976 were involved in law enforcement).

3. What per cent of all crimes are violent crimes like murders, rape, robbery and aggravated assault? Fifteen per cent? TWENTY PER CENT?

(According to Gerbner and his team, official statistical sources had indicated a figure of 10 per cent, while television statistics derived from content analysis showed that 77 per cent of all major characters who committed crimes also used violence).

4. Does most fatal violence occur between STRANGERS or between relatives or acquaintances?

(Official statistics for the United States from the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence indicated that 16 per cent occurred between relatives or friends. Television data collected by Gerbner for 1967-76 prime-time television drama on all leading networks indicated that 58 per cent of homicides were committed by strangers).

Note: Television answers given in capitals.
Source: Gerbner *et al* (1977:176)

APPENDIX B. The Thai Constitution of 1997 Under Section 34, 37 and 58

The Thai constitution of 1997 under Section 34, 37 and 58 are referred to as follows:

Section 34 of the Constitution states that, "A persons family rights, dignity, reputation or the right of privacy shall be protected. The assertion or circulation of a statement or picture in any manner whatsoever to the public, which violates or affects a person's family rights, dignity, reputation or the right of privacy, shall not be made except for the case which is beneficial to the public."

Section 37 states that "Persons have the freedom to communication with one another by lawful means. Search, detention or exposure of lawful communication materials between and among persons, as well as actions by other means so as to snoop into the contents of the communications materials between and among persons, is prohibited unless it is done by virtue of the power vested in a provision of the law specifically for the purpose of maintaining national security or for the purpose of maintaining peace and order or good public morality."

Section 58 states that, "A person shall have the right to get access to public information in possession of a State agency, State enterprise or local government organization, unless the disclosure of such information shall affect the security of the State, public safety or interests of other persons which shall be protected as provided by law."

Source: Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand (1997)

APPENDIX C. Definitions of Age Range, Each of 22 Specific Characteristics, Roles, and Each of 14 Occupational Roles Given by Two Coders

Age range

1=Under 12 years old

2=13-18 years old (secondary level students)

3=19-25 years old (university students & early work)

4=26-35 years old (higher educated students & middle work)

5=36-45 years old (mid-adults & senior work)

6=46-55 years old (late-adults & senior work)

7=More than 55 years old (retiring adults & senior work)

Specific characteristics and roles

The TV characters will be marked as portraying these attributed if they are prescribed by the definitions here only.

1. Aggressive: Shouting, physically and/or verbally attacking/abusing TV character, assaulting/insulting, being violent.
2. Kind: Speaking with soft voice, understanding other people's feeling.
3. Nurturing: Looking after family such as feeding food to children/babies, and looking after children.
4. Athletic: Being physically strong, exercising, being able to lift heavy things, muscled-tone body structure.
5. Shy: Having little confidence, blushes, being nervous, not looking at the opposite sex's eyes when talking.

6. Physically helpful: Physically helping others such as carrying bags for others, lifting things for others.
7. Ambitious: Having high achievement, being diligent, hard-working.
8. Outgoing: Going out and doing outdoor activities.
9. Dependent: Being helped or rescued from others, or relies on others' decisions/opinions.
10. Intelligent: Creating, inventing, or solving problems effectively.
11. Unfaithful: Having affairs with other person who is not his or her married partner or fiancée.
12. Successful: Being successful at work, being rewarded.
13. Authoritative: Having a high position in the workplace, giving orders to others.
14. Always in trouble: Always (or more of the time) having trouble either at work or home with others.
15. Criminal: Having a criminal record and committing crimes. It is not criminal in the case of police defences or citizen protecting their own life from being killed
16. Food shopping: Buying food for the family members, bringing meals home
17. Cleaning the floor: Cleaning, sweeping, vacuuming, wiping or polishing the floor.
18. Washing dishes: Washing dishes, glasses, cutlery, and crockery.
19. Iron clothes: Ironing clothes for the family members.
20. Cooking meal: Cooking meal for the family members.

21. Taking children to school: Taking the children to school.

22. Disciplining children: Disciplining their children's behaviours, teaching them the do and don't manners.

Occupations

1. Managing director/Business Owner: Dressing in suit, sitting in leather executive chair, expressing himself or herself as managing director or business owner.

2. Engineer: Holding mechanics, fixing something, working on modelling or plan, expressing himself or herself as an engineer.

3. Nurse: Wearing nurse uniform, helping patients in hospitals, expressing himself or herself as a nurse.

4. Teacher: Teaching students in schools, this includes vocational teacher such as music teacher and driving instructor.

5. Judge: Sitting at the judge seat and giving an order to the court.

6. Lawyer: Acting as lawyer for clients.

7. Scientist: Testing in a laboratory or scientific rooms.

8. Doctor: Checking patients in a hospital, prescribing medicine, wearing doctor gown/uniform.

9. Builder: Being at the construction site, wearing security helmet and top, building a house, mostly be muscled-tone person doing work that require strength.

10. Chef: Cooking meal at the kitchen in a restaurant, wearing chef uniform.

11. Fire-fighting officer: Extinguishing fire in an emergency, wearing fire-fighting officer's uniform.

12. Police officer: Being police officer walking down the street, guarding important places such as PM's house.

13. Secretary/Receptionist: Secretary sitting at the reception, registering and reporting to managing director in all correspondence.

14. Ambulance/Medic driver: Driving the ambulance to the hospital in an emergency.

15. Others/Unidentified: Having jobs other than the jobs listed above.

**APPENDIX D. Coding Sheet of Roles and Occupations Portrayed on TV
Dramas Particularly Channels 3 and 7 in the Bangkok Area**

***ROLES AND OCCUPATIONS PORTRAYED ON TV DRAMAS PARTICULARLY
CHANNELS 3 AND 7 IN THE BANGKOK AREA***

- ☐☐☐ 1. Case Number
- ☐☐ 2. Programme no. (Programme title _____)
- ☐ 3. Gender of the character Male=0 Female=1
- ☐ 4. Age group
- 1] Under 12 years old
 - 2] 13-18 years old (secondary and high-school students age)
 - 3] 19-25 years old (university students & early work)
 - 4] 26-35 years old (higher educated students & middle work)
 - 5] 36-45 years old (mid-adults & senior work)
 - 6] 46-55 years old (late-adults & senior work)
 - 7] More than 55 years old (retiring adults or senior work)
- ☐ 5. Marital status
- 1] Single
 - 2] Married
 - 3] Other such as Divorced or Widowed/Can not identify/No signal
- ☐ 6. Type of the character Main/lead character=1 Support character=0
- ☐ 7. Day analysed:
- 1] Monday
 - 2] Tuesday
 - 3] Wednesday
 - 4] Thursday
 - 5] Friday
 - 6] Saturday
 - 7] Sunday
- ☐ 8. Time analysed:
- 1] 10:30 a.m. – 12:30 p.m.
 - 2] 12:30 p.m. – 2:30 p.m.
 - 3] 2:30 p.m. – 4:30 p.m.
 - 4] 4:30 p.m. – 6:30 p.m.
 - 5] 6:30 p.m. – 8:30 p.m.
 - 6] 8:30 p.m. – 10:30 p.m.
 - 7] 10:30 p.m. – 12:30 a.m.
- ☐ 9. Channel analysed:

- 1] Ch 3
- 2] Ch 7

- ☐ 10. Genre of programme
- 1] Daytime & early evening dramas (from noon to 8:00 p.m.)
 - 2] Late evening & midnight dramas (from 8:00 p.m. to midnight)

11.-32. For each of these **22 attributes of social attributes, family or domestic roles** listed below, is it present or not present in the character?

Yes=1 No/Unidentified=0

- ☐ 11. Aggressive
- ☐ 12. Kind
- ☐ 13. Nurturing
- ☐ 14. Athletic
- ☐ 15. Shy
- ☐ 16. Physically helpful to others
- ☐ 17. Ambitious
- ☐ 18. Outgoing
- ☐ 19. Authoritative
- ☐ 20. Dependent on others
- ☐ 21. Intelligent
- ☐ 22. Unfaithful
- ☐ 23. Successful
- ☐ 24. Always in trouble
- ☐ 25. Criminal
- ☐ 26. Shopping food for family members
- ☐ 27. Cleaning floor
- ☐ 28. Washing dishes
- ☐ 29. Ironing clothes

☐ 30. Cooking meal

☐ 31. Taking children to school

☐ 32. Disciplining children

☐☐ 33. For each of these **14 occupational roles**, which occupation does the TV character have?

1. Managing director/Business owner

2. Engineer

3. Nurse

4. Teacher

5. Judge

6. Lawyer

7. Scientist

8. Doctor

9. Builder

10. Chef

11. Fire-fighting officer

12. Police officer

13. Secretary/Receptionist

14. Ambulance/Medic driver

15. Others/Unidentified

APPENDIX E. Letter of Introduction and Request of School Authorization



Media and Communication Department
9th Floor Attenborough Building
University Road
Leicester
LE1 7RH
United Kingdom

Dear Head teacher/Director ofSchool,

My name is Miss Nitikul Chamaraman, a PhD researcher in Mass Communications at University of Leicester, United Kingdom. I am conducting a survey on "Television's Influence of Gender Role and Career Aspirations on Early Teenagers in Thailand Particularly in the Bangkok area" in 15 different schools throughout Bangkok district areas. The survey asks about the different type of media your students have come across in their everyday life, both at home and at work. For instance, it asks about how often they watch televisions each day in each different programmes.

Within the next few days, I will call on your school's head teacher to explain the survey in more detail. I will show you a University of Leicester's full-time researcher identification card with a photograph, and I will ask to give out self-completed questionnaires, selected at random by both me and you, from among the students in secondary and high (Mattayom 1-6) classes in your school. The information you give will be treated in strict confidence. I would also like to offer the complimentary gifts for school and students who spend their time taking part in my survey.

I rely on people's voluntary co-operation in carrying out such surveys and so I would be very grateful if you would agree to take part in my survey.

For further information about Media and Communication Department or the survey please contact me by telephoning 01-8093930 or emailing: pha0@hotmail.com, nc77@le.ac.uk.

If you feel that you do not wish to take part in this survey, please contact me to let me know. In this way, I can ensure that I will not call at your address.

Yours sincerely,
Miss Nitikul Chamaraman

APPENDIX F. Sample of Survey Questionnaire about Media and Secondary- and High- School Adolescents Aged Between 11 and 19 Years Old in the Bangkok Area (English translation)

Date.....

School.....

Survey about Media and Secondary- and High-School Adolescents Aged Between 10 and 19 Years Old in the Bangkok Area

This is NOT a text or exam. The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain your attitudes and opinions about your use of media, particularly television, in your everyday lives. Please respond as fully and honestly as you can. The questionnaire is anonymous and the answer you provide will not be attributed to you in anyway.

1. What is your gender? [Please circle one number]

- 1] Male
- 2] Female

2. How old are you? [Please circle one number]

- 1] 10 years
- 2] 11 years
- 3] 12 years
- 4] 13 years
- 5] 14 years
- 6] 15 years
- 7] 16 years
- 8] 17 years
- 9] 18 years
- 10] 19 years

3. What year (Mattayom) are you in? [Please circle one number]

- 1] Secondary M. 1
- 2] Secondary M. 2
- 3] Secondary M. 3
- 4] High school M. 4
- 5] High school M. 5
- 6] High school M. 6

4. How many television sets do you have in your household? [Please circle one number]

- 1] One
- 2] Two
- 3] Three
- 4] More than 3

5. Do you have TV in your own bedroom? [Please circle one number]

1] No

2] Yes

6.-12. How often do you watch each TV channel in each WEEK? [Please circle one number for each channel]

TV Channel	The frequency of each channel viewed					
	More than 6 hrs/wk	5-6 hrs/wk	3-4 hrs/wk	1-2 hrs/wk	Less than one hr/wk	Never
6. CH 3	6	5	4	3	2	1
7. CH 5	6	5	4	3	2	1
8. CH 7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9. CH 9	6	5	4	3	2	1
10. ITV	6	5	4	3	2	1
11. CH 11	6	5	4	3	2	1
12. Sat/Cable UBC/SkyTV	6	5	4	3	2	1

13.-21. How often do you watch each type of TV programme in each WEEK? [Please circle one number for each type of programme to indicate how often, on average, you watch it]. Please see the attached sheet A for the examples for each of these programme types. [Note: attached sheet A can be found in APPENDIX J]

Type of programme	The frequency of each type of programme viewed					
	More than 6 hrs/wk	5-6 hrs/wk	3-4 hrs/wk	1-2 hrs/wk	Less than 1 hr/wk	Never
13. Cartoon/animated cartoons	6	5	4	3	2	1
14. Children and family shows	6	5	4	3	2	1
15. Talk shows	6	5	4	3	2	1
16. Daytime & early evening dramas (starting from mid-day to 8:00 p.m.)	6	5	4	3	2	1
17. Late evening & midnight dramas (starting from 8:00 p.m. to midnight)	6	5	4	3	2	1
18. Action-adventure/ crimes/detective/Western/ featured Films	6	5	4	3	2	1
19. Situation/stand-alone comedies, other comedies	6	5	4	3	2	1
20. Reality shows	6	5	4	3	2	1
21. News and current affairs	6	5	4	3	2	1

22. How much of the time do you watch TV on your **own without anybody else?**

[Please circle one number]

- 1] 81- 100% of the time I watch TV
- 2] 61-80% of the time I watch TV
- 3] 41-60% of the time I watch TV
- 4] 21-40% of the time I watch TV
- 5] 1-20% of the time I watch TV
- 6] Always watch with someone else

23. How much of the time do you watch TV **with family members?** [Please circle one number]

- 1] 81-100% of the time I watch TV
- 2] 61-80% of the time I watch TV
- 3] 41-60% of the time I watch TV
- 4] 21-40% of the time I watch TV
- 5] 1-20% of the time I watch TV
- 6] None of the time I watch TV

24. How much of the time do you watch TV **with friends?** [Please circle one number]

- 1] 81-100% of the time I watch TV
- 2] 61-80% of the time I watch TV
- 3] 41-60% of the time I watch TV
- 4] 21-40% of the time I watch TV
- 5] 1-20% of the time I watch TV
- 6] None of the time I watch TV

25.-30. How much time do you spend on each of the following different activities?

Type of Activity	The frequency of time spent					
	20+ hrs/wk	16-20 hrs/wk	11-15 hrs/wk	6-10 hrs/wk	Less 1-5 hr/wk	No time at all
25. Watching TV	6	5	4	3	2	1
26. Listening to music/radio	6	5	4	3	2	1
27. Reading books/magazine/comic book/novel/newspaper	6	5	4	3	2	1
28. Attending club/society such as Badminton Club, Singing Club, Music Club, Cooking Club etc.	6	5	4	3	2	1
29. Surfing the net/playing computer games	6	5	4	3	2	1
30. Going to theatres/seeing cinemas film	6	5	4	3	2	1

31.-54. For each of the social attributes and domestic roles listed below, to what extent in your experience is each one 'more likely to characterise a man', 'more likely to characterise a woman' or 'likely to characterise men and women equally' in the way they appear in **dramas that are aired from noon to 8:00 p.m.**? (It is NOT essential to give the name of characters)

Social attributes and domestic roles in daytime and early evening dramas (Noon - 8:00 p.m.)	More likely to characterise a man than a woman.	Likely to characterise men and women equally.	More likely to characterise a woman than a man.	Don't know/Not sure
31. Aggressive	1	2	3	0
32. Kind	1	2	3	0
33. Nurturing	1	2	3	0
34. Athletic	1	2	3	0
35. Shy	1	2	3	0
36. Physically helpful	1	2	3	0
37. Ambitious	1	2	3	0
38. Outgoing	1	2	3	0
39. Dependent	1	2	3	0
40. Intelligent	1	2	3	0
41. Single	1	2	3	0
42. Married	1	2	3	0
43. Unfaithful	1	2	3	0
44. Successful	1	2	3	0
45. Authoritative	1	2	3	0
46. Always in trouble	1	2	3	0
47. Criminal	1	2	3	0
48. Shopping food for family members	1	2	3	0
49. Cleaning floor	1	2	3	0
50. Washing dishes				0
51. Ironing clothes	1	2	3	0
52. Cooking meal	1	2	3	0
53. Taking children to school	1	2	3	0
54. Disciplining children	1	2	3	0

55.-78. For each of the social attributes and domestic roles listed below, to what extent in your experience is each one more likely to characterise a man, more likely to characterise a woman or likely to characterise men and woman equally in the way they appear in **dramas that are aired in the evening from 8:00 p.m. to midnight?** (It is NOT essential to give the name of TV character)

Social attributes and domestic roles in late evening & midnight dramas (8:00 p.m.-midnight)	More likely to characterise a man than a woman.	Likely to characterise men and women equally	More likely to characterise a woman than a man. that drama	Don't know/Not sure
55. Aggressive	1	2	3	0
56. Kind	1	2	3	0
57. Nurturing	1	2	3	0
58. Athletic	1	2	3	0
59. Shy	1	2	3	0
60. Physically helpful	1	2	3	0
61. Ambitious	1	2	3	0
62. Outgoing	1	2	3	0
63. Dependent on others	1	2	3	0
64. Intelligent	1	2	3	0
65. Single	1	2	3	0
66. Married	1	2	3	0
67. Unfaithful when married	1	2	3	0
68. Successful	1	2	3	0
69. Authoritative	1	2	3	0
70. Always in trouble	1	2	3	0
71. Having a criminal record	1	2	3	0
72. Shopping food for family members	1	2	3	0
73. Cleaning floor	1	2	3	0
74. Washing dishes				0
75. Ironing clothes	1	2	3	0
76. Cooking meal	1	2	3	0
77. Taking children to school	1	2	3	0
78. Disciplining children	1	2	3	0

79.-102. For each of the social attributes and domestic roles listed below, to what extent in your experience is each one more likely to characterise a man, more likely to characterise a woman or likely to characterise men and woman equally in the way they appear for men and women you know in real life?

Social attributes and domestic roles in your real life	More likely to characterise a man than a woman.	Likely to characterise men and women equally.	More likely to characterise a woman than a man.	Don't know/Not sure
79. Aggressive	1	2	3	0
80. Kind	1	2	3	0
81. Nurturing	1	2	3	0
82. Athletic	1	2	3	0
83. Shy	1	2	3	0
84. Physically helpful	1	2	3	0
85. Ambitious	1	2	3	0
86. Outgoing	1	2	3	0
87. Dependent on others	1	2	3	0
88. Intelligent	1	2	3	0
89. Single	1	2	3	0
90. Married	1	2	3	0
91. Unfaithful when married	1	2	3	0
92. Successful	1	2	3	0
93. Authoritative	1	2	3	0
94. Always in trouble	1	2	3	0
95. Having a criminal record	1	2	3	0
96. Shopping food for family members	1	2	3	0
97. Cleaning floor	1	2	3	0
98. Washing dishes	1	2	3	0
99. Ironing clothes	1	2	3	0
100. Cooking meal	1	2	3	0
101. Taking children to school	1	2	3	0
102. Disciplining children	1	2	3	0

103.-116. For each of the occupations listed below, do you think it is more likely to be filled by a man or by a woman when shown on TV, or are both sexes likely to be shown equally in this sort of position?

Occupations	Frequently shown on TV by		
	More likely to be a man	More likely to be a man or woman	More likely to be a woman
Management, Business and Financial operations occupations			
103. Managing Director	1	2	3
Professional and related occupations			
104. Engineer	1	2	3
105. Nurse	1	2	3
106. Teacher	1	2	3
107. Judge	1	2	3
108. Lawyer	1	2	3
109. Scientist	1	2	3
110. Doctor	1	2	3
111. Builder	1	2	3
Service occupations			
112. Chef	1	2	3
113. Firefighting officer	1	2	3
114. Police officer	1	2	3
115. Secretary/Receptionist	1	2	3
Transportation and material moving occupations			
116. Ambulance/medic driver	1	2	3

117.-130. For each of the occupations listed below, do you think it is better suited by a man or by a woman in real life, or are both sexes likely equally suited in this sort of position?

Occupations	Better suited to		
	Man	Both sexes equally	Woman
Management, Business and Financial operations occupations			
117. Managing Director	1	2	3
Professional and related occupations			
118. Engineer	1	2	3
119. Nurse	1	2	3
120. Teacher	1	2	3
121. Judge	1	2	3
122. Lawyer	1	2	3
123. Scientist	1	2	3
124. Doctor	1	2	3
125. Builder	1	2	3
Service occupations			
126. Chef	1	2	3
127. Firefighting officer	1	2	3
128. Police officer	1	2	3
129. Secretary/Receptionist	1	2	3
Transportation and material moving occupations			
130. Ambulance/medic driver	1	2	3

(Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics
<http://www.bls.gov/oco/oco1001.htm> Accessed 2 Nov 05)

131. From the above list of occupations, which occupation do you most likely want to do after your graduation? (Please circle one number)

- 1] Managing director
- 2] Engineer
- 3] Nurse
- 4] Teacher
- 5] Judge
- 6] Lawyer
- 7] Scientist
- 8] Doctor
- 9] Builder
- 10] Chef
- 11] Fire fighting officer
- 12] Police officer
- 13] Secretary/Receptionist
- 14] Ambulance/medic driver
- 15] Other/Not specify/Don't know

132. In thinking about your favourite celebrities, how important are they to you as viewers in informing you about **what to wear**? [Please circle one number]

- 1] Very important [75-100%]
- 2] Quite important [50-75%]
- 3] Not very important [25-50%]
- 4] Not important at all [0-25%]

133. In thinking about to your favourite celebrities, how important are they to you as viewers in informing you about **how to behave around the house**? [Please circle one number]

- 1] Very important [75-100%]
- 2] Quite important [50-75%]
- 3] Not very important [25-50%]
- 4] Not important at all [0-25%]

134. In thinking about your favourite celebrities, how important are they to you as viewers in informing you about **what type of job you want after your graduation**? [Please circle one number]

- 1] Very important [75-100%]
- 2] Quite important [50-75%]
- 3] Not very important [25-50%]
- 4] Not important at all [0-25%]

135. In thinking about your best friends, how important are they in informing you about **what to wear**? [Please circle one number]

- 1] Very important [75-100%]
- 2] Quite important [50-75%]
- 3] Not very important [25-50%]
- 4] Not important at all [0-25%]

136. In thinking about you best friends, how important are they in informing you about **how to behave around the house**? [Please circle one number]

- 1] Very important [75-100%]
- 2] Quite important [50-75%]
- 3] Not very important [25-50%]
- 4] Not important at all [0-25%]

137. In thinking about your best friends, how important are they in informing you about **what job you want after your graduation**? [Please circle one number]

- 1] Very important [75-100%]
- 2] Quite important [50-75%]
- 3] Not very important [25-50%]
- 4] Not important at all [0-25%]

138. Which of your parents has the most influence in your life? [Please circle one number]

- 1] Father
- 2] Mother
- 3] Both equally
- 4] Neither has much influence

139. In relating to the above question, how important is he/she in informing you about **what to wear?** [Please circle one number]

- 1] Very important [75-100%]
- 2] Quite important [50-75%]
- 3] Not very important [25-50%]
- 4] Not important at all [0-25%]

140. In relating to question 138, how important is he/she in informing you about **how to behave around the house?** [Please circle one number]

- 1] Very important [75-100%]
- 2] Quite important [50-75%]
- 3] Not very important [25-50%]
- 4] Not important at all [0-25%]

141. In relating to question 138, how important is he/she in informing you about **what job you want after your graduation?** [Please circle one number]

- 1] Very important [75-100%]
- 2] Quite important [50-75%]
- 3] Not very important [25-50%]
- 4] Not important at all [0-25%]



THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS SURVEY!!

APPENDIX G. Correlations Between TV Channel Viewing and 24 Perceptions of Gender Roles in 'Daytime and Early Evening Dramas', Controlling for Gender, Age, Education and TV Sets in Bedrooms

Attributes	Correlation	Ch3	Ch5	Ch7	Ch9	ChTV	Ch11	ChUBC/ SkyTV
"Aggressive"	Zero-order	.190 ***	.133 ***	.248 ***	.120 ***	.158 ***	.039	-.103 **
	Partial	.189 ***	.134 ***	.234 ***	.138 ***	.165 ***	.050	-.102 **
"Kind"	Zero-order	.146 ***	.149 ***	.228 ***	.147 ***	.156 ***	.088 **	-.046
	Partial	.144 ***	.149 ***	.220 ***	.157 ***	.160 ***	.094 **	-.045
"Nurturing"	Zero-order	.163 ***	.131 ***	.219 ***	.146 ***	.168 ***	.094 **	-.050
	Partial	.161 ***	.131 ***	.215 ***	.151 ***	.169 ***	.097 **	-.052
"Athletic"	Zero-order	.169 ***	.168 ***	.234 ***	.083 *	.103 **	.057	-.063
	Partial	.168 ***	.171 ***	.218 ***	.103 **	.112 **	.070 *	-.062
"Shy"	Zero-order	.163 ***	.169 ***	.274 ***	.123 ***	.134 ***	.036	-.065 *
	Partial	.160 ***	.171 ***	.259 ***	.136 ***	.037 ***	.043	-.068 *
"Physically helpful"	Zero-order	.178 ***	.147 ***	.206 ***	.122 ***	.150 ***	.039	-.025
	Partial	.180 ***	.149 ***	.206 ***	.127 ***	.152 ***	.042	-.025
"Ambitious"	Zero-order	.147 ***	.156 ***	.224 ***	.113 ***	.136 ***	.053	-.054
	Partial	.146 ***	.156 ***	.223 ***	.121 ***	.141 ***	.058	-.053
"Outgoing"	Zero-order	.144 ***	.107 **	.190 ***	.066 *	.099 **	.088 **	-.030
	Partial	.141 ***	.107 **	.178 ***	.076 *	.101 **	.095 **	-.033
"Dependent"	Zero-order	.146 ***	.137 ***	.253 ***	.133 ***	.136 ***	.075 *	-.079 *
	Partial	.144 ***	.138 ***	.242 ***	.144 ***	.139 ***	.082 *	-.080 *
"Intelligent"	Zero-order	.160 ***	.139 ***	.233 ***	.126 ***	.107 **	.073 *	-.053
	Partial	.161 ***	.140 ***	.232 ***	.137 ***	.112 ***	.080 *	-.050
"Single"	Zero-order	.094 **	.145 ***	.176 ***	.084 **	.098 **	.022	-.084 **
	Partial	.096 **	.147 ***	.179 ***	.096 **	.106 **	.030	-.075 *

Note: Partial=Controlling for gender, age, education, TV sets in bedroom

*** = $p < .001$, ** = $p < .01$, * = $p < .05$

Attributes (Continued)	Correlation	Ch3	Ch5	Ch7	Ch9	Ch1TV	Ch11	ChUBC/ SkyTV
"Married"	Zero-order	.133 ***	.126 ***	.206 ***	.108 **	.105 **	.047	-.052
	Partial	.134 ***	.128 ***	.204 ***	.115 ***	.107 **	.050	-.052
"Unfaithful"	Zero-order	.079 *	.074 *	.098 **	.047	.059	.031	-.033
	Partial	.078 *	.073 *	.101 **	.150	.063	.035	-.031
"Successful"	Zero-order	.078 *	.069 *	.177 ***	.092 **	.105 **	.029	-.048
	Partial	.082 *	.073 *	.179 ***	.099 **	.108 **	.032	-.046
"Authoritative"	Zero-order	.116 ***	.093 **	.130 ***	.117 ***	.113 ***	.104 **	-.011
	Partial	.115 ***	.094 **	.127 ***	.118 ***	.111 **	.140 **	-.013
"Always in trouble"	Zero-order	.169 ***	.153 ***	.244 ***	.146 ***	.144 ***	.080 *	-.052
	Partial	.168 ***	.154 ***	.239 ***	.155 ***	.147 ***	.085 **	-.051
"Criminal"	Zero-order	.115 ***	.130 ***	.196 ***	.118 ***	.119 ***	.108 **	-.013
	Partial	.111 **	.129 ***	.184 ***	.125 ***	.120 ***	.112 **	-.015
"Shopping food"	Zero-order	.166 ***	.183 ***	.273 ***	.142 ***	.155 ***	.098 **	-.098 **
	Partial	.162 ***	.183 ***	.254 ***	.163 ***	.165 ***	.113 ***	-.094 **
"Cleaning floor"	Zero-order	.217 ***	.198 ***	.320 ***	.150 ***	.164 ***	.083 *	-.108 **
	Partial	.211 ***	.196 ***	.301 ***	.169 ***	.173 ***	.096 **	-.107 **
"Washing dishes"	Zero-order	.187 ***	.162 ***	.278 ***	.158 ***	.159 ***	.078 *	-.067 *
	Partial	.186 ***	.163 ***	.269 ***	.171 ***	.163 ***	.086 **	-.068 *
"Ironing clothes"	Zero-order	.227 ***	.191 ***	.324 ***	.157 ***	.162 ***	.071 *	-.077 *
	Partial	.228 ***	.196 ***	.312 ***	.172 ***	.165 ***	.078 *	-.083 *
"Cooking meal"	Zero-order	.214 ***	.174 ***	.290 ***	.096 **	.161 ***	.157 ***	-.056
	Partial	.216 ***	.179 ***	.283 ***	.151 ***	.140 ***	.064 *	-.059
"Taking children to school"	Zero-order	.177 ***	.155 ***	.275 ***	.097 **	.138 ***	.101 **	-.051
	Partial	.177 ***	.157 ***	.268 ***	.112 ***	.146 ***	.112 **	-.045
"Disciplining children"	Zero-order	.143 ***	.120 ***	.255 ***	.126 ***	.113 ***	.101 **	-.025
	Partial	.147 ***	.126 ***	.249 ***	.143 ***	.119 ***	.110 **	-.021

Note: Partial=Controlling for gender, age, education, TV sets in bedroom

*** = $p < .001$, ** = $p < .01$, * = $p < .05$

APPENDIX H. Correlations Between TV Channel Viewing and 24 Perceptions of Gender Roles in 'Late Evening and Midnight Dramas', Controlling for Gender, Age, Education and TV Sets in Bedrooms

Attributes	Correlation	Ch3	Ch5	Ch7	Ch9	ChITV	Ch11	ChUBC/ SkyTV
"Aggressive"	Zero-order	.114 ***	.067 *	.109 **	-.010	.045	.025	.009
	Partial	.113 ***	.068 *	.103 **	-.004	.046	.029	.008
"Kind"	Zero-order	.174 ***	.114 ***	.189 ***	.034	.079 *	.023	.001
	Partial	.172 ***	.112 **	.184 ***	.039	.082 *	.026	.002
"Nurturing"	Zero-order	.105 **	.049	.151 ***	.035	.056	.007	.033
	Partial	.104 **	.048	.151 ***	.037	.057	.009	.033
"Athletic"	Zero-order	.056	.059	.149 ***	-.004	.030	.042	-.009
	Partial	.056	.060	.147 ***	-.005	.027	.040	-.013
"Shy"	Zero-order	.221 ***	.141 ***	.194 ***	.062	.073 *	.028	-.026
	Partial	.217 ***	.139 ***	.171 ***	.077 *	.077 *	.037	-.028
"Physically helpful"	Zero-order	.134 ***	.086 **	.157 ***	.061	.059	.041	-.007
	Partial	.138 ***	.090 **	.161 ***	.060	.056	.039	-.012
"Ambitious"	Zero-order	.108 **	.075 *	.135 ***	.049	.062	.049	-.009
	Partial	.107 **	.074 *	.133 ***	.050	.063	.050	-.009
"Outgoing"	Zero-order	.034	.074 *	.108 **	.014	.046	.081 *	-.039
	Partial	.030	.072 *	.101 **	.016	.046	.083 *	-.041
"Dependent"	Zero-order	.142 ***	.092 **	.149 ***	.069 *	.063 *	.033	-.072 *
	Partial	.142 ***	.094 **	.143 ***	.076 *	.065 *	.037	-.073 *
"Intelligent"	Zero-order	.117 ***	.099 **	.169 ***	.076 *	.053	.044	-.022
	Partial	.117 ***	.100 **	.170 ***	.073 *	.049	.041	-.029
"Single"	Zero-order	.112 **	.068 *	.099 **	.032	.000	.035	-.013
	Partial	.110 **	.067 *	.095 **	.039	.004	.040	-.009

Note: Partial=Controlling for gender, age, education, TV sets in bedroom

*** = $p < .001$, ** = $p < .01$, * = $p < .05$

Attributes (Continued)	Correlation	Ch3	Ch5	Ch7	Ch9	Ch1TV	Ch11	ChUBC/ SkyTV
"Married"	Zero-order	.114 ***	.121 ***	.177 ***	.060	.065 *	.021	-.069 *
	Partial	.114 ***	.122 ***	.171 ***	.069 *	.069 *	.026	-.068 *
"Unfaithful"	Zero-order	.092 **	.106 **	.112 ***	.089 **	.093 **	.078 *	-.025
	Partial	.092 **	.108 **	.112 **	.087 **	.090 **	.075 *	-.031
"Successful"	Zero-order	.089 **	.029	.094 **	.054	.056	.018	-.033
	Partial	.086 **	.026	.091 **	.055	.056	.019	-.033
"Authoritative"	Zero-order	.013	.016	.048	.001	.064 *	.064 *	.041
	Partial	.008	.011	.048	-.009	.060	.059	.036
"Always in trouble"	Zero-order	.106 **	.048	.140 ***	.020	.034	.027	-.001
	Partial	.102 **	.046	.127 ***	.021	.030	.027	-.011
"Criminal"	Zero-order	.066 *	.029	.088 **	.008	.062	.075 *	.028
	Partial	.063	.026	.083 *	.006	.060	.074 *	.024
"Shopping food"	Zero-order	.196 ***	.129 ***	.227 ***	.059	.072 *	-.008	-.053
	Partial	.186 ***	.122 ***	.201 ***	.079 *	.077 *	.001	-.054
"Cleaning floor"	Zero-order	.179 ***	.099 **	.159 ***	.066 *	.087 **	.002	-.043
	Partial	.177 ***	.099 **	.144 ***	.075 *	.087 **	.006	-.047
"Washing dishes"	Zero-order	.179 ***	.114 ***	.149 ***	.052	.064 *	.022	.014
	Partial	.174 ***	.113 ***	.126 ***	.062	.064 *	.028	.009
"Ironing clothes"	Zero-order	.208 ***	.124 ***	.203 ***	.063	.082 *	.020	-.011
	Partial	.201 ***	.120 ***	.182 ***	.074 *	.085 **	.027	-.014
"Cooking meal"	Zero-order	.183 ***	.146 ***	.198 ***	.055	.064 *	.037	-.004
	Partial	.177 ***	.144 ***	.176 ***	.068 *	.072 *	.046	-.006
"Taking children to school"	Zero-order	.117 ***	.052	.153 ***	.021	.020	.034	-.006
	Partial	.116 ***	.052	.144 ***	.037	.028	.045	.001
"Disciplining children"	Zero-order	.107 **	.097 **	.181 ***	.023	.039	.042	-.038
	Partial	.103 **	.096 **	.170 ***	.027	.038	.044	-.043

Note: Partial=Controlling for gender, age, education, TV sets in bedroom
 *** = $p < .001$, ** = $p < .01$, * = $p < .05$

**APPENDIX I. Correlations Between TV Channel Viewing and 24 Perceptions
of Gender-Related Roles in 'Real Life', Controlling for Gender,
Age, Education and TV Sets in Bedrooms**

Attributes	Correlation	Ch3	Ch5	Ch7	Ch9	ChTV	Ch11	ChUBC/ SkyTV
"Aggressive"	Zero-order	-.065 *	-.051	-.055	-.027	-.032	-.016	.002
	Partial	-.064 *	-.048	-.064 *	-.021	-.031	-.013	.001
"Kind"	Zero-order	-.080 *	-.068 *	-.079 *	-.074 *	-.044	-.029	.040
	Partial	-.082 *	-.068 *	-.088 **	-.071 *	-.044	-.028	.039
"Nurturing"	Zero-order	-.115 ***	-.118 ***	-.123 ***	-.073 *	-.111 **	-.079 *	-.025
	Partial	-.111 **	-.116 ***	-.117 ***	-.075 *	-.110 **	-.080 *	-.021
"Athletic"	Zero-order	-.115 ***	-.102 **	-.152 ***	-.095 **	-.059	-.029	.020
	Partial	-.110 **	-.096 **	-.148 ***	-.104 **	-.067 *	-.037	.012
"Shy"	Zero-order	-.021	-.059	-.110 **	-.102 **	-.093 **	-.043	.028
	Partial	-.029	-.063	-.142 ***	-.095 **	-.095 **	-.038	.023
"Physically helpful"	Zero-order	-.080 *	-.071 *	-.140 ***	-.058	-.094 **	-.007	.036
	Partial	-.080 *	-.071 *	-.142 ***	-.095	-.095 **	-.038	.037
"Ambitious"	Zero-order	-.075 *	-.049	-.121 ***	-.083 *	-.085 **	-.042	-.032
	Partial	-.075 *	-.050	-.123 ***	-.078 *	-.080 *	-.037	-.025
"Outgoing"	Zero-order	-.116 ***	-.093 **	-.178 ***	-.047	-.044	.049	.023
	Partial	-.114 ***	-.091 **	-.172 ***	-.056	-.049	.043	.019
"Dependent"	Zero-order	-.056	-.044	-.077 *	-.075 *	-.057	-.040	.074 *
	Partial	-.061	-.043	-.106 **	-.064 *	-.052	.011	.071 *
"Intelligent"	Zero-order	-.067 *	-.065 *	-.080 *	-.063	-.057	-.040	-.028
	Partial	-.066 *	-.066 *	-.075 *	-.068 *	-.058	-.043	-.025
"Single"	Zero-order	-.071 *	-.085 **	-.142 ***	-.069 *	-.108 **	-.039	.052
	Partial	-.071 *	-.085 **	-.144 ***	-.070 *	-.108 **	-.039	.051

Note: Partial=Controlling for gender, age, education, TV sets in bedroom

*** = $p < .001$, ** = $p < .01$, * = $p < .05$

Attributes (Continued)	Correlation	Ch3	Ch5	Ch7	Ch9	Ch1TV	Ch11	ChUBC/ SkyTV
"Married"	Zero-order	-.079 *	-.060	-.110 **	-.081 *	-.086 **	-.062	.002
	Partial	-.078 *	-.057	-.118 ***	-.076 *	-.085 **	-.059	.004
"Unfaithful"	Zero-order	-.149 ***	-.106 **	-.189 ***	-.071 *	-.085 **	-.053	.018
	Partial	-.147 ***	-.106 **	-.175 ***	-.085 **	-.090 **	-.062	.017
"Successful"	Zero-order	-.091 **	-.135 ***	-.135 ***	-.086 **	-.092 **	-.076 *	-.046
	Partial	-.091 **	-.135 ***	-.138 ***	-.086 **	-.093 **	-.076 *	-.047
"Authoritative"	Zero-order	-.080 **	-.066 *	-.126 ***	-.028	-.045	-.027	-.012
	Partial	-.084 **	-.070 *	-.129 ***	-.030	-.045	-.027	.011
"Always in trouble"	Zero-order	-.041	-.069 *	-.060	-.046	-.058	-.051	.006
	Partial	-.044	-.072 *	-.060	-.049	-.059	-.052	.005
"Criminal"	Zero-order	-.164 ***	-.090 **	-.162 ***	-.091 **	-.079 *	.004	.035
	Partial	-.159 ***	-.087 **	-.145 ***	-.109 **	-.088 **	-.007	.029
"Shopping food"	Zero-order	-.106 **	-.113 ***	-.155 ***	-.087 **	-.102 **	-.070 *	.023
	Partial	-.109 **	-.114 ***	-.162 ***	-.092 **	-.106 **	-.074 *	.018
"Cleaning floor"	Zero-order	-.058	-.037	-.086 **	-.007	-.071 *	.028	.042
	Partial	-.060	-.040	-.088 **	.001	-.075 *	.025	.040
"Washing dishes"	Zero-order	-.073 *	-.026	-.107 **	-.048	-.075 *	.011	.047
	Partial	-.076 *	-.028	-.114 ***	-.053	-.079 *	.007	.041
"Ironing clothes"	Zero-order	-.070 *	-.067 *	-.116 ***	-.065 *	-.040	-.010	-.007
	Partial	-.071 *	-.067 *	-.116 ***	-.073 *	-.046	-.016	-.013
"Cooking meal"	Zero-order	-.048	-.067 *	-.064 *	-.031	-.002	-.027	.020
	Partial	-.046	-.065 *	-.064 *	-.036	-.007	-.031	.015
"Taking children to school"	Zero-order	-.089 **	-.039	-.125 ***	-.063	-.077 *	.000	-.047
	Partial	-.081 *	-.032	-.116 ***	-.067 *	-.079 *	-.004	-.046
"Disciplining children"	Zero-order	-.081 *	-.060	-.066 *	-.083 *	-.054	.006	-.024
	Partial	-.080 *	-.058	-.067 *	-.086 **	-.057	.004	-.028

Note: Partial=Controlling for gender, age, education, TV sets in bedroom

*** = $p < .001$, ** = $p < .01$, * = $p < .05$

APPENDIX J. Example of Television Programme Titles

Example of television programme titles (Attached sheet A for questionnaire survey)

Cartoon/animated cartoon: Jao-Kun-Tong (Little Bird), Ig-Q-Sang (Smart Young Monk), Ar-Ra-Rae (Crazy Girl).

Children and family show: Game shows or talk shows that only involved kids/kid with the members of their family such as Dao-Atchariya (Genius Stars), Pasa-Paroew (Language Leads Rich). Shows that give information in any aspect about kids such as Rak-Look_Hai-Took-Tang (Love Kids Right Way) and The Winner, Narak-Naroo (Knowledge for Kids). Family shows such as Lang-Ka-Dew-Kan (Same Roof).

Talk show/adults game show/variety: Tee-Sib (At Ten O’Clock), M Thailand, Chic n’ Cheap, Living In Shape, Thailand’s Next Top Model, Reung-Low-Chow-Nee (Morning Anything), and Is-Ra-Nee (Love Consultants).

Daytime and early evening dramas: Dramas broadcast during mid-day and 8:00 p.m.: Mon-Fri such as Thamma Tid Peek Part 2 (Good Dharma part 2) 6:15 – 6:45 p.m.; www.KhunYa.com (Granma dot com) 1:15-1:45 p.m., Lok Klow Klow Kong Nai KanomTouw (My Small World) 6:45 – 7:15 p.m., Kaboun Kan Prid Pre Prid (Whistling) 6:15 p.m., Tai rom Kyao Rak (Tree’s Shadow) 1:30 – 2:30 p.m., Boon Loon Fa Ha Sheewit (Search for Fortune) 1:30 – 2:30 p.m., Soi Sam Siam Square (Siam Square Road) 6:45 – 7:15 p.m., Nang Sao Sapparue (Missy Undertaker) 1:30 – 2:30 p.m., and Koo Lab Tad Ped (Rose and Diamond) 7:15 p.m.. **Sat-Sun** such as Nai Kra Jok (Ordinary Man), 11:00 – 11:45 am, Dae Jang Kuem (lady in Chinese Royal Palace) 6:30-8:00 p.m., Mon Rak Lottery (Love Lottery) 4:00-4:45 p.m., Win Yan Haroehan (Soul) 4:55 – 5:40 p.m., Panyachon Kon Klow (Disguised maid) 4:55 – 5:40 p.m..

Late evening and midnight dramas: Dramas broadcast during 8:00p.m. and midnight: Mon-Tues such as Lady Yaowaraj (Lady ‘s Chinese Cook) 8:20 – 10:15 p.m., J Dan Chan Rak Ter (J Dan I love You) 8:20 – 10:05 p.m., Kulab See Dam (Black Roses) 8:20 – 10:05 p.m., Ter Kae Doung Jai (My Heart) 8:30 – 9:50 p.m.,

Nan Bap (Sin) 8:30 – 9:50 p.m., Rak Tid Lob (Minus Love) 8:25 – 9:50 p.m., Noew Sai Tai Fa (Sand and Sky) 8:30 p.m.. **Wed-Thurs** such as Poo Ying Chan Noun (First Class Ladies) 8:20 – 10:05 p.m., Ra Beang Rak (Love Corridor) 8:20 – 10:05 p.m., Klin Klaw Tam Nak Kao (White Castle) 8:20 - 10:05 p.m., Pan Din Huo Jai (Land of Heart) 8:20 – 9:50 p.m., Sai Sueb Sai SaDue (Detective) 8:30 – 9:50 p.m., Song Rao Nirandon (Forever Love) 8:30 – 9:50 p.m., Rung Keang Dao (Rainbow at Stars) 8:30 – 9:50 p.m.. **Fri-Sun** such as Ban Tuek Jak Look Poo Chai (Diary) 8:20 – 10:05 p.m., Rak Kong Nai Dokmai (My Girl) 8:20 – 9:50 p.m., Jao Baw Kon Klow (Chef) 8:20 – 9:50 p.m., Sapai Part-Time (Part-Time Wife) 8:30 – 9:50 p.m., Rak Kong Nai Dok Mai (Mr in Love) 8:30 – 9:50 p.m., Kadee Ded Hed Hang Rak (Detective Causes Love) 8:25 – 9:50 p.m..

Action-adventures/crimes/detective/Western/featured films: All international films shown before noon, afternoon and evening Chinese movies.

Situation comedy/stand-alone comedy/other comedies: Deaw Microphone, PraRam-Kaw Café, Kon-Bai-Krai-Kred (Relax Before Noon).

Reality show/documentary: Fan-Tee-Pen-Jing (Dream Comes True), Chee-Wit-Mai-Sin-Wang (Don't Give Up), Perd-Len-Song-Lok (Eyes Open Wide).

News and current Affairs: Lok-Yam-Chow (Morning News), Rem-Low-Chow-Nee (This Morning's Stories), Kao-Wan-Mai (Today's News).

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