

DISH SOAP, ENGINE OIL, SEX AND THE INTERNET:

GENDER IN

TELEVISION COMMERCIALS

THESIS

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ABSTRACT

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Television is a primary medium advertisers use to sell products and services through commercials and, commercials have the secondary effect of acting as socializing agents for viewers. Moreover, studies have shown that, despite gains made by women in the labor force, gender roles portrayed in commercials have not changed in the past twenty years. In some respects, data in this study concur with these previous studies. However, this study also analyzes gender roles in Internet-related commercials, something that has not been done before. The results from the Internet-related commercials offer interesting alternatives to the findings for other types of commercials. Deviating from past advertising practices, gender role stereotypes were absent from the Internet-related commercials in this study. In other words, men and women were portrayed equally in terms of product authority and use.

INTRODUCTION

Television is watched by all kinds of people regardless of race, creed, national origin, social class, sex, or age and reaches approximately ninety-five percent of all American homes (MacArthur and Resko 1975). Couple this with the fact that the amount of television watched by the average American has been increasing since the invention of the television (Bretl and Cantor 1988) and you begin to realize the significance of the impact that television has on the culture of a society. In one week, the typical American watches an average of more than thirty hours of television and sees over five hundred commercials (Kaufman 1999). A commercial is a highly condensed form of communication that must be easy to understand in order to be effective (Manstead and McCulloch 1981). In the constant barrage of commercial messages that Americans are exposed to daily, advertisers often present social ideals, relying on stereotypes rather than life as it is (Lafky et al. 1996), and “[there] is some speculation that the impact of television upon social behavior may be greatest during commercials” (Rak and McMullen 1987:26).

To expand upon this, many mass media messages reflect prevailing cultural stereotypes regarding male and female gender roles. For example, commercials show women primarily as housewives and mothers or as glamorous creatures interested mainly in being clean and physically attractive. Men are most often shown either working at jobs outside the home or being pampered at home by their wives (Mamay and Simpson 1981:1223). More pointedly, feminist scholars, political activists, socially conscious

consumers, and media practitioners have all expressed concern about the negative effects of female gender role stereotypes. For instance, of concern are commercials in which women are shown as subservient to men or as engaged in activities having little value to society (Lafky, et al. 1996). Furthermore, commercials provide a manageable unit of analysis because they are made up of a highly condensed form of information “which tends to be selectively responsive to aspects of the surrounding culture and are usually repeated many times, so that most viewers are likely to encounter them, probably more than once” (Neto and Pinto 1998:154).

Specific only to this study is the separate analysis of commercials in which the Internet is the advertised product. To date, there have not been any studies conducted which explore this particular area of advertising. This is because an accurate demographic profile of the “Internet community” is hard to find. Given that the Internet is relatively new, there are no devices in existence that accurately keep track of the demographics of the people using the Internet, and rightly so. The anonymity of Internet use is what makes it an interesting aspect to study in advertising. With no solid demographics to use as a base, advertisers are at a loss as to what particular group to aim their commercials at because, as a product, the Internet is not specific to one sex over the other. In a sense, men and women do not differ in their use of the Internet, and as such, do not differ in the types of benefits they receive from use. To realize, however, the relevance of this statement, one must first be cognizant of the economic and social advances women have made in America, as well as understand the history and nature of the Internet. The next chapter will shed some light on both.

CHAPTER I

HISTORY

Part One: The History of Women in the American Economy

As a social group in America, women have had their ups and downs regarding social and economic status. Beginning in the seventeenth century, prior to the development of the industrial market, the work roles engaged in by men and women were discussed primarily in terms of the agricultural economy. The labor provided by women was economically important and lauded by writers in that era. Research has shown, however, that their economic value did not guarantee women equal political and social status with men (Degler 1980).

With the introduction of industrialization, women became even more important in terms of the value of their labor. By 1860 one-half of America's labor force, including women, was involved in manufacturing. In fact, historians have speculated that this time period represented a marked devaluation in occupations not directly supportive of manufacturing, such as agriculture. More pointedly, with the growth of capitalism and its value on wages as a measure of worth, the importance of non-paid labor involved in the production of goods within the home was diminished. Alternatively, wives were called on more to provide support services for their paid-labor husbands, such as managing the household and caring for the children (Folbre and Wagman 1993).

In addition, the labor provided by women participating in the labor force of the new market economy was not valued as much as the labor provided by men. For instance, in the textile industry, which primarily employed women, men were paid a higher wage for comparable work. In many cases, women who went to the cities looking for industry jobs often turned to prostitution for financial reasons and as a way to escape the lower wages paid to women in the mills (Jacobsen 1998).

Furthermore, in the period from 1860 to 1890, there was a shortage of young women in America, which meant that they had little time before marriage to work in the labor market or pursue higher education. The sex ratio was offset by the fact that many male migrant workers came to America, leaving their families in their home countries. For its part, the Civil War lessened the number of wage-earning men and women once again entered the labor market in great numbers. By this time, unions had begun to form in the large, industrialized cities and unfortunately, women did not benefit from them nor were they particularly welcomed to join. Instead, women were seen as low-wage competition to the men. After years of rejection, women laborers finally started their own unions. Their organization did little, however, to further their plight of social and economic equality with men. In fact, in the time span from 1890 to 1900, the weekly wage for women dropped fifty cents while that of the men increased fifty cents (Abbott 1969).

At the turn of the century, sparked by a rise in literacy, concern over social differences, such as gender differences, began to spread. Also during this time, the service sector became an increasingly important area of employment for women. By the

1920s, the majority of female laborers in the manufacturing industry had moved into the service industry, where wages and working conditions were better (Jacobsen 1998).

Through the Great Depression and into World War II, the economic demographics shifted again, this time employing women as replacements for men who were fighting in the war. Women whose husbands were fighting also entered the job market at this time due to their need for money and a general lack of at-home responsibilities in the absence of their husbands. At this same time, non-family childcare became available, on a twenty-four hour basis in some cases, so that women could work fulltime. Wages for women rose slightly in relation to those of men as sex segregation lessened for certain jobs and more women took on higher-paying manufacturing jobs. Once the war ended and men returned home, women were let go from their jobs and simply told to return to the role of housewife and mother (Goldin 1990).

Many women, however, stayed at work, bolstering their rate of participation in the market labor force. In fact, the labor force participation rates for women and men have been converging since 1948 as the male rate has declined and the female rate has risen. It should be noted, however, that the male rate is still the higher of the two rates (Jacobsen 1998:37).

Data collected after World War II indicated that more and more married women were entering the labor force. For example, the percentage of married women, including those with children, participating in the labor force has steadily increased from approximately twenty percent in 1947 to just under sixty percent by 1995. It is this group which has shown the most change in the past fifty years. More specifically, the percentage of married women in the labor force with preschool-aged children has tripled

since 1948. Add to this the fact that the percentage of unmarried women participating in the labor force has remained steady at seventy percent since 1947 and it becomes clear that more women are entering the labor force than leaving it. On the other hand, the percentage of married men in the labor force has been slowly dropping since 1948, losing almost ten percent by 1995 (Jacobsen 1998:109).

Research has shown that educational achievement has impacted the composition of the labor force in the past few decades as well. For instance, from 1970 to 1995, the rates for women participating in the labor force who have at least graduated from high school have been steadily increasing. The rate for women who are high school dropouts has remained constant between forty and forty-five percent in this time period. As a point of interest, the rates of participation for men with varying levels of educational achievement have been dropping slightly over the past thirty years (Jacobsen 1998:108).

Yet another strong explanation for the shift in the labor force makeup is the greater demand for clerical and service oriented labor rather than manual labor. Women could now work in jobs in which they possessed the same or better level of skill than men. Given this change, more job opportunities opened up for women. The downside was that they were in direct competition with men (Oppenheimer 1976).

Furthermore, gender differences in the labor force are explicitly expressed in the pay differences between men and women over the last thirty years. For example, in 1970, the median income for men was \$9,184, while the median income for women was \$5,440 dollars. In other words, women earned 59 cents to every dollar that men earned. From 1970 to 1999, however, the median income for women increased by nearly twenty-

five percent, meaning that for every dollar than men earned, women earned 73 cents (U.S. Census Bureau 2001).

Turning now to advertising, studies have demonstrated that television commercials in particular have failed to acknowledge the gender shift in the labor force and the fact that women are closing the gap in the wage ratio with men. As will be demonstrated in a review of the literature, the number one occupation for women in commercials aired on television from the 1970s until 1999 is that of homemaker. In other words, women on television are portrayed in non-paid labor positions even though almost sixty percent of American women presently engage in paid labor outside the home.

Finally, the point to be made at this juncture is not that there aren't women working fulltime as homemakers. However, there are fewer fulltime housewives and perhaps more full- and part-time "housedads" than in past years. Advertising has failed to capture this notion, relying on old advertising ploys from a time when the traditional idea of a family, with its fulltime housewife and working husband, was more of a reality than it is today.

Leaving the history of women, we now turn to the comparatively brief history of the Internet. Upon first glance, one might think that the two histories appear to have nothing to do with one another, and that person would be right. While it is true that it was primarily men who developed the technology for the Internet, in its modern-day incarnation the Internet is blind to gender. In other words, there is no event in the history of the Internet, as will be established, that would lead the casual observer to the conclusion that one sex would benefit more than the other from its use.

Part Two: The History of the Internet

The Internet of today has its developmental roots in the launching of Sputnik, the first artificial earth satellite, by the now former USSR in 1957. Eager to play catch up, the United States formed the Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA) within the Department of Defense to establish the nation as a leader in military science and technology (Zakon 2001).

In 1968, Bolt Beranek and Newman, Inc. (BBN) secured a million-dollar contract with ARPA to design and produce what became the foundation for the Internet. In another first for BBN, three years later employee Ray Tomlinson invented an e-mail program that could send out messages over a computer network. Previously, computers could only communicate on the “intranet,” or computers with which they shared a network. By combining this same technology and a file transfer program, Tomlinson had made “Internet” communication, or communication outside of a computer’s network, possible. The following year Tomlinson added the now familiar “@” symbol to e-mail addresses because of the symbol’s “at” meaning. In July of 1972, a man named Larry Roberts wrote the first e-mail management program to list, selectively read, file, forward, and respond to messages. Later that same year, the first computer-to-computer chat took place between a computer based at Stanford University and one at BBN (Zakon 2001). These first baby steps led to a technological burst in the 1970s that revolutionized the world.

In 1973, the American Internet, known as ARPANET, got its first international connection to the University of London by way of Norway’s Internet, which was called NORSAR. A study conducted by ARPA that year found that e-mail comprised seventy-

five percent of ARPANET's traffic. By 1974, BBN released a commercial version of ARPANET called Telnet. This program is still in use in many government agencies and universities today. Even the Queen of England, Elizabeth II, got on the Internet bandwagon when in 1976 she sent out her first e-mail from the Royal Signals and Radar Establishment (Zakon 2001).

In 1983, the first desktop computers were put into use, many of which had the ability to connect to the fledgling Internet. On March 15, 1985 the first domain name was registered as Symbolics.com. Other business and universities began to follow suit, registering such domain names as ucla.edu, mit.edu, and rice.edu (Zakon 2001). More and more the Internet was moving away from government toward commercialism.

Due to this fact, ARPANET was decommissioned at the start of the 1990s and the first commercial provider of Internet dial-up access went online at world.std.com. France released the World Wide Web (WWW or web) and a year later, a primitive "web" search tool, named Gopher after the University of Minnesota's mascot, was released. It used complicated keystroke commands for navigation around the new web. However, in 1992 Veronica was released by the University of Nevada. This search tool was like Gopher, but unlike Gopher users, Veronica users navigated using the four arrow keys on their keyboards (Zakon 2001). This was the beginning of what will become the graphic interface between user and computer that will eventually lead to the invention of the mouse. The mouse in turn made navigating the web much more efficient.

Interestingly, in 1992, the phrase "surfing the Internet" was coined by Jean Armour Polly and the White House and President of the United States went online at whitehouse.gov. Businesses and media began to take interest in the web when WWW

service traffic exploded at a 341, 634% annual growth rate (Zakon 2001). At this rate, it was plausible to assume that every American would soon be surfing the net.

In 1994, the Internet celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary. Shopping malls had now begun to appear on the web and a user was even able to order a pizza online from Pizza Hut. In 1995, the first traditional online dial-up services such as America Online, CompuServe, and Prodigy, began offering Internet access to the Every-American. In 1996, these same services suffered service outages due to their inability to handle the traffic caused by the exponentially growing number of Internet users (Zakon 2001).

In recent years, Internet Service Providers (ISP) have improved their technology and service. In turn, computers have been engineered more toward Internet use with faster connections and central processors. So many people are on the web nowadays that it is hard to gather demographic information that will accurately reflect the online community. This is both a blessing and a curse. For instance, gender and racial biases all but disappear on the web. A user has the choice of whether or not to disclose their identities to other users. On the other hand, the number of male and female users is hard to pinpoint because so many new users join everyday. However, a recent online study found that the number of men using the Internet is only slightly higher than the number of women (GTRC 1998). This could be due to a number of reasons.

First of all, the study was based on data provided by volunteer online participants. By chance it is possible to have a sample of respondents split almost equally down the gender lines even if the population of Internet users are not proportionate in this way. On the other hand, the data in this sample could be representative of the online population, meaning that men and women use the Internet in equal numbers. Furthermore, this

would support the assumption that men and women equal in number in the Internet community.

Finally, with this assumption in mind, which sex will be used more often, and therefore presented as an authority, in Internet commercials? Advertisers risk alienating the female Internet users in their audiences by using primarily male spokespersons for the Internet. This would mean a loss of profits. Theoretically, the advertiser would appeal to both sexes by presenting each equally as spokespersons for, and users of, the Internet, thus maximizing profits. As the next chapter will illustrate, however, studies in advertising have shown that product-type and usage has little to do with which sex is chosen to front a product.

CHAPTER II

ADVERTISING

A Brief History of Advertising

The American Marketing Association defines advertising as any paid form of presentation and promotion of ideas, goods, or services by an identified sponsor (Agee, Phillip, and Emery 1985). The practice itself is as old as civilization. For example, in the ruins of ancient Egypt, explorers have found “advertisements” made on papyrus posters that offer rewards for runaway slaves. Archaeologists digging in the Roman city of Pompeii have found advertisements painted on the walls that say: “Vote for Cicero, the friend of the people.” Similarly, in early Greek and Roman days, business establishments hung signboards on their premises to advertise sales (Presbrey 1930).

With the invention of “movable type accelerated printing in the mid-fifteenth century, handbills, posters, and later newspapers were used in increasing quantities to advertise products” (Agee et al. 1985:313). Newspapers were used to a greater extent when trade began to flourish in the metropolitan centers when America was still a republic. Almost all selling was local until about 1840, when the use of the railroad system allowed businesses to ship their products to people who lived far from the manufacturing site. To broaden their markets, these same businesses utilized national newspapers and magazines to advertise their products (Ulanoff 1977). Volney B. Palmer organized the first advertising agency in the United States around the year of 1840. His

agency, and those that followed, did not prepare copy, but instead served as representatives to publishers by selling space in publications to businesses wanting to advertise. By 1860, there were about thirty agencies that sold space in publications to more than four thousand businesses (Ulanoff 1977).

Due to the fact, however, that advertising was deceptive and extremely exaggerated, a strong movement to regulate the industry was begun in the 1910s. This regulation involved both federal and state laws, as well as control systems started by responsible advertising leaders. The 1920s, on the other hand, were characterized by the advent of radio and increased improvement in the techniques of advertising. In the 1930s, advertising struggled, as did most industries, through the Depression, and also dealt with organized consumer objections to improper practices of the day. Things began to improve when, after World War II, the economy boomed and produced growth in all areas of advertising (Agee, et al. 1985:314-5).

With the arrival of television, which was described by industry leaders as “the most important element affecting advertising in the twentieth century,” there was an accelerated trend toward larger agencies and an increase in the complexities related to advertising (Agee et al. 1985:315). Television could not have come about at a more opportune time, as advertisers were introducing hundreds of new products to eager consumers in the viewing audience. Since that time, advertising ideas and the money spent on them have both continued to grow at record pace (Dunn and Barban 1978).

Today, as in decades past, advertising relies heavily on the use of humor and wit to sell products. Some of the most creative advertising campaigns are not aired in America because their brand of humor or wit violates the Federal Communication

Commission's (FCC) standards for broadcast television. Some critics of the use of humor and wit argue that these types of campaigns do not sell products, that they only entertain. For example, humorous Alka-Seltzer commercials, while entertaining, did not increase sales of the product. On the other hand, Pepto-Bismol commercials that lacked humor, depicting a man in pain due to heartburn, increased sales of the product (Burton and Ryan 1980). At present, practitioners in the industry are still divided as to how a campaign should be designed, including the use of humor.

In essence, advertising works because it manipulates reality. The world on television is a trumped-up version of reality meant to hold the attention of the viewer. Advertisers are aware of the fact that they hold the attention of a great number of viewers, especially in the case of popular television shows. Millions of viewers are courted by advertisers every time a show goes to a commercial break. It is no wonder, then, that many social scientists consider television to be one of the largest mediums of socialization in existence.

Sociology And Mass Communication

When we are born, we are not automatically members of the society to which our parents belong. We must be socialized and learn how to become members by way of our parents and other socializing institutions, such as schools, churches, and our peers (Berger and Luckmann 1967). We grow constantly through social interaction with other people. As Charon (1996) states:

Our ideas are anchored in our group life. We seek support for what we believe; we test our ideas out with each other; we accept ideas that are supported by those people with whom we interact and who are important to us. (p. 96)

A phrase that captures this idea is the “social construction of reality.” While some sociologists argue that a concrete reality does exist “somewhere out there” beyond human perception, others assert that each person constructs their reality through interacting with others, making one person’s reality different from that of the next. For example, what a businessman defines as real is entirely different from what a Tibetan monk defines as real (Berger and Luckmann 1967). In other words, reality is subjective.

One component in the construction of a subjective reality is culture. Culture is the perspective on the world that people share as they interact (Charon 1996). Children are exposed to culture by their parents, who are their first teachers. From them they learn morals, what is socially or culturally acceptable and conversely what is taboo. Later institutions of socialization include schools, churches, friends, and as stated, television. The lesson taught by all is to belong. Charon asserts that if we want to belong, we must come to believe in the culture we learn. Belief is encouraged by the fact that social [institutions] are important in shaping one’s identity. The ideas shared in social institutions permeate our lives, become part of our minds, and are basic to our acts (1996:96).

Symbolic interactionism, which places an emphasis on the critical role of language in shaping a society, is related to the social construction of reality. Language is defined as “an abstract system of word meanings and symbols for all aspects of culture. It includes speech, written characters, numerals, gestures and other nonverbal communication” (Schaefer 2000:52). Most, if not all, interaction in society is based on language. As DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach (1982) explain:

Society can best be thought of as a system of meanings. For individuals, participation in the shared meanings linked to the symbols of a language is the

interpersonal activity from which emerges stable and commonly understood expectations that guide behavior into predictable patterns (p. 21).

In other words, through interaction, people come to agree on common definitions of physical and social aspects within society.

Furthermore, “both social and physical realities are labeled constructions of meanings; as a consequence of people individually and collectively participating in symbolic interaction, their interpretations of reality are both socially conventionalized and individually internalized” (Defleur and Ball-Rokeach 1982:21). Put simply, using language through interaction, people come to collectively create a reality for their society and internalize this creation as part of their individual identity. For example, I am a member of the student community. The reality that I share with other members of this community is the academic-based pursuit of knowledge in an institution of higher learning. I internalize this reality, so therefore I identify myself as a student.

To illustrate further, “individual conduct in a given situation is guided by the labels and meanings people associate with that situation; thus, behavior is not an automatic response to stimuli of external origin but is a product of subjective constructions about self, others, and the social requirements of the situations” (Defleur and Ball-Rokeach 1982:21). Once again using the student example, because I am a student, I know that when I am in a library, I should remain quiet and considerate of other patrons. I am not reacting to the building itself, but instead to the label, and meaning behind the label, of that building. If I step out of line by yelling, in essence breaking the rules, I will be reprimanded by my fellow patrons.

The Intersection of Sociology and Advertising

Finally, how do these two sociological theories relate to mass communication, specifically advertising? The answer, according to DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach (1982):

The media are a central part of the communication processes of modern societies. They provide in their portrayals and accounts interpretations of reality that their audiences internalize. People can develop subjective and shared constructions of reality from what they read, hear, or view. Thus, their personal and social behavior can be shaped in part by media-provided interpretations of social events and issues concerning which people have few alternative sources of information. (p. 22)

For instance, someone who watches television during the daytime may come to see all women as primarily concerned with clean bathrooms and kitchens and smooth skin. In other words, in their constructed reality, this is how women exist. However, if this person is a woman and has not previously been concerned with smooth skin, advertising is now telling her that to be a real woman, she must make this a priority. If the advertisement works, the woman goes out and buys the advertised product. If it fails, then there is always the next advertisement after it. Women, however, are not the only targets of advertising ploys. Men and children are also targeted in campaigns to sell products that define the “Everyman” and “Everychild,” from the perfect razor to the essential after-school snack.

Related to this is the fact that products aren’t the only commodities being “sold” in commercials. One study demonstrated that young children base their early ideas of correct gender-determined behavior on that displayed in commercials. This same study noted that pre-school aged children often cannot differentiate between reality and what is shown on television (Signorielli 1990).

Given this evidence, many social scientists have committed themselves to discovering whether society influences advertising or advertising influences society. Many have found that the road goes both ways, but none have determined which has more sway over the other. If advertising has a hand in shaping society, then people in turn are constructing their realities on a shaky foundation. They are left with a false consciousness of who they are and what the world is like. For example, gender and racial stereotypes are presented as fact by advertisers, in turn shaping the way people interact with one another in society. In a way, giving in to advertising represents conformity to a norm in American society. Deviation from this norm can result in sanctions, as conformity is valued above all other types of group behavior. Simply put, advertisers have the power to coordinate and control the actions of the masses, even if audience members aren't ready to admit this.

The Nature of Advertising

Advertising has a dual nature in that it is at once both omnipresent and unseen. As a large part of the environment in which we live, it both reflects and affects our lifestyles and plays a substantial social role (Agee et al.1985). Yet, advertising is so pervasive that we are usually oblivious to its presence. Advertising, "more than art, literature, or editorials, allows us to track our sociological history: the rise and fall of fads, crazes, and social movements; political issues of the times; changing interests and tastes in clothes, entertainment, vices, and food; and scenes of social life as they were lived" (Cortese 1999:3). The only other social institution that performed this arduous task was the Roman Catholic Church during the early Renaissance (Cortese 1999).

A common misconception about advertising is that it changes our desires by replacing them with new ones. Instead, it uncovers them and helps us achieve them by offering a product or service. Advertising co-opts whatever is current in popular culture, which has the effect of hooking the consumer and legitimizing the product (Cortese 1999). In other words, advertisers are constantly looking to society for their next big product. In turn, society is looking to advertisers for their next big fad. This relationship is a vicious cycle in which each side exerts a fluctuating amount of influence over the other.

Today, television is the primary medium of advertising. (Though, due to its rapid growth and popularity, the Internet in the very near future may overtake television as the primary medium of advertising.) On television, programs are no more than scheduled interruptions sandwiched between commercials. In fact, advertising agencies that make the commercials are the television networks' real censors. They employ people as watchdogs to protect the sponsors, rather than the viewers, by making sure that program content does not conflict with or contradict the image of the advertised product (Cortese 1999).

Interestingly, this practice is not as trite as it may sound. Advertising is necessary to society because without it people could not afford to produce television programs such as sitcoms and dramas. Business would cease and the economy would stagnate. The people who serve as watchdogs in advertising do so because they are protecting a formula that works: successful advertising campaigns can garner a business millions of dollars in revenue. However, the downside of this formula is that it relies on the use of stereotypes to sell products, which will be outlined in the review of past literature.

The Mechanics of Advertising

There are a number of key factors that compose the average television commercial. Of course the product is necessary, as well as a spokesperson and setting. These three components are important to the success or failure of a campaign and as such are not chosen without some kind of informed forethought on the part of the advertisers. This would mean, for example, that the use of one sex over the other as a spokesperson for a product was planned. In a sense, the advertisers can be held accountable for the images they sell alongside their products.

To begin, the spokesperson, or person in a commercial who is responsible for selling the advertised product, is labeled by researchers as the central figure. Most past research has defined the central figure as the person who either has a speaking role or the most on-screen time and who is not a child or an imaginary figure. For commercials with multiple central figures, the researchers analyzed the two most prominent figures. In addition, most researchers make a distinction between the central figure and the voiceover. It should be noted that while the results from these studies were taken from commercials analyzed some time ago, very little about advertisements has changed from then until today. For example, many studies have discovered that males only slightly more than females tend to be central figures in commercials (MacArthur and Resko 1975; O'Donnell and O'Donnell 1978; Ferrante, Haynes, and Kingsley 1988; Bretl and Cantor 1988; Lovdal 1989; Craig 1992). With this in mind, when the commercials are separated according to the time of day in which they air, men tend to appear more often than women in prime time commercials (Lovdal 1989:720) while women tend to appear most often in daytime commercials (Craig 1992:203).

Within the scripting of the commercial, central figures are presented in one of two ways: either product-user or product-authority. MacArthur and Resko (1975) originally reported that “not only were there significantly more male than female central figures, but the basis of credibility for male and female central figures differed” (p. 214). Seventy percent of males and fourteen percent of females were portrayed as authorities with the remainder of both groups portrayed as product-users. They also observed that there was a general and consistent tendency for male central figures to appear as authorities on products that were used primarily by women. They offer the example that, while males comprised only sixteen percent of home product users, they accounted for eighty-six percent of the authorities on these products (MacArthur and Resko 1975:216). Furthermore, thirteen years after this study, Bretl and Cantor (1988) also reported a similar statistically significant difference between males and females regarding their basis of credibility. Men were more often presented as authorities while women were more often portrayed product-users.

Perhaps the most important aspect to document when studying commercials is the role played by the central figure. In 1972, the most frequent role that was recorded for female central figures was that of sex object or decoration with one-third of the entire sample, followed by wife or mother with one-fifth of the sample. The frequency with which women were portrayed as sex objects varied according to which sex generally bought the advertised product. For example, in commercials for products usually bought by men, one half of the female central figures were coded as sex objects, while in commercials for products bought by both sexes, one-fourth of the female central figures were coded as such (Dominick and Rauch 1972:264). In 1975, a similar study found that

when compared with males, female central figures were more apt than males to be portrayed in a role that defined them in terms of their relationships with others: spouse, parent, girlfriend or housewife. Males, on the other hand, were more likely than females to be portrayed in a role that defines them independently of others: worker, professional, celebrity, or interviewer (MacArthur and Resko 1975:214). Consequently, almost fifteen years later, the most common role for female central figures is the wife or mother role while for male central figures it is husband or father (Ferrante, et al. 1988:234).

Researchers assume that the time of day in which a commercial is shown reflects the viewing audience composition and what advertisers believe viewers are doing or thinking about at different viewing hours (Mamay and Simpson 1981:1226). By advertising standards, there are relatively few men at home during the day given the fact that central figures in daytime commercials are primarily women. This would result in the portrayal of different gender roles at different times of the day. For example, one study found that as the day progressed, the portrayal by the female central figure of the homemaker role drops from almost sixty percent in the morning to ten percent in the evening. The researchers offer the explanation that the evening is when most homemakers can relax and the audience is also comprised of men and working women (Mamay and Simpson 1981:1227). Craig (1992), however, found that female as well as male central figures were much more likely to portray spouses or parents during the day as opposed to the evening.

Apart from familial and related roles, some researchers also examined occupational roles. Dominick and Rauch (1972) found that for female central figures, apart from the housewife or mother role, the occupations of stewardess, celebrity, cook,

secretary, businesswoman, and teacher were each recorded, though in less than ten percent of the sample. For male central figures, the most common occupations were professional athlete, celebrity, construction worker, businessman, pilot, mechanic, criminal and lawyer. Another study reported that twenty-one percent of male characters as opposed to eleven percent of female characters were depicted in high-status occupations while fourteen percent of male versus nine percent of females were shown with other occupations. In addition, females were significantly more likely than males to be depicted without an occupation (Bretl and Cantor 1988:601).

Inasmuch as the central figure's role influences the setting or location in a commercial, it is important to analyze the latter as well. Some thirty years ago, researchers Dominick and Rauch (1972) found that the most common setting for a female central figure was inside the home with the majority of the sample set in a room other than the kitchen with the remainder set in the kitchen. Males, on the other hand, were most commonly set outdoors. Only a small percentage of both males and females were set in a business. In the years following, as late as 1999, these findings remain relevant with men still set away from home while women are still in the house (MacArthur and Resko 1975; O'Donnell and O'Donnell 1978; Mamay and Simpson 1981; Bretl and Cantor 1988; Lovdal 1989; Craig 1992; Kaufman 1999).

Given the fact that most researchers recorded female central figures as set in the home, they further split this categorization to discover which area of the home was most often used. The most common rooms within the home used as settings were the kitchen and the bathroom. For instance, female central figures are often seen in the bathroom applying products to themselves, such as soap or shampoo, or they are shown in the

kitchen demonstrating the latest cleaning product. Interestingly, this same study reported that, even when women are shown outside of the home, it is often at the store where they are buying household products (Mamay and Simpson 1981:1230).

Moving on, many advertisers write arguments to be given by the central figure in support of the product, as a bid to get viewers to buy it. Examples of an argument given by a central figure are, “Buy this dietary supplement because it contains calcium to increase bone density,” or “Buy this shampoo because celebrities use it.” The first argument offers scientific data to sway the viewer. The second argument does not contain scientific data, instead relying on popularity to sell the product. While only a handful of researchers have chosen to study the type of argument given, their results are consistent across the board. To illustrate this point, MacArthur and Resko (1975) report that male central figures were significantly more likely than females to give any type of argument, scientific or otherwise. In fact, thirty percent of the female central figures gave no argument at all as compared with only six percent of male central figures (p. 215). In 1988, the number of females who gave no argument rose only slightly while male central figures that gave no argument increased to almost forty percent. More pointedly, with regard to type of argument, these same researchers report that one-third of male central figures gave scientific arguments and one-third gave non-scientific. As for the female central figures who gave arguments, they are on par with the males concerning the proportion of scientific and non-scientific arguments (Bretl and Cantor 1988:605).

In much the same way that central figures offer arguments for products, they also demonstrate the rewards for using certain products. Product authorities, on the one hand, offer rewards to viewers for product use. For instance, one such reward might be

popularity with the opposite sex in return for the use of a particular deodorant. Product-users, on the other hand, are shown reaping rewards. They serve as examples for what a viewer could reap if they used a product. It follows that the type of reward does not differ based on whether they are offered by an authority figure or reaped by a product-user. For example, one study found that for central figures that acted as product authorities, males and females did not differ in the rewards they offered to the viewer, such as social approval, family approval, opposite sex approval, and career advancement. On the other hand, as product-users, female central figures are more likely than males to obtain family and opposite sex approval as a reward while male central figures more frequently obtain the approval of their friends as well as social and career advancement (MacArthur and Resko 1975:215).

Literally, the main object in advertising is the product being sold. For this reason, social researchers studying commercials focus much of their attention on finding out what type of product is associated with the central figure. Thirty years ago, Dominick and Rauch (1972) found that the most common type of products associated with female central figures were personal hygiene products while males were most commonly associated with cars and related automotive products (p. 261).

As noted previously, a large number of female central figures were set in the home and therefore it may be expected that they were also responsible for selling a large number of domestic items. For instance, O'Donnell and O'Donnell (1978) state that despite the fact that approximately an equal number of male and female central figures were presented, women were more likely to represent domestic products, such as household cleaners, food, body products, while males were more likely to represent non-

domestic items (p. 158). Finally, because of the relative newness of the Internet, there have not been any studies done to analyze commercials for the Internet as a product. The goal of this study is to provide new information on the gender roles portrayed in commercials for the Internet as well as update the results for commercials with other types of products. To this end, a sample of commercials was statistically analyzed and interpreted using the method outlined in the next chapter.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The objective of the present study is to analyze gender role portrayals for men and women presented in television commercials. Part of this objective is to update the data from previous studies as well as provide new data for commercials for the Internet. To begin, the sample of commercials coded was drawn from the weekday broadcasts of the Austin, Texas affiliates of the three major American television networks: American Broadcasting Company (ABC), National Broadcasting Company (NBC), and Central Broadcasting System (CBS). Three VCRs were programmed to record each network Wednesday, May 2, 2001 through Friday, May 4, 2001 and Monday, May 7, 2001 through Wednesday, May 9, 2001 from 9:00 a.m. in the morning to 1 a.m. of the next day. (Only one hour of programming was recorded for Wednesday, May 9, 2001 from midnight to 1 a.m.) This resulted in a total of two hundred forty hours available from which to draw a sample of commercials for coding. A mathematical equation was employed to discover the appropriate number of commercials necessary to satisfy a ten percent sample from the total population of broadcast commercials in that time period. By multiplying the average number of commercials each hour (thirty-two per this study) by the number of available hours (two hundred forty), the result is a total of seven thousand six hundred eighty commercials, ten percent of which was taken as a sample.

These seven hundred sixty-eight commercials made up the sample that was viewed and coded and later statistically analyzed. While the sample was not randomly selected, it was stratified according to the programming on each channel (Chart 1, Chart 2, Chart 3). For example, programming classified as *Talk Show* accounted for sixty-one hours or approximately twenty-five percent of the total two hundred forty hours. Therefore, approximately one hundred ninety-five commercials were drawn and coded from shows in this category. This category was further split according to the number of hours each network contributed to the *Talk Show* category. Furthermore, since the programming is the same for each network Monday through Friday from 9 a.m. through 5 p.m., shows that appeared in this time slot were counted five times while original programming, such as sitcoms and one-night-a-week dramas, were counted only once. Once again, using the *Talk Show* category as an example. Approximately seventy-two commercials were coded during ABC talk shows at fifteen commercials per day, please refer to Table 1 in the appendix. (By dividing seventy-two by five and rounding up to account for decimal places, the per-day total for ABC talk shows was calculated.) Approximately eighty-eight commercials were coded from NBC and thirty-two from CBS, respectively, dividing them among the five weekdays as with the ABC commercials. In addition, approximately three commercials were coded during the talk show that appears once on ABC on Friday from 8 p.m. to 9 p.m. When totaled, there are approximately one hundred ninety-five commercials. Any disparity between the mathematical number and the actual number of commercials is due, as mentioned before, to rounding in order to include whole commercials, rather than fractioned commercials. There were nine other categories to which this equation was applied:

Variety: Includes shows which mix categories, such as a talk show that also reports the news or has various segments (e.g. *Martha Stewart's Living*, CBS)

Game Show: Such as *Who Wants to be a Millionaire?*, ABC

News: Local and National News Programs

Entertainment News: Such as *Entertainment Tonight*, ABC

Sitcom: Such as *King of Queens*, CBS

Paid Program

Drama: Such as *ER*, NBC

Soap Opera: Such as *All My Children*, ABC

Movie: In this study, *Air Force One*, ABC

Table 2, Table 3, and Table 4 provide the breakdown of commercials drawn per show for ABC, NBC, and CBS, respectively.

Drawing the sample of commercials was done in a manner in which each hour was divided into four increments of fifteen minutes. The tapes were stopped and played at the start of these increments (00:00, 00:15, 00:30, and 00:45) until the first commercial to meet a number of criteria was broadcast and subsequently coded. This was repeated until the quota was filled for that particular show. Put another way, the tape was played starting at the top of the hour. For example, if a commercial aired after eight minutes passed the hour that fit the criteria, it was coded. Then, the tape was advanced to fifteen minutes after the hour and the process started again. The criteria, adapted primarily from the 1975 study by MacArthur and Resko, as well as other studies (Bretl and Cantor 1988; Kaufman 1999; Mamay and Simpson 1981), are as follows:

1. Only commercials in which there was an adult male or female central figure were coded. Those in which only children or fantasy figures appeared (e.g. animals or cartoon figures) were not included in the final sample.
2. Up to two central figures were coded for each commercial, those being the characters that had the longest speaking or on-screen time.
3. Public service announcements, station identifications, and advertisements for upcoming television, other entertainment events, and theatrical movies were eliminated.
4. Only national commercials were selected and analyzed. No local commercials were used in this analysis.

5. Some commercials appeared more than once and were counted as separate commercials. Exposure to an idea is the foundation of this study, and as such, repeats were included.

Coding

The unit of analysis in this study is the central figure. As such, the time of day the commercial was broadcast, the network, the type of show, and whether or not there was a voiceover were recorded. In addition, for each commercial, the following characteristics of each central figure were coded: sex, basis of credibility, role, location, reward offered or reaped, type of product associated with, and type of argument given by the central figure. Based on the classification system by MacArthur and Resko (1975), the following categories are operationally defined as:

- a. *Central Figures*. Adult males and females playing a major role in a commercial by virtue of either a speaking role or by extended on-screen exposure were classified as central figures. As was stated, no more than two adults were coded as central figures. If there were more than two adults, the two most prominent were coded. When it was unclear which two figures were most central, the coder picked one of each sex.
- b. *Basis for the credibility of the central figure*. The basis for the credibility of a central figure was categorized as *product-user* when he or she was depicted primarily as a user of the product being advertised; the basis of credibility was categorized as *authority* when the central figure was depicted primarily as someone who "has all the facts" about the product being advertised.
- c. *Role of the central figure*. The central figures were also categorized according to the everyday role in which they were cast. The roles coded were the following: spouse, parent, homemaker, worker, professional, real-life celebrity, interviewer, boyfriend/girlfriend, sex object/model, demonstrator and other.
- d. *Location of the central figure*. Central figures were categorized according to the locale in which they were depicted. The locations coded were as follows: kitchen in home, store/business, occupational setting, other room in home, outdoors at home, outdoors away from home, bathroom in home, bar/restaurant, school, studio, car, and other.
- e. *Arguments given by the central figure*. Central figures were categorized according to the type of argument they gave on behalf of a product. Three types of substantiating arguments were coded: scientific arguments consisting of some sort of factual, concrete evidence in favor of using the given product; nonscientific arguments consisting of opinions and personal testimonials in

favor of using the product; and no argument that was coded when the central figure offered no argument but merely displayed a product or was being persuaded by another central figure to use it.

- f. *Rewards offered or reaped by the central figure.* In coding these rewards, a distinction was made between product users and authorities; for product-using central figures, the rewards coded were those reaped by them; for authoritative central figures, the rewards coded were those offered by them. Four main categories of reward were coded: (a) social enhancement, which included the subdivisions of the opposite sex approval, family approval, friends' approval, social advancement, career advancement, and other; (b) self-enhancement, which included the subdivisions of psychological improvement, attractiveness, cleanliness, health, and other; (c) practical rewards that included the subdivisions of saving time, saving labor, and saving money; and (d) other.
- g. *Type of product associated with the central figure.* Central figures were categorized according to the type of product with which they were associated. Four basic product types were coded: (a) body products which included appearance aids, body hygiene-cleanliness products, clothing, and health products; (b) home products that included exterior household goods, interior household goods, household cleaners, and laundry and dish detergents; (c) foodstuffs; and (d) other, which included pet food and products, sporting and recreational items, automobiles and automotive products, insurance, and other. (P. 211-12)

As for the type of product category, distinction was made between commercials for tangible products, such as body, home, and food products, and those for Internet services, labeled hereafter in some instances as “dotcoms.” Dotcoms were further coded as “selling” one of the following online products: research or information, online shopping, services found only online, Internet service provider (ISP), or other.

Another issue in coding is that past studies have ignored the heavy reliance audience demographics in their design and placement of commercials, tending to treat gender portrayals in commercials as fixed and homogeneous within a specific time slot (Craig 1992). Given the fact that commercials were coded from sixteen hours throughout the day, the precise time of day in which the commercial was aired was recorded for each commercial. The commercials were then segmented into “daytime,” airing from 9:00

a.m. to 5:00 p.m. and “nighttime,” airing from 5:00 p.m. to 1:00 a.m. More pointedly, the division was made not for the purposes of comparing day to night, but for comparing men to women within the daytime and nighttime segments.

For this study, there was no test of coder reliability as there was only one coder for all commercials. In addition, there were no comparisons made between networks with regard to commercial differences or similarities. Rather, by sampling three networks, a large sample of commercials was drawn that would stand up to statistical testing and interpretation.

Statistical tests were used to assess the differences in the presentation of male and female central figures in the remaining coded categories: product, argument, reward, setting, voiceover, role, and credibility. Chi square analyses were performed on sex by category-subdivision contingency tables that reflected the frequency of appearance of males and females within each subdivision (MacArthur and Resko 1975). For example, if a table reported that males were used for voiceovers in ninety percent of all coded commercials and females in ten percent, one could assume a statistically significant difference between the two sex groups.

Further comparisons in these areas were made within time periods, such as daytime or nighttime. It should be noted that Chi Square cells that had an observed frequency of five or less were not analyzed.

Finally the research hypotheses that were tested in this study are:

1. Men appear more than women as central figures in commercials.
2. Men are portrayed as product authorities more often than women.
3. Women are portrayed in dependent roles more often than men.

4. Women are portrayed as parents more often than men.
5. Men appear more often than women in a setting away from the home in commercials.
6. Men are more likely to give an argument than women.
7. Men give more scientific arguments than women.
8. Women reap self-enhancement rewards more often than men.
9. Men reap social enhancement rewards more often than women.
10. Men are portrayed with miscellaneous products more often than women.
11. Women are portrayed with home products more often than men.
12. Men are used as voiceovers more often than women.

Hypotheses tested using the data collected from Internet-related commercials are:

13. There is no difference between the number of men and the number of women used as central figures.
14. There is no difference between men and women with regard to their basis of credibility.
15. There is no difference between the number of men and the number of women used as voiceovers.
16. There is no difference between men and women with regard to their portrayed role.
17. There is no difference between men and women with regard to their setting.
18. There is no difference between men and women with regard to their type of argument.
19. There is no difference between men and women with regard to their type of reward.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Part 1: All Commercials

Once the analyses were conducted and the results interpreted, the data revealed some interesting findings. Of the twelve hypotheses tested using all of the coded commercials, seven were supported by the data while the remaining five were not. Deviating from the findings of previous studies, there were more female central figures than there were male. Also, male and female central figures portrayed the role of parents in equal numbers in the commercials. In earlier studies, women usually outnumbered men in this role. Most surprising was the fact that female central figures gave an argument for their product more often than male central figures. This is quite a change when one considers the fact that some studies have reported that no female central figures gave any type of argument.

On the other hand, many of the findings in this study confirm the findings of previous studies regarding some aspects of television commercials. For instance, in spite of the fact that there were more female than male central figure, male central figures were portrayed more often as authorities on products rather than users. Female central figures were most often portrayed as product-users. In addition, female central figures were portrayed more often than male central figures in roles that defined them in terms of their relationships with others: such as spouse or parent. Furthermore, male central figures

were portrayed more often than female central figures in settings away from the home. As for the type of rewards reaped by central figures, female central figures most often reaped rewards of self-enhancement, whereas male central figures reaped rewards of social advancement. Product types were also found to be sex-specific in some instances. For example, female central figures often represented household products, while male central figures most often represented automotive products. Finally, men were used overwhelmingly as voiceovers for commercials in which male and female central figures were present. This reiterates the idea that by having the last word in a commercial, men are the authoritative voice in advertising. Finally, the tests of the individual hypotheses are listed below.

Central Figure. The frequencies of male and female central figures present in all commercials aired from 9:00am until 1:00am (hereafter referred to as overall for simplicity) are displayed in Table 5. In all, there were five hundred and two male central figures and five hundred and seventy-seven female central figures. While the difference between male and female central figures was significant, research hypothesis one was not supported by the data as there were more female central figures than male central figures.

Basis of Credibility for male and Female Central Figures. While there were more female central figures, male central figures accounted for approximately sixty-six percent of product authorities, a difference that is statistically significant (see Table 6). Research hypothesis two is supported.

Role of the Central Figure. Moving on, the most common role portrayed by male as well as female central figures overall, apart from the “Other” classification, was spouse. The difference between male and female central figures in this category was not

significant when all the commercials are considered. However, the analysis did reveal a statistically significant difference between male and female central figures in the classifications of worker as well as sex object/model. Men accounted for almost seventy-five percent of the portrayed workers while women accounted for the same percentage of sex objects and models (Table 7). When the role classifications were collapsed into two-by-two Chi square analyses of dependent and independent roles by central figure, women were significantly more likely to be portrayed in dependent roles, such as spouse, parent, homemaker, and sex object/model (Table 8). Research hypothesis three is supported, however, research hypothesis number four was not supported by the data. There was not a statistically significant difference in the portrayal of parents by central figures.

Location of the Central Figure. Analysis of the commercials revealed that significantly more male than female central figures were set in locations away from the home. These locations include a store or business setting, school, car, and bar or restaurant. Research hypothesis five is supported (Table 9).

Type of Argument Given by the Central Figure. Results for type of argument given by the central figure do not support research hypothesis six. In fact, while the difference is not statistically different, more female central figures gave arguments than male central figures (Table 11). A statistically significant difference fell between male and female central figures that did not give any type of argument with the majority being females.

Additionally, the number of scientific arguments given by male and female central figures overall was too small for statistical analysis. In all, eight male and three female central figures gave scientific arguments for products. Given this development,

research hypothesis seven was not tested. Regarding other types of arguments, female central figures were significantly more likely than male central figures to make nonscientific arguments, though both groups had the highest concentration in the “No argument” category.

Type of Reward Reaped or Offered by the Central Figure. Supporting research hypothesis eight, there was a statistically significant difference between male and female central figures concerning the type of reward reaped for using a product. Female central figures reaped self-enhancement rewards more than male central figures (Table 13). Similarly, male central figures reaped social enhancement rewards more than female central figures, though the difference was not statistically significant. Research hypothesis nine was not supported.

Within the self-enhancement category of reward, female central figures were significantly more likely than male central figures to reap health rewards as well as attractiveness rewards (Table 14). On the other hand, male central figures were significantly more likely than female central figures to offer saving money as a practical reward for using the advertised product. Other categories of rewards offered or reaped presented numbers too small for statistical analysis.

Type of Product Associated with the Central Figure. Male central figures were significantly more likely than female central figures to be shown with miscellaneous products, such as insurance, automobiles, and automotive products (Table 15). Research hypothesis ten is supported. Alternatively, there was a significant difference between male and female central figures as product representative for home products, with female central figures outnumbering male central figures two to one. Research hypothesis

eleven is also supported. Interestingly, the largest split occurred between male and female central figures, twenty percent to eighty percent, respectively, as product representatives for body products. The Internet-related product type was the only category that did not display a statistically significant difference between male and female central figures.

When the product categories are broken into their component parts, appearance aids were greatly over-represented by female central figures (Table 16). In contrast, male central figures were significantly more likely to be product representatives in insurance commercials.

Voiceover. Of one thousand twenty voiceovers, approximately seventy-seven percent are voiced by men, resulting in a statistically significant difference between men and women (Table 17). Research hypothesis twelve is supported by the data. When compared according to the sex of the central figure, males provided the voiceover for three hundred and ten, or seventy-four percent, of female central figures (Table 18). On the contrary, only sixty-five, or nineteen percent, of the male central figures were accompanied by female voiceovers.

Part 2: Daytime And Nighttime Results

The findings recorded for the commercial data after they were split into daytime and nighttime segments tend to conform more to the findings of previous studies than did the commercials as a whole. For instance, during the daytime commercials, women outnumber men as central figures. This is due to the fact that advertisers place commercials during this time period with the assumption that a great majority of their audience will be female. However, male central figures were presented more often than

female central figures as product authorities. Different from previous research is the finding that female central figures gave arguments for their products more often than male central figures. Furthermore, during the daytime commercials, female central figures are most often represented in the role of either demonstrator or real-life celebrity. There is an overall lack of any professional role. Similarly, female central figures are set most often within the home more than any other location. Male central figures are most often found in locations away from the home. Similar to the findings taken from all of the commercials, during daytime commercials, female central figures are most often paired with home products, as well as body products. Male central figures are most often associated with miscellaneous products, such as insurance and automotive products. Similar to the findings for basis of credibility during daytime commercials, male voices were used most often as voiceovers as opposed to females. This was also true for nighttime commercials.

Additional findings from the nighttime commercials, as with the daytime commercials, tend repeat the findings of previous studies. For example, with a mixed-gender viewing audience, nighttime commercials presented more male central figures who also happened to be product authorities more often than female central figures. Different from the daytime findings is the fact that while there are female central figures presented in professional roles, they are significantly outnumbered by male central figures. Also, female and male central figures are set in locations away from the home, whereas during the day, female central figures were set in the home. Finally, as with the daytime commercials, female central figures most often represented home and body products. Male central figures, however, moved out of the miscellaneous category and

most often represented food products. The specific findings for each variable by time segment are listed below.

Central Figure, Daytime. During the designated daytime hours from 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m., there were significantly more female central figures than male central figures, approximately fifty-nine percent to forty-one percent, respectively (Table 5).

Central Figure, Nighttime. From 5:00 p.m. to 1:00 a.m., approximately fifty-five percent of the central figures were male, resulting in a statistically significant difference with the female central figures (Table 5).

Basis of Credibility for Male and Female Central Figures, Daytime. Male central figures outnumbered female central figures two to one in their portrayal of product authorities (Table 6). As product-users, the ratio is switched for male to female central figures. Both differences are statistically significant.

Basis of Credibility for Male and Female Central Figures, Nighttime. Approximately fifty-three percent of the product authorities portrayed in nighttime commercials are male, with the remaining forty-seven percent as female. This difference is statistically significant (Table 6). The split between male and female central figures as product-users is similar, though not statistically significant.

Role of the Central Figure, Daytime. During the daytime commercials, there is a statistically significant difference between male and female central figures in the portrayal of product demonstrators and use of real-life celebrities. In both instances, the majority are women. The category with the highest number of men is the “Other” classification.

Role of the Central Figure, Nighttime. The category “Other” for the role of the central figure is sixty-four percent male and thirty-six percent female, a difference that is statistically significant (Table 7). Though not present in the daytime commercials, a statistically significant difference is found between male and female central figures portraying workers, with male central figures making up eighty-seven percent. Moreover, when role categories are collapsed men are significantly more likely than women to be portrayed in independent roles, while women are significantly more likely to be portrayed in dependent roles (Table 8).

Location of the Central Figure, Daytime. The data reflect that female central figures are significantly more likely than male central figures to be portrayed in locations set within the home (Table 9). Male central figures, on the other hand, are more often portrayed in settings away from the home, though this difference is not statistically significant. In daytime commercials, the setting with the largest number of female central figures is “other room in home,” such as bedroom or living room (Table 10). Male central figures are most often set in a store or business location. Both of these setting differences between male and female central figures are statistically significant.

Location of the Central Figure, Nighttime. During the nighttime commercials, male central figures are significantly more likely than female central figures to be set in locations away from the home, such as a park or other recreational area (Table 9). While this is true, this category also represents the setting with the highest number of women.

Type of Argument Given by the Central Figure, Daytime. Oddly enough, when the categories of type of argument are collapsed, female central figures were significantly more likely than male central figures to give an argument as well as not give an argument

for a product (Table 11). This is explained when the categories are expanded to determine type of argument, revealing that while there is not a statistically significant difference between male and female central figures for scientific argument, there is such a difference for nonscientific arguments, with female central figures giving more of them (Table 12).

Type of Argument Given by the Central Figure, Nighttime. Commercials aired during this period displayed no statistically significant difference between male and female central figures as to whether or not they gave an argument for using the product (Table 11). A relatively small number of male and female central figures gave arguments, with the majority in both groups failing to give any type of argument. Similarly, there were no statistically significant differences between male and female central figures for scientific and nonscientific arguments given (Table 12). Of those who did give an argument, the majority of both male and female central figures gave nonscientific arguments.

Type of Reward Reaped or Offered by the Central Figure, Daytime. The analysis showed that male central figures offered saving money as a reward for using a product more often than female central figures. This difference was statistically significant. On the other hand, female central figures were more likely than male central figures to reap such rewards as attractiveness or health (Table 14).

Type of Reward Reaped or Offered by the Central Figure, Nighttime. As with the daytime commercials, male central figures once again offered saving money as a reward for product use more than female central figures, a difference that was significantly different (Table 14).

Type of Product Associated with the Central Figure, Daytime. There was a statistically significant difference between male and female central figures for type of product associated with the central figure. For instance, female central figures were more likely than male central figures to be product representatives for body and home products. On the contrary, male central figures were significantly more likely to be product representatives for miscellaneous items, such as automobiles and insurance, and other products (Table 15). In the food category, the split between male and female central figures was approximately fifty percent to fifty percent.

Looking at differences within product types, female central figures were significantly more likely than male central figures to represent products for the body such as health or appearance aids. For insurance commercials—found in the miscellaneous categorization—there was a ratio of four men to every one woman, a difference that is statistically significant (Table 16).

Type of Product Associated with the Central Figure, Nighttime. During nighttime commercials, female central figures were significantly more likely than male central figures to be product representatives for body products. Male central figures were significantly more likely to be representatives for food products, miscellaneous products, and other products (Table 15). With the exception of the food product category, these statistically significant differences dissipate when the product categories are further divided for analysis (Table 16).

Voiceover, Daytime. For commercials with male and female central figures, male voiceovers are more likely to be used than female, a difference that is statistically

significant (Table 18). The largest showing of male voiceovers occurs with commercials using female central figures.

Voiceover, Nighttime. In the nighttime commercials, the trend of male voiceovers being used with female central figures continues (Table 18). The next largest group is for female voiceovers paired with female central figures. Finally, both of these stated differences between male and female central figures are statistically significant.

Part 3: Internet Results

When a commercial was coded as selling an Internet-related product, it was not only compared to all other commercials, but was also statistically analyzed in comparison to other Internet commercials. Some of the most interesting findings in this study are found in this area. For instance, there were an equal number of male and female central figures and both groups were evenly portrayed as product authorities as well as users. Furthermore, both male and female central figures reaped the reward of saving money more often than any other type of reward.

On the other hand, some advertising themes continued in the Internet-related commercials. For example, female central figures portrayed spouses more often than male central figures. Additionally, male central figures were more often set in locations away from the home than female central figures. In most cases, female central figures were portrayed using desktop computers in their homes.

Moreover, in some instances, the frequencies within variable sub-categorizations were too small for statistical testing.¹ The results for the remaining sub-categories are

¹ These variable sub-categorizations include: product authority under basis of credibility; all roles except for spouse; central figure location within the home; presence of any type of argument given; all rewards offered and reaped, with the exception of saving money; three out of the four types of products related to the Internet; and, female voiceovers.

reported below. As a reminder, as per the history and review of the literature for the Internet, statements of no statistically significant difference between male and female central figures were chosen as the hypotheses to be tested for the Internet-related commercials.

Central Figure. There was no statistically significant difference between males and females as central figures in Internet commercials. Approximately fifty-six percent were males and forty-four percent were female (Table 5). Therefore, hypothesis thirteen is supported.

Basis of Credibility for Male and Female Central Figures. There was no statistically significant difference between male and female central figures regarding their basis of credibility as product-users. In fact, there were only four more male product-users than female product-users (Table 6). Hypothesis fourteen is also supported by the data.

Role of the Central Figure. Female central figures were significantly more likely than male central figures to portray a spouse in an Internet commercial (Table 7). Approximately seventy percent of the spouses in an Internet commercial were female. As such, hypothesis sixteen is not supported by the data.

Location of the Central Figure. Male central figures were significantly more likely than female central figures to be set in locations away from the home (Table 9). In this instance, hypothesis seventeen is not supported. However, when the data were separated into the different locations in and out of the home, the statistical significance disappears. Interestingly, male and female central figures were equally portrayed in the store or business setting (Table 10).

Type of Argument Given by the Central Figure. There was no statistically significant difference between the number of male and female central figures who did not give any type of argument for the use of the product (Table 11). As such, hypothesis eighteen is supported. Furthermore, neither male nor female central figures gave any type of scientific argument for using the Internet or its related products. Only twelve nonscientific arguments were made with two-thirds made by male central figures (Table 12).

Type of Reward Reaped or Offered by the Central Figure. For male and female central figures, there was no statistically significant difference for their reaping the practical reward of saving money for using an Internet product (Table 14). Hypothesis nineteen is supported by the data.

Voiceover. Finally, there were too few female voiceovers for male or female central figures to analyze. Male voiceovers, however, were employed in approximately fifty percent of the commercials with male central figures and fifty percent in those with female central figures (Table 18). Taking only the male voiceovers into account, hypothesis fifteen is supported.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Discussion

According to the data collected in the present study, some themes in commercials are changing while others remain the same. For instance, one changing theme is that men no longer appear more often than women in commercials as central figures. Nonetheless, this has little bearing when the data also show that little has changed otherwise over the past thirty years concerning the central figure's basis of authority, role, and setting. For instance, men continue to be portrayed as product authorities more often than women. Also, women more than men continue to portray roles that are dependent on others for their definition, such as wife and mother. What's more, men more than women continue to be set in locations away from the home, while women are often more likely than men to be set inside the home. On the other hand, some results from past studies have not been supported by this study. For example, female central figures are more likely than male central figures to give any type of argument, whereas in past research, the opposite has been observed. Also, male and female central figures were found portray the role of parent in equal proportion.

In all, the data illustrate the notion that men are the voice of authority for most products concerned with automobiles, insurance, and saving money. Men are also rarely found in the home, unlike women who are presented as constant house dwellers,

concerned primarily with beauty and cleanliness. In this regard, little has changed in the past two decades.

While no statistical comparisons were made between the daytime and nighttime central figures, some interesting patterns did emerge from the data. For instance, during the daytime, females comprise the majority of the central figures. At night, this proportion switches. This is not immediately evident when looking at the commercials as a whole. Also, across both time periods, male central figures are portrayed as product authorities, even when they are greatly outnumbered by female central figures during the day, a time when most of the products are aimed at women.

Conversely, data on the Internet-related commercials provided for some interesting findings. For example, of the variables that were tested, many came back with no statistically significant differences between male and female central figures. In addition, men and women were presented in equal proportion as product-users for the Internet, something that supports current online demographics. Also, men and women did not differ in the benefit, or type of reward, they received for using the Internet. Further inquiry into the balanced nature of gender within a larger sample of Internet-related commercials could provide some fodder for future research.

So what does it all mean? To reiterate, little has changed in the past thirty years regarding gender roles portrayed in television commercials. The changes that have occurred were merely cosmetic and not significant enough to alter the face of advertising. Women may be equal in number to men as central figures, but beyond that point they are relegated to portraying aspects of antiquated gender roles that were common a few decades ago. In other words, by relying on the stereotyped gender roles, television

commercials diminish the gains made by women in society and the economy in recent years.

Analysis reveals that women are primarily portrayed in roles that are classified as non-paid labor performed in the home, such as wife or mother. In this respect, contemporary commercials ignore that fact that women have been entering the market labor force as well as closing the wage gap with men over the last forty years. Even if the women are depicted in paid-labor roles, they are often advertising products aimed at homemakers, such as in-home college courses and cleaning aids. A recurring theme in commercials for household and food products shows tired women, presumably wives and mothers, returning home from work only to realize, for example, that they have to either clean their house or cook a meal before the day's work is done. The advertisers present their products as time-savers for these busy women, implying that their only option after a long workday is to clean the house or cook the meal. This model employed in advertising may sell the most products, but it also furthers the ideology that gender inequality is acceptable in a society moving away from it. In other words, it would be the end of gender inequality in advertising, and perhaps profits as well, to suggest that the husbands or children lend a hand in so-called "women's work."

Whereas advertising has changed very little in the past three decades, society has continued to evolve. Case in point: there is more gender equality in society today than thirty years ago. However, it was technology, and not social change, that prompted a recent, albeit small, shift in advertising toward more favorable gender roles. Moreover, portraying gender equality in Internet-related commercials was not a voluntary change, but was instead a blind attempt by advertisers to market their product to a broad audience

without alienating any potential paying customers. Given the relative newness of the Internet and the difficulty in reporting accurate demographics on its users, advertisers are at a loss as to which target demographic to aim their ads at. They remedy this by presenting men and women as equals regarding their use of and benefits from the Internet. Finally, with any hope, these commercials will provide a new paradigm of advertising that is more gender-friendly.

Suggestions for Future Research

In order to compare day commercials to night commercials, an equal number of commercials should be sampled from the designated time periods. If the goal of future research is to compare across time segments, rather than within them as this study did, this suggestion should be observed. In my study, there was a two to one ratio of daytime to nighttime commercials because more commercials are aired during daytime television. Due to the disparate number of commercials, across-time comparisons would not have been statistically sound. Put another way, the tests performed on the data assumed equal distributions, and the only way to meet this assumption was to compare within time segments.

In the same vein as the previous suggestion, future researchers should attempt to analyze a greater number of commercials in the hope that the results will be generalizable to a larger extent than those in the present study. For instance, with the fragmenting of the “Role” variable into eleven subcategories across four different time or product segments of classification, the observed frequencies are rather small for statistical analysis. Therefore, I recommend that a much larger sample be taken either by

increasing the number of hours taped in a day, or by increasing the number of networks or channels recorded.

An interesting follow-up to this study would be to compare within a group the most likely factor of a variable to be present. For instance, within the “Role” variable, find out which role women are statistically most likely to portray. Additionally, by comparing men to men, women to women, and men to women across the daytime and nighttime segments, new themes might emerge.

Finally, the inclusion of commercials for the Internet should be contingent on the availability of these commercials. For example, rather than analyzing commercials from ABC, NBC, and CBS, one might choose to sample commercials from an Internet- or computer-oriented channel or show, such as CNET on the USA Network. A greater number of Internet commercials, therefore, are likely to be aired, giving the researcher a better sample of commercials to statistically analyze.

Conclusion

The goal of conducting this study was to examine gender role portrayals in commercials with a special eye toward Internet commercials. What I found confirmed what many other researchers had found before, with a few minor differences. Overall, advertisers ignore the gains that women have made in society as well as the economy when they rely on old gender role stereotypes to sell their products. However, with the statistical analysis of the Internet commercials, a new layer has been added to the study of gender role portrayals in commercials. To an extent, the Internet-related commercials provide a shifting paradigm of advertising that is more favorable to women with regard to gender roles. In conclusion, as a student of social science as well as an avid television

viewer, I am eager to see what the next trend in advertising will bring about for gender roles.

APPENDIX A: PROTOCOL FOR RESEARCH

	IdNum	<i>Ad ID Number</i>
:	VidCount	<i>Video counter</i>
:	TimeDay	<i>Approximate time of day at</i>
	Network	<i>Network ad is on</i>
	1	= ABC
	2	= CBS
	3	= NBC
	Dotcom	<i>Ad is dotcom or not</i>
	1	= Yes
	2	= No
	Vover	<i>Ad has VO or not</i>
	1	= Female
	2	= Male
	3	= Chorus
	4	= No
	TypeShow	<i>Type of show ad is in</i>
	1	= Talk show
	2	= Variety
	3	= Game Show
	4	= News
	5	= Entertainment News
	6	= Sitcom
	7	= Paid Program
	8	= Drama
	9	= Soap Opera
	10	= Movie
	MakeCent	<i>Make-up of the central figure(s), CF#1/CF#2</i>
	1	= Female/None
	2	= Male/None
	3	= Male/Female
	4	= Female/Male
	5	= Female/Female
	6	= Male/Male
	CentFig1	<i>Sex of central figure #1</i>
	1	= Male
	2	= Female
	9	= N/A
	Basis1	<i>Basis of credibility for central figure #1</i>
	1	= Product-user
	2	= Authority
	9	= N/A
	Role1	<i>Role of central figure #1</i>
	0	= Other
	1	= Spouse
	2	= Parent
	3	= Professional
	4	= Homemaker
	5	= Worker
	6	= Real-life celebrity
	7	= Interviewer
	8	= Boyfriend/Girlfriend
	9	= Sex object/Model
	10	= Demonstrator
	98	= Missing
	99	= N/A
	Loc1	<i>Location of central figure #1</i>
	0	= Other
	1	= Kitchen in home
	2	= Store/Business
	3	= Occupational setting
	4	= Other room in home
	5	= Outdoors at home
	6	= Outdoors away from home
	7	= Bathroom in Home
	8	= Bar/Restaurant
	9	= School
	10	= Studio
	11	= Car
	98	= Missing
	99	= N/A

PROTOCOL FOR PROJECT (cont'd)

Reward1	<i>Rewards offered or reaped by the central figure #1</i>	
11 = S E offered opposite sex approval	61 = S E reaped opposite sex approval	
12 = S E offered family approval	62 = S E reaped family approval	
13 = S E offered friend's approval	63 = S E reaped friend's approval	
14 = S E offered social advancement	64 = S E reaped social advancement	
15 = S E offered career advancement	65 = S E reaped career advancement	
16 = S E offered other	66 = S E reaped other	
21 = Self-e offered psych improvement	71 = Self-e reaped psych improvement	
22 = Self-e offered attractiveness	72 = Self-e reaped attractiveness	
23 = Self-e offered cleanliness	73 = Self-e reaped cleanliness	
24 = Self-e offered health	74 = Self-e reaped health	
25 = Self-e offered other	75 = Self-e reaped other	
31 = Practical offered saving time	81 = Practical reaped saving time	
32 = Practical offered saving labor	82 = Practical reaped saving labor	
33 = Practical offered saving money	83 = Practical reaped saving money	
34 = Practical offered other	84 = Practical reaped other	
40 = Other offered	98 = Missing	
50 = Other reaped	99 = N/A	
Prod1	<i>Type of product associated with central figure #1</i>	
0 = Other	55 = pet food/product (misc)	
11 = appearance aids (body)	56 = sporting/rec items (misc)	
12 = body hygiene/cleanliness (body)	57 = auto/automotive products (misc)	
13 = clothing (body)	58 = insurance (misc)	
14 = health (body)	45 = Research/information (website)	
15 = body other	46 = Online shopping (website)	
21 = exterior household goods (home)	47 = Services found only online (website)	
22 = interior household goods (home)	48 = ISP (website)	
23 = laundry/dish soap (home)	49 = Other internet (website)	
25 = other home products	98 = Missing	
24 = other household cleaners (home)	99 = N/A	
30 = Foodstuffs		
Arg1	<i>Argument given by central figure #1</i>	
1 = Scientific	8 = Missing	
2 = Non-scientific	9 = N/A	
3 = None		
SecCF	<i>Ad has second CF or not</i>	
	1 = Yes	
	2 = No	
CentFig2	<i>Sex of central figure #2</i>	
1 = Male		
2 = Female		
9 = N/A		
Basis2	<i>Basis of credibility for central figure #2</i>	
1 = Product-user		
2 = Authority		
9 = N/A		

PROTOCOL FOR PROJECT (cont'd)

Role2	<i>Role of central figure #2</i>		
0 = Other	7 = Interviewer		
1 = Spouse	8 = Boyfriend/Girlfriend		
2 = Parent	9 = Sex object/Model		
3 = Professional	10 = Demonstrator		
4 = Homemaker	98 = Missing		
5 = Worker	99 = N/A		
6 = Real-life celebrity			
Loc2	<i>Location of central figure #2</i>		
0 = Other	5 = Outdoors at home	10 = Studio	
1 = Kitchen in home	6 = Outdoors away from home	11 = Car	
2 = Store/Business	7 = Bathroom in Home	98 = Missing	
3 = Occupational setting	8 = Bar/Restaurant	99 = N/A	
4 = Other room in home	9 = School		
Reward2	<i>Rewards offered or reaped by the central figure #2</i>		
11 = S E offered opposite sex approval	61 = S E reaped opposite sex approval		
12 = S E offered family approval	62 = S E reaped family approval		
13 = S E offered friend's approval	63 = S E reaped friend's approval		
14 = S E offered social advancement	64 = S E reaped social advancement		
15 = S E offered career advancement	65 = S E reaped career advancement		
16 = S E offered other	66 = S E reaped other		
21 = Self-e offered psych improvement	71 = Self-e reaped psych improvement		
22 = Self-e offered attractiveness	72 = Self-e reaped attractiveness		
23 = Self-e offered cleanliness	73 = Self-e reaped cleanliness		
24 = Self-e offered health	74 = Self-e reaped health		
25 = Self-e offered other	75 = Self-e reaped other		
31 = Practical offered saving time	81 = Practical reaped saving time		
32 = Practical offered saving labor	82 = Practical reaped saving labor		
33 = Practical offered saving money	83 = Practical reaped saving money		
34 = Practical offered other	84 = Practical reaped other		
40 = Other offered	98 = Missing		
50 = Other reaped	99 = N/A		
Prod2	<i>Type of product associated with central figure #2</i>		
0 = Other	55 = pet food/product (misc)		
11 = appearance aids (body)	56 = sporting/rec items (misc)		
12 = body hygiene/cleanliness (body)	57 = auto/automotive products (misc)		
13 = clothing (body)	58 = insurance (misc)		
14 = health (body)	45 = Research/information (website)		
15 = body other	46 = Online shopping (website)		
21 = exterior household goods (home)	47 = Services found only online (website)		
22 = interior household goods (home)	48 = ISP (website)		
23 = laundry/dish soap (home)	49 = Other internet (website)		
25 = other home products	98 = Missing		
24 = other household cleaners (home)	99 = N/A		
30 = Foodstuffs			
Arg2	<i>Argument given by central figure #2</i>		
1 = Scientific	8 = Missing		
2 = Non-scientific	9 = N/A		
3 = None			

APPENDIX B: CHARTS

Chart 1. Number of Advertisements by Programming Legend for One Week (240 Hours)

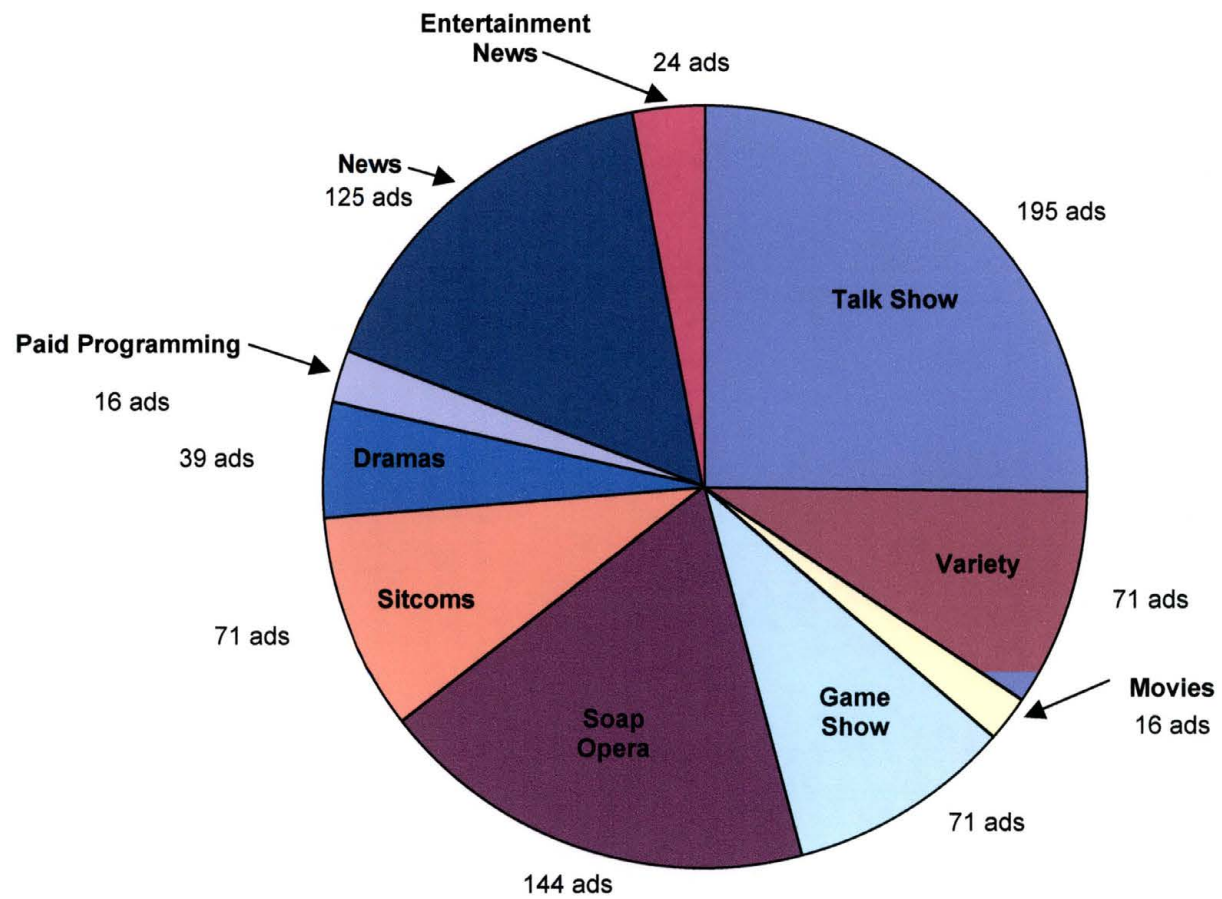


Chart 2. Percent of Programming Legend for One Week (240 Hours)

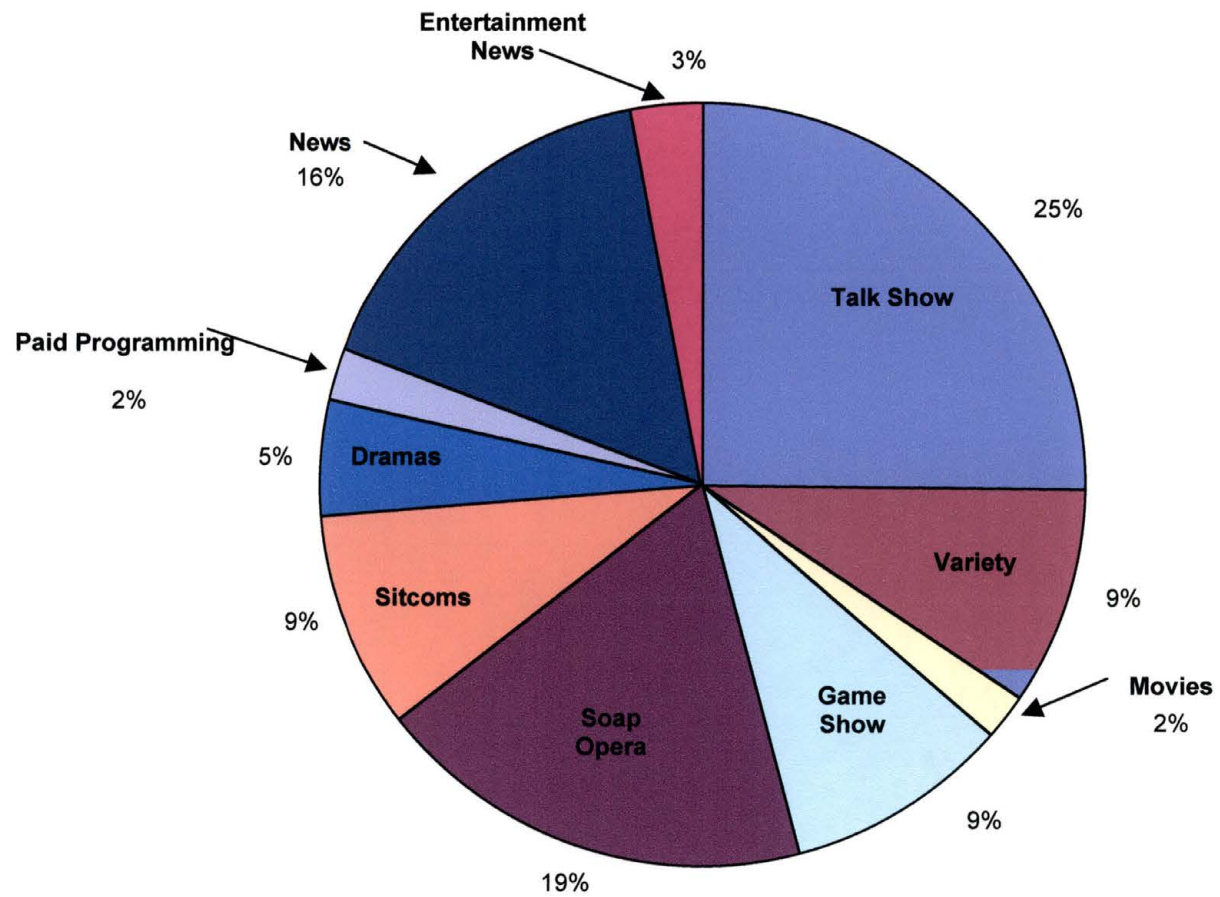
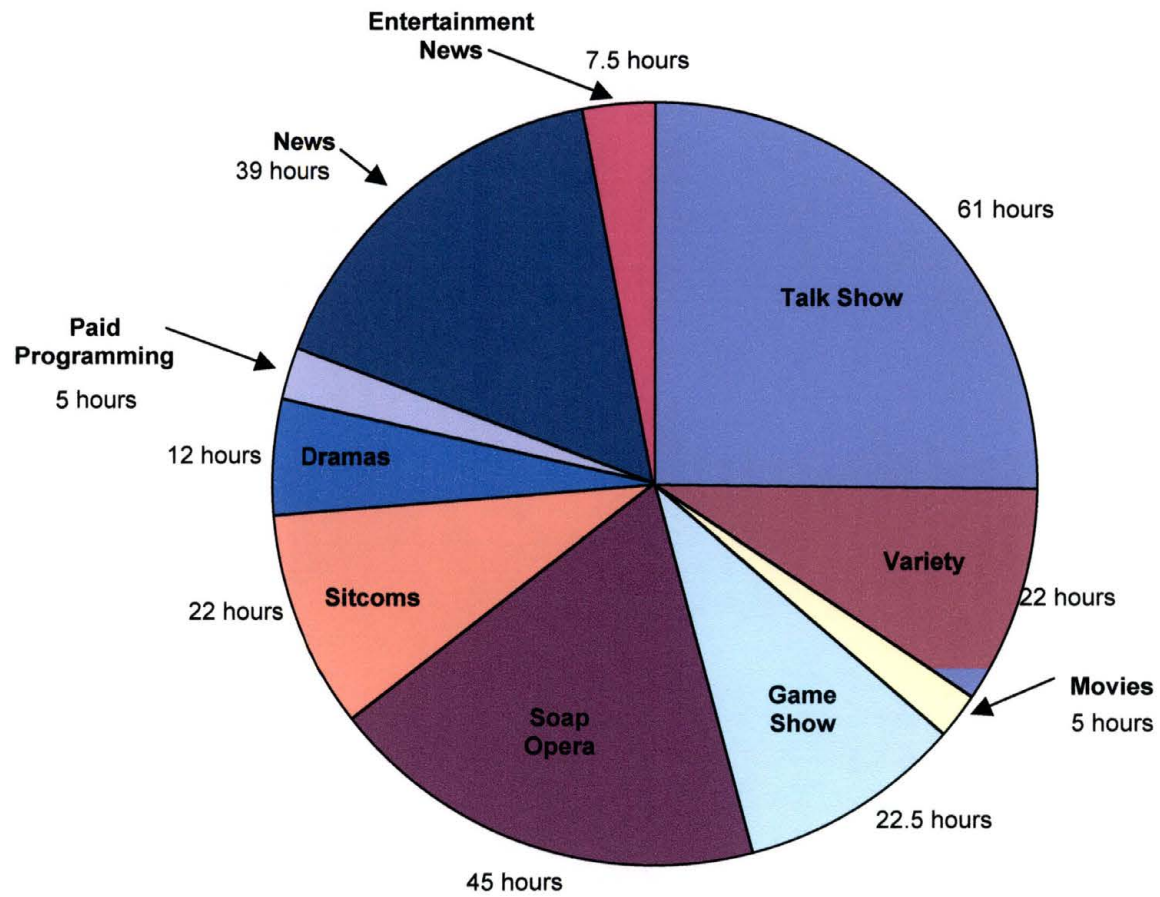


Chart 3. Programming Legend for One Week (240 Hours)



APPENDIX C: TABLES

Table 1. Division of Talk Show Category

	ABC	NBC	CBS	Total Hours
Hours of Talk Shows in Daytime (9 a.m. to 5 p.m.)	4.5	5.5	2	12
Hours of Talk Shows from Daytime Per Week	22.5	27.5	10	60
Hours of Talk Shows from Nighttime (5 p.m. to 1 a.m.)	1	0	0	1
				61
				Percent Total
Proportion of Talk Show by Network in Daytime (in %)	36.88525	45.08197	16.39344	98.36065574
Proportion of Talk Show by Network in Nighttime (in %)	1.639344	0	0	1.639344262
				100
				Total
Number of Commercials for Talk Show by Network in Daytime	71.92623	87.90984	31.96721	191.8032787
Number of Commercials for Talk Show by Network in Nighttime	3.196721	0	0	3.196721311
Total number of commercials from Talk Show category:				195

Table 2. ABC

Per Day	Per Week	ABC	Time
3	15	Maury (M-F)	9-10am
3	15	The View (M-F)	10-11am
3	15	Port Charles (M-F)	11-1130am
1	5	News at 1130am (M-F)	1130-12pm
3	15	All My Children (M-F)	12-1pm
3	15	One Life to Live (M-F)	1-2pm
3	15	General Hospital (M-F)	2-3pm
2	10	Access Hollywood (M-F)	3-330pm
2	10	Extra (M-F)	330-4pm
3	15	Rosie O'Donnell (M-F)	4-5pm
1	5	News at 5pm (M-F)	5-530pm
2	10	ABC World News Tonight (M-F)	530-6pm
2	10	News at 6pm (M-F)	6-630pm
2	10	Entertainment Tonight (M-F)	630-7pm
10	10	Air Force One M	7-10pm
3	3	Who Wants to Be a Millionaire? Tu	7-8pm
1	1	Darhma and Greg Tu	8-830pm
1	1	What About Joan Tu	830-9pm
4	4	NYPD Blue T	9-10pm
1	1	My Wife and Kids W	7-730pm
1	1	Two Guys and a Girl W	730-8pm
1	1	Drew Carey W	8-830pm
1	1	Spin City W	830-9pm
3	3	Who Wants to Be a Millionaire? W	9-10pm
3	3	Whose Line Is It Anyway? Th	7-8pm
3	3	Who Wants to Be a Millionaire? Th	8-9pm
4	4	Primetime Th	9-10pm
3	3	Whose Line Is It Anyway? F	7-8pm
3	3	Who Wants to Be a Millionaire? F	8-9pm
4	4	20/20 F	9-10pm
2	10	News at 10pm (M-F)	10-1030pm
2	10	Nightline (M-F)	1030-11pm
1	5	Spin City (M-F)	11-1130pm
2	10	Politically Incorrect (M-F)	1130pm-12am
3	15	Jenny Jones (M-F)	12-1am

Total: 261

Table 3. NBC

Per Day	Per Week	NBC	Time
3	15	Live with Regis and Kelly (M-F)	9-10am
3	15	Today (M-F)	10-11am
1	5	Jeopardy! (M-F)	11-1130am
1	5	Inside Edition (M-F)	1130-12pm
3	15	Days of Our Lives (M-F)	12-1pm
3	15	Passions (M-F)	1-2pm
3	15	Judge Mathis (M-F)	2-3pm
2	10	To Tell the Truth (M-F)	3-330pm
2	10	Family Feud (M-F)	330-4pm
3	15	Oprah Winfrey (M-F)	4-5pm
2	10	Jeopardy! (M-F)	5-530pm
2	10	NBC Nightly News (M-F)	530-6pm
1	5	News at 6pm (M-F)	6-630pm
1	5	Wheel of Fortune (M-F)	630-7pm
4	4	Weakest Link M	7-8pm
6	6	The Judge M	8-10pm
2	2	Fighting Fitzgeralds Tu	7-730pm
2	2	Third Rock from the Sun Tu	730-8pm
2	2	Frazier Tu	8-830pm
2	2	Three Sisters Tu	830-9pm
3	3	Dateline Tu	9-10pm
2	2	Ed W	7-8pm
2	2	West Wing W	8-9pm
3	3	Law and Order W	9-10pm
2	2	Friends Th	7-730pm
2	2	Friends Th	730-8pm
2	2	Will and Grace Th	8-830pm
2	2	Just Shoot Me Th	830-9pm
3	3	ER Th	9-10pm
3	3	Providence F	7-8pm
3	3	Dateline F	8-9pm
3	3	Law and Order: Spl Vict. Unit F	9-10pm
1	5	News at 10pm (M-F)	10-1030pm
4	20	Tonight Show (M-F)	1030-1130pm
4	20	Late Night (M-F)	1130-1230am
1	5	SCTV (M-F)	1230-1am

Total: 248

Table 4. CBS

Per Day	Per Week	CBS	Time
4	20	Martha Stewart Living (M-F)	9-10am
4	20	Price Is Right (M-F)	10-11am
3	15	Young and the Restless (M-F)	11-12pm
1	5	News at Noon (M-F)	12-1230pm
3	15	Bold and the Beautiful (M-F)	1230-1pm
3	15	As the World Turns (M-F)	1-2pm
3	15	Guiding Light (M-F)	2-3pm
2	10	Curtis Court (M-F)	3-330pm
2	10	Home Improvement (M-F)	330-4pm
2	10	Drew Carey (M-F)	4-430pm
2	10	Hollywood Squares (M-F)	430-5pm
2	10	News at 5pm (M-F)	5-530pm
2	10	CBS Evening News (M-F)	530-6pm
2	10	News at 6pm (M-F)	6-630pm
2	10	Frasier (M-F)	630-7pm
2	2	King of Queens M	7-730pm
2	2	Yes, Dear M	730-8pm
2	2	Everybody Loves Raymond M	8-830pm
1	1	Becker M	830-9pm
3	3	Family Law M	9-10pm
3	3	JAG Tu	7-8pm
2	2	Everybody Loves Raymond Tu	8-830pm
1	1	Becker Tu	830-9pm
3	3	Family Law Tu	9-10pm
10	10	ACMAs W	7-10pm
6	6	Survivor Th	7-9pm
3	3	Survivor: The Outback Reunion Th	9-10pm
7	7	Diagnosis Murder F	7-9pm
3	3	Nash Bridges F	9-10pm
1	5	News at 10pm (M-F)	10-1030pm
3	15	Late Show (M-F)	1030-1130pm
3	15	Late Late Show (M-F)	1130-1230am
2	10	Paid Program (M-F)	1230-1am

Total: 278

Table 5. Central figure during daytime, nighttime, overall, and internet commercials.

Segment	CENTRAL FIGURE			
	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N
Daytime	40.88 %	260	59.12 %	376 *
Nighttime	54.88 %	242	45.12 %	199 *
Overall	46.52 %	502	53.48 %	577 *
Internet	56.25 %	72	43.75 %	56

* Indicates a difference significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 6. Basis of credibility for the central figure during daytime, nighttime, internet and overall commercials.

DAYTIME					NIGHTTIME				
Basis of Credibility	Male		Female		Basis of Credibility	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Product-user	34.77 %	137	65.23 %	257 * *	Product-user	52.63 %	150	47.37 %	135
Authority	65.22 %	75	34.78 %	40 * *	Authority	53.47 %	185	46.53 %	161 * *
INTERNET					OVERALL				
Basis of Credibility	Male		Female		Basis of Credibility	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Product-user	53.45 %	31	46.55 %	27	Product-user	42.14 %	287	57.86 %	394 * *
Authority	0.00 %	12	0.00 %	0	Authority	65.67 %	132	34.33 %	69 * *

* Indicates a difference significant at the 0.05 level.

* * Indicates a difference significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 7.

Role of central figure during daytime, nighttime, internet and overall commercials

DAYTIME					NIGHTTIME				
Role	Male		Female		Role	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Other	47.15 %	58	52.85 %	65	Other	64.12 %	84	35.88 %	47 * *
Spouse	46.28 %	56	53.72 %	65	Spouse	43.75 %	35	56.25 %	45
Parent	47.27 %	26	52.73 %	29	Parent	40.00 %	8	60.00 %	12
Professional	56.76 %	21	43.24 %	16	Professional	64.10 %	25	35.90 %	14
Homemaker	0.00 %	0	100.00 %	50	Homemaker	0.00 %	0	100.00 %	8
Worker	57.89 %	22	42.11 %	16	Worker	87.23 %	41	12.77 %	6 * *
Real-life celebrity	21.15 %	11	78.85 %	41 * *	Real-life celebrity	40.74 %	11	59.26 %	16
Interviewer	100.00 %	2	0.00 %	0	Interviewer	100.00 %	3	0.00 %	0
Boyfriend/Girlfriend	53.57 %	15	46.43 %	13	Boyfriend/Girlfriend	55.56 %	5	44.44 %	4
Sex object/Model	33.33 %	6	66.67 %	12	Sex object/Model	55.00 %	22	45.00 %	18
Demonstrator	38.74 %	43	61.26 %	68 *	Demonstrator	55.00 %	22	45.00 %	18

INTERNET					OVERALL				
Role	Male		Female		Role	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Other	93.33 %	28	6.67 %	2	Other	55.91 %	142	44.09 %	112
Spouse	29.51 %	18	70.49 %	43 * *	Spouse	45.32 %	92	54.68 %	111
Parent	55.56 %	5	44.44 %	4	Parent	45.33 %	34	54.67 %	41
Professional	100.00 %	14	0.00 %	0	Professional	60.53 %	46	39.47 %	30
Homemaker	0.00 %	0	100.00 %	4	Homemaker	0.00 %	0	100.00 %	58
Worker	100.00 %	5	0.00 %	0	Worker	74.12 %	63	25.88 %	22 * *
Real-life celebrity	100.00 %	1	0.00 %	0	Real-life celebrity	27.50 %	22	72.50 %	58 * *
Interviewer		N/A		N/A	Interviewer	100.00 %	5	0.00 %	0
Boyfriend/Girlfriend		N/A		N/A	Boyfriend/Girlfriend	54.05 %	20	45.95 %	17
Sex object/Model		N/A		N/A	Sex object/Model	24.07 %	13	75.93 %	41 * *
Demonstrator	25.00 %	1	75.00 %	3	Demonstrator	43.05 %	65	56.95 %	86

* Indicates a difference significant at the 0.05 level

* * Indicates a difference significant at the 0.01 level

Table 8. Nature of role of central figure during daytime, nighttime, internet and overall commercials.

DAYTIME					NIGHTTIME				
Role	Male		Female		Role	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Independent	41.25 %	99	58.75 %	141 * *	Independent	64.97 %	102	35.03 %	55 * *
Dependent	37.87 %	103	62.13 %	169 * *	Dependent	35.53 %	54	64.47 %	98 * *
INTERNET					OVERALL				
Role	Male		Female		Role	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Independent	87.50 %	21	12.50 %	3	Independent	50.63 %	201	49.37 %	196
Dependent	31.08 %	23	68.92 %	51 * *	Dependent	37.24 %	159	62.76 %	268 * *

* * Indicates a difference significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 9. Central figure location during daytime, nighttime, internet and overall commercials.

DAYTIME					NIGHTTIME				
Location	Male		Female		Location	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Home	25.00 %	47	75.00 %	141 * *	Home	46.73 %	50	53.27 %	57
Away	52.04 %	153	47.96 %	141	Away	58.44 %	142	41.56 %	101 * *
INTERNET					OVERALL				
Location	Male		Female		Location	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Home	10.53 %	4	89.47 %	34	Home	32.89 %	98	67.11 %	200 * *
Away	73.49 %	61	26.51 %	22 * *	Away	54.93 %	295	45.07 %	242 *

* Indicates a difference significant at the 0.05 level.

* * Indicates a difference significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 10. Central figure location during daytime, nighttime, internet and overall commercials

DAYTIME					NIGHTTIME				
Location	Male		Female		Location	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Kitchen in home	14 04 %	8	85 96 %	49 * *	Kitchen in home	15 79 %	3	84 21 %	16 * *
Store or Business	61 63 %	53	38 37 %	33 *	Store or Business	34 21 %	13	65 79 %	25
Occupational setting	61 64 %	45	38 36 %	28 *	Occupational setting	72 73 %	48	27 27 %	18 * *
Other room in home	18 48 %	17	81 52 %	75 * *	Other room in home	46 88 %	30	53 13 %	34
Outdoors at home	64 71 %	22	35 29 %	12	Outdoors at home	77 27 %	17	22 73 %	5
School	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	1	School	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	2
Studio	26 26 %	26	73 74 %	73 **	Studio	34 38 %	11	65 63 %	21
Car	33 33 %	5	66 67 %	10	Car	57 89 %	11	42 11 %	8
Outdoors away from home	39 77 %	35	60 23 %	53	Outdoors away from home	61 26 %	68	38 74 %	43 *
Bathroom in home	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	5	Bathroom in home	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	2
Bar or restaurant	48 39 %	15	51 61 %	16	Bar or restaurant	28 57 %	2	71 43 %	5
Other	62 96 %	34	37 04 %	20	Other	66 67 %	38	33 33 %	19 *

INTERNET					OVERALL				
Location	Male		Female		Location	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Kitchen in home	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	3	Kitchen in home	15 38 %	12	84 62 %	66 * *
Store or Business	50 00 %	18	50 00 %	18	Store or Business	53 23 %	66	46 77 %	58
Occupational setting	100 00 %	34	0 00 %	0	Occupational setting	66 91 %	93	33 09 %	46 * *
Other room in home	9 38 %	3	90 63 %	29	Other room in home	29 94 %	47	70 06 %	110 * *
Outdoors at home	33 33 %	1	66 67 %	2	Outdoors at home	69 64 %	39	30 36 %	17 * *
School	N/A	0	N/A	0	School	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	3
Studio	100 00 %	5	0 00 %	0	Studio	28 24 %	37	71 76 %	94 * *
Car	63 64 %	7	36 36 %	4	Car	47 06 %	16	52 94 %	18
Outdoors away from home	100 00 %	2	0 00 %	0	Outdoors away from home	51 76 %	103	48 24 %	96
Bathroom in home	N/A	0	N/A	0	Bathroom in home	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	7
Bar or restaurant	N/A	0	N/A	0	Bar or restaurant	44 74 %	17	55 26 %	21
Other	100 00 %	2	0 00 %	0	Other	64 86 %	72	35 14 %	39 * *

* Indicates a difference significant at the 0 05 level

* * Indicates a difference significant at the 0 01 level

Table 11. Argument vs. no argument during daytime, nighttime, internet and overall commercials.

DAYTIME					NIGHTTIME				
Argument	Male		Female		Argument	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Yes	37.17 %	71	62.83 %	120 * *	Yes	59.14 %	55	40.86 %	38
No	42.47 %	189	57.53 %	256 * *	No	53.47 %	185	46.53 %	161
INTERNET					OVERALL				
Argument	Male		Female		Argument	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Yes	66.67 %	8	33.33 %	4	Yes	44.21 %	126	55.79 %	159
No	55.17 %	64	44.83 %	52	No	47.29 %	375	52.71 %	418 *

* Indicates a difference significant at the 0.05 level.

* * Indicates a difference significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 12. Type of argument given by the central figure during daytime, nighttime, internet and overall commercials.

DAYTIME					NIGHTTIME				
Argument	Male		Female		Argument	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Scientific	66.67 %	6	33.33 %	3	Scientific	100.00 %	2	0.00 %	0
Nonscientific	35.71 %	65	64.29 %	117 * *	Nonscientific	58.24 %	53	41.76 %	38
None	42.47 %	189	57.53 %	256 * *	None	53.47 %	185	46.53 %	161
INTERNET					OVERALL				
Argument	Male		Female		Argument	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Scientific	0.00 %	0	0.00 %	0	Scientific	72.73 %	8	27.27 %	3
Nonscientific	66.67 %	8	33.33 %	4	Nonscientific	43.07 %	118	56.93 %	156 *
None	55.17 %	64	44.83 %	52	None	47.29 %	375	52.71 %	418

* Indicates a difference significant at the 0.05 level.

* * Indicates a difference significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 13. Rewards reaped, offered, and combined by central figure in overall commercials

Offered Rewards	CENTRAL FIGURE			
	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N
Social Enhancement	35.00 %	7	65.00 %	13 **
Self-enhancement	36.84 %	21	63.16 %	36 *
Practical	66.98 %	71	33.02 %	35 **
Other	68.42 %	26	31.58 %	12 **

Reaped Rewards	CENTRAL FIGURE			
	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N
Social Enhancement	60.27 %	44	39.73 %	29
Self-enhancement	28.90 %	76	71.10 %	187 **
Practical	51.80 %	115	48.20 %	107
Other	50.00 %	30	50.00 %	30

Combined Rewards	CENTRAL FIGURE			
	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N
Social Enhancement	54.84 %	51	45.16 %	42
Self-enhancement	30.31 %	97	69.69 %	223 **
Practical	56.71 %	186	43.29 %	142 *
Other	57.14 %	56	42.86 %	42

** Indicates a difference significant at the 0.01 level

* Indicates a difference significant at the 0.05 level

Table 14

Central figure and reward during daytime, nighttime, internet and overall commercials

	DAYTIME					NIGHTTIME			
	Male		Female			Male		Female	
Reward offered or reaped	%	N	%	N	Reward offered or reaped	%	N	%	N
S E offered opposite sex approval	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	1	S E offered opposite sex approval	0 00 %	0	100 00	2
S E offered family approval	50 00 %	5	50 00 %	5	S E offered family approval	0 00 %	0	100 00	3
S E offered friend's approval	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	S E offered friend's approval	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
S E offered social advancement	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	1	S E offered social advancement	0 00 %	0	100 00	1
S E offered career advancement	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	S E offered career advancement	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
S E offered other	66 67 %	2	33 33 %	1	S E offered other	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Self-e offered psych improvement	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Self-e offered psych improvement	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Self-e offered attractiveness	33 33 %	4	66 67 %	8	Self-e offered attractiveness	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Self-e offered cleanliness	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	1	Self-e offered cleanliness	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Self-e offered health	22 73 %	5	77 27 %	17	Self-e offered health	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Self-e offered other	100 00 %	6	0 00 %	0	Self-e offered other	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Practical offered saving time	71 43 %	5	28 57 %	2	Practical offered saving time	100 00 %	5	0 00	0
Practical offered saving labor	42 86 %	3	57 14 %	4	Practical offered saving labor	50 00 %	1	50 00	1
Practical offered saving money	67 50 %	27	32 50 %	13 *	Practical offered saving money	68 89 %	31	31 11	14 *
Practical offered other	100 00 %	4	0 00 %	0	Practical offered other	91 67 %	11	8 33	1
Other offered	57 89 %	11	42 11 %	8	Other offered	78 95 %	15	21 05	4
Other reaped	59 09 %	13	40 91 %	9	Other reaped	44 74 %	17	55 26	21
S E reaped opposite sex approval	75 00 %	3	25 00 %	1	S E reaped opposite sex approval	83 33 %	5	16 67	1
S E reaped family approval	43 75 %	7	56 25 %	9	S E reaped family approval	58 82 %	10	41 18	7
S E reaped friend's approval	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	1	S E reaped friend's approval	66 67 %	2	33 33	1
S E reaped social advancement	33 33 %	1	66 67 %	2	S E reaped social advancement	0 00 %	0	100 00	3
S E reaped career advancement	66 67 %	4	33 33 %	2	S E reaped career advancement	100 00 %	5	0 00	0
S E reaped other	80 00 %	4	20 00 %	1	S E reaped other	75 00 %	3	25 00	1
Self-e reaped psych improvement	91 67 %	11	8 33 %	1 **	Self-e reaped psych improvement	83 33 %	15	16 67 %	3
Self-e reaped attractiveness	16 25 %	13	83 75 %	67 **	Self-e reaped attractiveness	5 88 %	1	94 12 %	16
Self-e reaped cleanliness	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	15	Self-e reaped cleanliness	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	2
Self-e reaped health	20 00 %	13	80 00 %	52 **	Self-e reaped health	16 67 %	5	83 33 %	25
Self-e reaped other	60 00 %	3	40 00 %	2	Self-e reaped other	78 95 %	15	21 05 %	4
Practical reaped saving time	69 23 %	9	30 77 %	4	Practical reaped saving time	58 33 %	7	41 67 %	5
Practical reaped saving labor	35 29 %	6	64 71 %	11	Practical reaped saving labor	44 44 %	8	55 56 %	10
Practical reaped saving money	43 68 %	38	56 32 %	49	Practical reaped saving money	54 90 %	28	45 10 %	23
Practical reaped other	69 23 %	9	30 77 %	4	Practical reaped other	90 91 %	10	9 09 %	1

	INTERNET					OVERALL			
	Male		Female			Male		Female	
Reward offered or reaped	%	N	%	N	Reward offered or reaped	%	N	%	N
S E offered opposite sex approval	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	S E offered opposite sex approval	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	3
S E offered family approval	100 00 %	5	0 00 %	0	S E offered family approval	38 46 %	5	61 54 %	8
S E offered friend's approval	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	S E offered friend's approval	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
S E offered social advancement	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	S E offered social advancement	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	2
S E offered career advancement	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	S E offered career advancement	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
S E offered other	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	S E offered other	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Self-e offered psych improvement	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Self-e offered psych improvement	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Self-e offered attractiveness	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Self-e offered attractiveness	30 77 %	4	69 23 %	9
Self-e offered cleanliness	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Self-e offered cleanliness	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	1
Self-e offered health	100 00 %	3	0 00 %	0	Self-e offered health	19 35 %	6	80 65 %	25 **
Self-e offered other	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Self-e offered other	91 67 %	11	8 33 %	1
Practical offered saving time	100 00 %	2	0 00 %	0	Practical offered saving time	83 33 %	10	16 67 %	2
Practical offered saving labor	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Practical offered saving labor	44 44 %	4	55 56 %	5
Practical offered saving money	100 00 %	1	0 00 %	0	Practical offered saving money	68 24 %	58	31 76 %	27 **
Practical offered other	100 00 %	4	0 00 %	0	Practical offered other	93 75 %	15	6 25 %	1
Other offered	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Other offered	68 42 %	26	31 58 %	12 *
Other reaped	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Other reaped	50 00 %	30	50 00 %	30
S E reaped opposite sex approval	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	S E reaped opposite sex approval	80 00 %	8	20 00 %	2
S E reaped family approval	100 00 %	1	0 00 %	0	S E reaped family approval	50 00 %	17	50 00 %	17
S E reaped friend's approval	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	S E reaped friend's approval	66 67 %	2	33 33 %	1
S E reaped social advancement	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	S E reaped social advancement	16 67 %	1	83 33 %	5
S E reaped career advancement	100 00 %	3	0 00 %	0	S E reaped career advancement	81 82 %	9	18 18 %	2
S E reaped other	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	S E reaped other	77 78 %	7	22 22 %	2
Self-e reaped psych improvement	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Self-e reaped psych improvement	86 67 %	26	13 33 %	4
Self-e reaped attractiveness	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Self-e reaped attractiveness	14 43 %	14	85 57 %	83 **
Self-e reaped cleanliness	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Self-e reaped cleanliness	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	17
Self-e reaped health	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Self-e reaped health	18 95 %	18	81 05 %	77 **
Self-e reaped other	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Self-e reaped other	75 00 %	18	25 00 %	6 *
Practical reaped saving time	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Practical reaped saving time	64 00 %	16	36 00 %	9
Practical reaped saving labor	50 00 %	1	50 00 %	1	Practical reaped saving labor	40 00 %	14	60 00 %	21
Practical reaped saving money	51 11 %	23	48 89 %	22	Practical reaped saving money	47 83 %	66	52 17 %	72
Practical reaped other	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Practical reaped other	79 17 %	19	20 83 %	5

* Indicates a difference significant at the 0.05 level.

** Indicates a difference significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 15. Product with central figure during daytime, nighttime, internet and overall commercials.

DAYTIME					NIGHTTIME				
	Male		Female			Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Body	18.22 %	39	81.78 %	175 * *	Body	20.00 %	17	80.00 %	68 * *
Home	29.41 %	20	70.59 %	48 * *	Home	37.93 %	11	62.07 %	18
Food	49.55 %	55	50.45 %	56	Food	63.57 %	89	36.43 %	51 * *
Internet	47.06 %	40	52.94 %	45	Internet	68.75 %	22	31.25 %	10 *
Misc	70.24 %	59	29.76 %	25 * *	Misc	68.75 %	55	31.25 %	25 * *
Other	76.67 %	46	23.33 %	14 * *	Other	64.29 %	45	35.71 %	25 *
INTERNET					OVERALL				
	Male		Female			Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Body	N/A		N/A		Body	18.67 %	56	81.33 %	244 * *
Home	N/A		N/A		Home	31.96 %	31	68.04 %	66 * *
Food	N/A		N/A		Food	57.31 %	145	42.69 %	108 *
Internet	52.99	62	47.01	55	Internet	52.99 %	62	47.01 %	55
Misc	N/A		N/A		Misc	69.51 %	114	30.49 %	50 * *
Other	N/A		N/A		Other	70.00 %	91	30.00 %	39 * *

* Indicates a difference significant at the 0.05 level.

* * Indicates a difference significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 16. Central figure and product during daytime, nighttime, internet and overall commercials

DAYTIME					NIGHTTIME				
Product	Male		Female		Product	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Other	76 67 %	46	23 33 %	14 **	Other	64 29 %	45	35 71	25 *
appearance aids (body)	22 41 %	13	77 59 %	45 **	appearance aids (body)	4 35 %	1	95 65	22
body hygiene/cleanliness (body)	25 64 %	10	74 36 %	29	body hygiene/cleanliness (body)	50 00 %	2	50 00	2
clothing (body)	7 69 %	2	92 31 %	24	clothing (body)	12 50 %	3	87 50	21
health (body)	12 05 %	10	87 95 %	73 **	health (body)	17 24 %	5	82 76	24
body other	50 00 %	4	50 00 %	4	body other	100 00 %	6	0 00	0
exterior household goods (home)	58 82 %	10	41 18 %	7	exterior household goods (home)	100 00 %	1	0 00	0
interior household goods (home)	9 38 %	3	90 63 %	29	interior household goods (home)	0 00 %	0	100 00	12
laundry/dish soap (home)	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	3	laundry/dish soap (home)	0 00 %	0	100 00	3
Foodstuffs	49 55 %	55	50 45 %	56	Foodstuffs	63 38 %	90	36 62	52 **
pet food/product (misc)	55 00 %	11	45 00 %	9	pet food/product (misc)	37 50 %	3	62 50	5
sporting/rec items (misc)	N/A		N/A		sporting/rec items (misc)	N/A		N/A	
auto/automotive products (misc)	68 97 %	20	31 03 %	9 *	auto/automotive products (misc)	62 00 %	31	38 00	19
insurance (misc)	80 00 %	28	20 00 %	7 **	insurance (misc)	91 30 %	21	8 70	2 **
Research/information (website)	40 96 %	34	59 04 %	49	Research/information (website)	100 00 %	13	0 00	0
Online shopping (website)	50 00 %	4	50 00 %	4	Online shopping (website)	100 00 %	1	0 00	0
Services found only online (website)	50 00 %	1	50 00 %	1	Services found only online (website)	100 00 %	6	0 00	0
ISP (website)	50 00 %	1	50 00 %	1	ISP (website)	100 00 %	2	0 00	0

INTERNET					OVERALL				
Product	Male		Female		Product	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Other	N/A		N/A		Other	70 00 %	91	30 00 %	39 *
appearance aids (body)	N/A		N/A		appearance aids (body)	17 28 %	14	82 72 %	67 **
body hygiene/cleanliness (body)	N/A		N/A		body hygiene/cleanliness (body)	27 91 %	12	72 09 %	31 **
clothing (body)	N/A		N/A		clothing (body)	10 00 %	5	90 00 %	45
health (body)	N/A		N/A		health (body)	13 39 %	15	86 61 %	97 **
body other	N/A		N/A		body other	71 43 %	10	28 57 %	4
exterior household goods (home)	N/A		N/A		exterior household goods (home)	61 11 %	11	38 89 %	7
interior household goods (home)	N/A		N/A		interior household goods (home)	6 82 %	3	93 18 %	41
laundry/dish soap (home)	N/A		N/A		laundry/dish soap (home)	0 00 %	0	100 00 %	3
Foodstuffs	N/A		N/A		Foodstuffs	57 31 %	145	42 69 %	108 *
pet food/product (misc)	N/A		N/A		pet food/product (misc)	50 00 %	14	50 00 %	14
sporting/rec items (misc)	N/A		N/A		sporting/rec items (misc)	N/A		N/A	
auto/automotive products (misc)	N/A		N/A		auto/automotive products (misc)	64 56 %	51	35 44 %	28 **
insurance (misc)	N/A		N/A		insurance (misc)	84 48 %	49	15 52 %	9 **
Research/information (website)	48 96 %	47	51 04 %	49	Research/information (website)	48 96 %	47	51 04 %	49
Online shopping (website)	55 56 %	5	44 44 %	4	Online shopping (website)	55 56 %	5	44 44 %	4
Services found only online (website)	87 50 %	7	12 50 %	1	Services found only online (website)	87 50 %	7	12 50 %	1
ISP (website)	75 00 %	3	25 00 %	1	ISP (website)	75 00 %	3	25 00 %	1

* Indicates a difference significant at the 0 05 level

** Indicates a difference significant at the 0 01 level

Table 17. Sex of voiceover for all commercials.

VOICEOVER				
Male		Female		
%	N	%	N	
76.47 %	780	23.53 %	240	* *

* * Indicates a difference significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 18. Sex of voiceover by central figure during daytime, nighttime, internet and overall commercials.

DAYTIME					NIGHTTIME				
Sex of Voiceover	Male		Female		Sex of Voiceover	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Male	42.77 %	148	57.23 %	198 * *	Male	25.27 %	46	74.73 %	136 * *
Female	31.52 %	29	68.48 %	63 * *	Female	24.49 %	36	75.51 %	111 * *
INTERNET					OVERALL				
Sex of Voiceover	Male		Female		Sex of Voiceover	Male		Female	
	%	N	%	N		%	N	%	N
Male	51.82 %	57	48.18 %	53	Male	47.90 %	285	52.10 %	310
Female	77.78 %	7	22.22 %	2	Female	37.36 %	65	62.64 %	109 * *

* * Indicates a difference significant at the 0.01 level.

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