The Impact of Media on Attitudes toward Women and Sexual Attitudes in Emerging Adults

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THE IMPACT OF MEDIA ON ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN AND
SEXUAL ATTITUDES IN EMERGING ADULTS

by

MELISSA PATRICK

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Honors in the Major Program in Psychology
in the College of Sciences
and in The Burnett Honors College
at the University of Central Florida
Orlando, FL

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Thesis Chair: Dr. Chrysalis Wright
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to explore the relationship between exposure to media variables and emerging adults’ attitudes toward women and sex. Previous research indicated that exposure to media variables can influence the thoughts, behaviors, and attitudes of those exposed. The current study examined how age at exposure to media variables impacted attitudes about sex and attitudes toward women. Six-hundred and ninety four college students were given a questionnaire containing an attitudes toward women scale, a sexual attitudes scale, and a media viewing questionnaire. ANOVAS and linear regressions were performed on the data and results for the study were significant. Results indicated that age of media exposure impacted sexual attitudes and attitudes toward women.
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Television, an invention of the 21st century, has gained incredible popularity for its educational and entertainment qualities. From 1970 to 1999 alone, the amount of households that owned a television went from 35% to 88% (Rideout, Foehr, Roberts, & Brodle, 1999). Children, in particular, with a large amount of free time available to them, were especially drawn to television programming. Children, on average, were documented to spend almost 3 hours a day watching television (Rideout et al., 1999). Other sources of media such as CD’s, books, and the Internet, paled in comparison when the amount of time spent engaging in media was compared (Rideout et al., 1999). Of all the time children spent with media, television viewing took up more than half of it (Rideout et al., 1999). The time spent watching television even surpassed the time spent with friends and time spent with family (Roberts, Foehr, & Rideout, 2005).

Additionally, parents reported little oversight of their children's usage of television. Almost half of all children reported no rules about what shows or how much television they could watch. Parents were also seen to be almost entirely absent while children were watching television, with 95% of children age seven and older watching television without parents in the room (Rideout et al., 1999). Younger children between the ages of two and seven were also watching television alone 81% of the time (Rideout et al., 1999). The fact that the youth population engaged in large amounts of media usage, coupled with the fact that they were largely unsupervised while doing so necessitates the examination of the content and subsequent possible effects of this media.
Sex in Television Programming

More importantly than the amount of television viewed is what content is being viewed in television programs. As television has gained in popularity, it has also seen a rise in sexual content. In a report to the Kaiser Family Foundation, Kunkel et al. (2003) found increasing frequencies of sexual behavior, talk of sex, and sexual content in popular television programs. Just from 1998 to 2003, sexual content in television rose from 56% to 64%. Similarly, talk of sex rose from 54% to 64%, and sexual behavior rose from 23% to 32%.

Programs that depicted intercourse behaviors also doubled from 1998 to 2002 from 7% to 14% (Kunkel et al., 2003). Not only has television programming become more open about talking about sex, but it also shows more explicit depictions of sexual behavior. These findings have implications for the maturing population that engages in large amounts of television viewing. The rise in television viewing in addition to the rise in sexual messages in television programming requires examination to see if there is a relationship between television and sexual attitudes and behaviors.

Theoretical Perspective

The theoretical basis of the current study draws from Bandura’s social cognitive theory. According to social cognitive theory, people learn behavior by observing the behavior of others. Modeling of observed behaviors can occur from media sources, such as television, as well as in-person sources, such as friends. From Bandura’s iconic studies with children and the Bobo doll, it is known that children are just as likely to model a behavior they witness on television as they see in person (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1963). It is also known that the consequences of behavior
have an impact on whether or not a behavior is modeled (Bandura, 1965).

Because observational learning can occur through television it was important to study both behavior and the consequences of the behavior that occurred on screen. Consequences of behavior were seen to have a large impact on viewers’ attitudes toward the observed behavior. If the behavior was elicited a positive response, then the observer remembered it and was more likely to attempt the same behavior (Bandura, 1965). In line with this, if the behavior generated a negative response, the observer was also more likely to remember the behavior and tried to avoid it in the future (Bandura, 1965). For example, if the behavior of early sexual initiation is rewarded in a television show, the observers will be more likely to attempt this behavior because the positive response serves as reinforcement for the initial behavior.

In particular, the gender of the person being observed had importance (Bandura et al., 1963; Bussey & Bandura, 1999). According to this theory, the gender of the observed played a role in how salient a behavior was to the observer and how well it would be remembered. For example, young girls were more likely to model behavior observed from a woman than a man (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). If young girls observed women being rewarded for acting feminine, the young girls were more likely to model this behavior. As evidenced, sexual messages and behavior are increasing in television. Therefore, social cognitive theory would posit that observers’ attitudes and behaviors would model this change.

Implications of Sex in Television Programming

It is apparent that adolescents’ lives are saturated with television. It is also apparent that much of television contains sexual messages. However, there is no real reason to be concerned with this if there is no relationship between television viewing and adolescent sexual behaviors
and attitudes. Does television influence the adolescent populations sexual behavior and attitudes?

Previous research would say yes. As the consumption of sexual television increases, so does the amount of sexual behavior (Martino, Collins, Kanouse, Elliott, & Berry, 2005; Rivadeneyra & Lebo, 2008; Ward & Friedman, 2006; Moswang & Ruane, 2009; Lou, Cheng, Gao, Zuo, Emerson, & Zabin, 2012). More romantic television consumption relates to an earlier initiation into dating (Rivadeneyra & Lebo, 2008). More television consumption relates to more sexual experiences and more sexual partners (Ward & Friedman, 2006; Moswang & Ruane, 2009).

Television’s influence is also worldwide. Lou et al. (2012) found in China that premarital sexual permissiveness was related to media variables indicating that other cultures are equally influenced by television.

The way sex is depicted on television is also of large importance to how it influences behavior and thought. It is evident that sex is depicted but what happens when that is the only thing depicted? In the real world, the act of sexual behavior prompts a consequence. Consequences can be both positive and negative. However, what if television fails to depict these consequences equally or even at all? Sexual behavior depicted on television was usually seen by adolescents to receive positive consequence and lacking a negative consequence (Moswang & Ruane, 2009). When reviewing television for sexual consequences it appeared that only 5.5% of the time, sex was paired with a negative consequence. Negative consequences are usually confined to physical consequences, such as pregnancy or a sexually transmitted disease (Aubrey, 2004). However, in reality, sexual behavior also elicits social and emotional consequences. With these variables included, television displayed consequences about 30% of the time (Aubrey, 2004). In this way television is still unbalanced in its approach to sexual behavior because it fails
to connect it with a consequence less than 50% of the time (Aubrey, 2004; Moswang & Ruane, 2009).

This unbalanced approach has implications for adolescent attitudes of sex. Previous research has shown that adolescents who viewed television programs with negative sexual consequences held more negative attitudes toward premarital sex than before viewing, indicating the lack or presence of a consequence does have an impact and influence on sexual attitudes (Ward & Friedman, 2006). Absence of realistic negative consequences could serve as reward and encourage modeling (Bandura, 1965) of dangerous sexual behavior. Television that depicts sexual behavior without the appropriate consequences could potentially be teaching unsafe sexual behaviors to adolescents.

**Sexual Attitudes**

Do sexual behaviors and attitudes depicted in television programming influence the attitudes of those viewing the program? Not only has sexual behavior increased in television programming but talk about sex has also increased (Kunkel et al., 2003). How the characters in television programs relate to sex and share their attitudes about sex has been found to correlate with the sexual attitudes of the adolescents viewing the program (Farrar, 2006; Riv adeneyra & Lebo, 2008; Eyal & Kunkel, 2008; Ward & Friedman, 2006; Aubrey, Harrison, Kramer, & Yellin, 2003; Ward, 2002; Moswang & Ruane, 2009; Somers & Tynan, 2006; Aubrey, 2007; Lou et al., 2012). Television programs that included scenes of talking about safe sex were found to cause more acceptance of condom use (Farrar, 2006). Viewing romantic television programs related to more traditional dating attitudes, while watching less romantic programs related to less traditional dating attitudes (Rivadeneyra & Lebo, 2008). Additionally, media usage was so
important to adolescents that its impact on sexual attitudes surpassed sexual messages learned from the school environment and was equal to peer influences (Lou et al., 2012). The results of these studies suggest that adolescent viewers may be using television as a source of information on sexual attitudes and behaviors. Because adolescents appear to be using television as a source of sex education, television exposure and content should be taken more seriously.

Furthermore, studies have found differences in television viewing and sexual attitudes between genders. A recent study found that women held more liberal attitudes toward premarital sex, while men did not show this relationship (Somers & Tynan, 2006). In a separate study, television viewing related to an expectation of more sexual variety by men but not by women. However, women were found to show a relationship between television viewing and expecting sex earlier in a relationship, while men did not (Aubrey et al., 2003). This suggests that there may be a difference in how genders process sexual behavior or that there may be sexual stereotypes directing their attitudes.

**Gender in Television Programming**

Gender roles and gender stereotypes have received more attention in the past years. Girls are no longer excluded from shop class and more boys are seen in home economics class learning to sew. Society frowns upon limiting children to such specific gender roles of the past. It would seem society is trying to leave the rigid gender roles of the 1950’s in the past, however the media is still displaying many examples of rigid gender roles.

While in general, gender roles have become much more lax, they are still very much present in our society. A content analysis of popular children’s cartoons revealed how television program writers still favor traditional rigid gender roles. In television intended for very young
children, gender roles and stereotypes are built into television characters. There are more male characters in adventures and comedies than female characters. Male characters are more likely to be aggressive than female characters and female characters are more likely to show fear, be romantic, and to be more supportive than male characters (Leaper, Breed, Hoffman, & Perlman, 2002). Messages that can be interpreted by children from these stereotypes are that men are more important than women by the higher male to female character ratio. Also, that men are more violent based on more acts of physical aggression, and that women are more fearful and nurturing. For children this could be very influential. Growing up with these gender stereotypes could influence how they think and act. Would being exposed to these stereotypes hinder or help them achieve life happiness? The implications of accepting and internalizing the gender stereotypes in the media is far reaching and could potentially affect a person on a very large scale.

In addition to gender stereotypes, television contains many sexual stereotypes. Stereotypical representations of how virginity is lost have been studied and have been found to focus around three main scripts. A script serves as a guideline for how someone should act or behave. The first script is the abstinence script, which places a high value on virginity and delaying virginity loss. The second script is the urgency script, which places a negative light on virginity and desires losing it. The third script is the management script, which focus on controlling the repercussions of teen sexuality (Kelly, 2010). These stereotypes could potentially impact the sexual health of the adolescents viewing the television program. Negative messages of virginity loss could inversely impact female and male psychological sexual health. Especially in the case of females, negative stereotypical consequences often occur for virginity loss, and can
adversely impact female sexual health (Kelly, 2010).

Other sexual stereotypes that were found in television programming include ‘sex is recreational’, ‘women are sex objects’, and ‘men are sex obsessed’. Previous research indicated that higher levels of television viewing correlated with acceptance of these stereotypes (Ward & Friedman, 2006; Ward, 2002). Acceptance was found to be even higher among women for the stereotype ‘women are sex objects’ (Ward & Friedman, 2006).

It is no surprise then that women specifically have been found to have negative consequences from stereotypical media. Women who view prime time television and soap operas were found to have negative sexual self-concepts (Aubrey, 2007). This finding was not surprising because popular television programs were found to have different sexual consequences for gender. Television scenes in which women initiated sex were more likely to end in negative consequences. Also, sex was initiated more by men than by women, potentially normalizing the idea that men are intended to be sexually proactive while women merely receptive (Aubrey, 2004). These sexual stereotypes have repercussions by way of making women believe their role is to be a sexual object. This makes it more difficult for them to exert initiative and reject advances (Ward, 2002).

In addition to this, young girls are also being impacted by the sexual stereotypes in the media. A recent study found that young girls were internalizing sexual stereotypes and becoming increasingly sexualized at a younger age. Television programs intended for young girls were found to portray young girls as sex objects. Programs depicted girls wearing revealing clothing and having mature curves and pouty lips. In these television programs, girls who fit this stereotype were shown to be liked and have more friends. A relationship was found between
young girls who engaged in television viewing and self-sexualization. Young girls who were exposed to television reported more instances of self-sexualization. The test used to investigate this relationship involved showing a young girl a picture of a single girl dressed four different ways. When given the option to choose between a girl dressed in revealing clothing and a girl dressed conservatively, young girls chose the girl in revealing clothing as the girl they thought was more likable (Starr & Ferguson, 2012). This knowledge was of particular importance because the process of sexualization was occurring before the girls developed their own attitudes toward sexuality. It was happening in the home before the girls were even exposed to peer attitudes.

**The Current Study**

It is the goal of the current study to examine media variables and their impact on emerging adults’ attitudes. The implications of sexual stereotypes in television, how these stereotypes impacted viewers, and what other variables played a role in how sexual messages in television were accepted, was also explored. It was hypothesized that gender and media exposures would impact sexual attitudes and attitudes toward women.
CHAPTER TWO: METHOD

Participants and Procedure

Data for the present study was derived from a recent study conducted at the University of Central Florida (UCF). Because this study was based on an archived de-identified dataset, IRB approval was not required.

Participants included 694 college students who answered a 30-minute questionnaire that assessed their sexual attitudes, attitudes toward women, media exposure histories, as well as demographics. Sixty five percent of participants \( n = 454 \) were female and 35% \( n = 240 \) were male. The majority of participants were White \( n = 491, 70.2\% \) followed by ‘other’ race \( n = 93, 13.4\% \), and Black \( n = 67, 9.7\% \). Most were between the ages of 18-21 \( n = 501, 72.2\% \).

Measures

Demographic Questionnaire

Participants were asked three questions that assessed their age, racial background, and gender. Age responses ranged from 18 to over 25. Race was recorded as being Black or African-American, White, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian or Pacific Islander, or other.

Sexual Attitudes Scale

Participants were asked twenty-five questions assessing their attitudes toward human sexual expression (Hudson, 1997). Sample questions include “Pre-marital sex may be a sign of decaying social order” and “I think that the only proper way to have sex is through intercourse.” Responses ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Two of the items were
reverse coded. Items were then summed to derive at a total attitudes measure that was used in analyses. Lower scores indicated more liberal, or permissive, attitudes with higher scores indicating more conservative, or restrictive, sexual attitudes. This scale has a proven reliability of .90 and a validity of .60. The scale can be found in Appendix A.

Attitudes Toward Women Questionnaire

Participants were asked fifteen questions that assessed attitudes toward women (Spence & Helmreich, 1978). Sample questions include “Swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than a man” and “Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.” Responses ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). Seven items were reverse coded. Items were them summer to derive at a total score that was used in analyses. Higher scores indicated a more profeminist, egalitarian attitude toward women and lower scores indicated a more traditional, conservative attitude toward women. Alpha reliability for the scale was .79 in the current study. The scale can be found in Appendix B.

Media Exposure

Participants reported their age at first viewing (< 5 years to > 17 years) and frequency of viewing (never to frequently) forty-one children’s and adolescents’ movies and television shows. Movies and television shows were selected based on previous and current popularity of the show (TV.com).

Exposure to stereotypical portrayals of women and sexual content in visual media were based on measures of content analysis using the frequency method. Raters attended an orientation to content analysis and the categories to be examined, participated in training using
the frequency method, and were given practice assignments to check for coding accuracy prior to coding for stereotypical portrayals of women and sexual content used in the current study. This process was implemented to ensure that raters did not change the standards of their coding or alter their proficiency in coding during the process. Raters were instructed to watch between one and four episodes of each show to account for time variations in movies and television shows. Raters were given several weeks to complete coding used in the current study to prevent fatigue.

For stereotypical portrayals of women, raters coded for (a) women being in a subordinate position relative to men (e.g., nurses and not doctors), (b) women being employed in traditional female careers (e.g., secretaries, teachers), (c) women having the goal of getting married and becoming a mother (e.g., women cooking, bring responsible for childcare), (d) women being mentally, emotionally, or physically “weaker” than men, and (e) physical appearance of women indicate their value.

For sexual content in visual media, raters coded for (a) sexual behavior and body language (e.g., flirting, passionate kissing, intimate touch, hand gestures to sexual acts, thrusting as a reference to a sexual act, intercourse implied, intercourse explained), (b) sexual language (e.g., about plans or desires for sex, talk about sex that has occurred, talk toward sex, advice regarding sex, sex as a priority), and (c) demeaning messages (e.g., objectification of women, men in power over women, sexual violence, women defined by having a man, women valuing themselves based on sex).

This technique was modified from a similar method that was implemented by Collins, Martino, Elliot, and Miu (2011) in an examination of exposure to sexual content on television. Inter-rater reliability for the current study was excellent, significant, \( r (82) = .84, p < .001. \)
Exposure variables for each movie and television show to stereotypical portrayals of women and sexual references were derived by multiplying self-reported frequency of viewing of each film by the average content contained in that movie or television show. This technique, too, was modified from that used by Collins et al. (2011).

Based on participants’ responses regarding their age at first exposure to the film (see Table 1) total exposure variables were created based on age group. Items were then transformed to z scores to standardize the total exposure variables prior to analyses. The standardized total exposure variables were used in analyses.
CHAPTER THREE: RESULTS

Preliminary analyses indicated that missing data for the current study was less than 3%. Therefore, a simple mean substitution imputation method was used (Kline, 2005). This method involves replacing the missing data with the overall mean value for the variable. There is the possibility that replacing missing data in this manner can distort the distribution of the data. However, comparison of variable distributions before and after imputation indicated that this method had no detectable effect on the data. The new data set was used in analyses.

**Sexual Attitudes and Views toward Women**

An analysis of variances (ANOVA) was performed to determine if there was a difference between sexual attitudes and attitudes toward women based on gender. Two one-way ANOVA’s were conducted using gender as the independent variable and attitudes toward women and sexual attitudes as the dependent variables. Results were significant for attitudes toward women, $F(2, 691) = 31.94, p < .01$ but not sexual attitudes, $F(2, 691) = 1.74, p > .05$. Men were found to have more profeminist attitudes than women. Descriptive statics of the ANOVA analysis can be found in Table 2.

**Predicting Sexual Attitudes**

Linear regression analysis was conducted to determine how gender and age of exposure to sexual content combined to help predict participants’ attitudes toward sex. The regression model was significant, $F(6, 687) = 5.28, p = .00, R^2 = .04$. Exposure to sexual content between the ages of 14 and 16, $t(6,687) = 5.15, p = .00$, significantly contributed to sexual attitudes. Exposure to sexual content over the age of 17 was found to be marginally significant, $t(6,687) =
-1.90, \( p = .06 \). The overall model accounted for four percent of the variance in how the above variables contributed to attitudes toward sex. Results of regression analyses can be found in Table 3.

**Predicting Attitudes Toward Women**

A linear regression analysis was conducted to determine how gender and age of exposure to gender stereotypes combined to help predict participants’ attitudes toward women. The regression model was significant, \( F(6, 687) = 18.82, p = .00, R^2 = .14 \). Gender, \( t(6,687) = -7.43, p = .00 \), exposure to stereotypical portrayals of women between the ages of 14 and 16, \( t(6,687) = 6.18, p = .00 \), and exposure to stereotypical portrayals of women after age 17, \( t(6,687) = -4.43, p = .00 \), contributed to attitudes toward women. The overall model accounted for 14 percent of the variance in how the above variables contributed to attitudes toward women. Results of regression analyses can be found in Table 4.
CHAPTER FOUR: DISCUSSION

It was the goal of this research to determine how gender and the media, influence thoughts and attitudes about women and sex in emerging adults. It was hypothesized that media and gender would influence attitudes toward women and sex.

Results of the current study indicated that men held more profeminist attitudes than women, which was consistent with past research that documented women having negative self-concepts after exposure to media (Ward & Friedman, 2006; Aubrey, 2007). However, no gendered differences were found in the present study for sexual attitudes. This disagrees with previous studies that have documented a gendered relationship between media exposure and sexual attitudes (Aubrey et al., 2003). It could be that the results of the current study do not reflect a difference based on gender because male and female participants were impacted similarly by media. More research is needed to examine this possibility further.

Results of the current study also indicated that exposure to stereotypical messages of women between the ages of 14 and 16 resulted in more profeminist attitudes, while exposure to this form of content after the age of 17 was associated with less feminist attitudes. Additionally, exposure to sexual content in media between the ages of 14 and 16 was related to more conservative sexual attitudes, while exposure after the age of 17 was associated with more permissive sexual attitudes. These results emphasize that the most influence from media sources in predicting attitudes toward sex and women occurs during adolescence. These findings are consistent with those from previous studies that found that young adults looked to the media during this time for guidance even more than from learning institutions (Lou et al., 2012). A possible explanation for this could be that at this age, adolescents are looking for examples and
guidance for how men and women should behave and think. Eric Eriksson’s theory of Identity Development supports this conclusion. In addition to this, young adults during those ages may have felt insecure about asking for information from other peers or adults and may have found it easiest to use media sources (Lou et al., 2012). Content analysis of popular media sources also indicated consistent findings with past research (Leaper, Breed, Hoffman, & Perlman, 2002; Ward & Friedman, 2006; Ward, 2002). Results indicated there was an abundance of gender stereotypes and sexual behavior depicted in media that was intended for minors.

**Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research**

Certain limitations in the research design may have contributed to the results of the study. The sample of the current study was comprised entirely of college students. This lack of diversity limits generalizability. Also, the sample was mainly comprised of Caucasian females. A more demographically diverse sample would have allowed for more generalizability and examination of differences between race and gender.

A second limitation of the study was the use of retrospective data collected through an online questionnaire. This may have interfered with how participants responded to answers. Retrospective data may not be reliable because it relies on the participant to remember accurately. Additionally, the data was also collected through an online questionnaire, which can cause inaccuracies in data because participants may not fully read questions to finish the questionnaire quicker.

While the results of this study demonstrate the media exposures, especially between the ages of 14 and 16, impact attitudes toward women and sexual behavior, future research should elaborate on this perspective. Future research may benefit from looking at how media variables,
such as duration of exposure and fondness for media, influence emerging adults thoughts and behaviors. Additionally, results of the current study do not accurately explain why exposures to media variables during a specific age group are more influential. While a theoretical perspective is used to help explain this finding more research in this area is needed.

**Implications for Practice**

Media is all around us. It is virtually unavoidable to be exposed to it at some point. Whether it is through music on the radio, a television commercial, or a billboard, it surrounds us. We are bombarded with the thoughts and ideas of others, and more often than not, told what we should think or how to behave. Understanding this, it then becomes our responsibility to monitor and be mindful of what is being put out in the media. If we know that the media has the ability to influence thoughts and perceptions, it becomes more important to know what is being broadcast. If the media has the ability to influence positively or negatively, it may be more important that precautions be put in place to protect young adolescents who have not had the time to form their own opinions (Starr & Ferguson, 2012). This type of precaution has already been implemented in the movie and television show rating procedures, whereby movies or television shows can be rated G, PG, PG-13, etc. This type of rating recognizes that some types of media exposure can be harmful to children or young adults. However, this rating system does not take into consideration sexual stereotypes or gender roles. Because most sexual stereotypes and gender roles are more covert, it can be more difficult to monitor or control them. Nevertheless, this is something that has been shown to influence thought negatively and should therefore be monitored (Ward & Friedman, 2006; Ward, 2002; Aubrey, 2007; Aubrey, 2004). Additionally, the current rating system is not always utilized because parents and caregivers may allow their children to view
movies or television shows that have not been recommended for their age range. More research is needed in this area so that parents can make informed decisions and be more aware of the effects media may be having on their children.
APPENDIX A: SEXUAL ATTITUDES SCALE
Please use the following scale to respond to each of the following statements:
(a) strongly disagree
(b) disagree
(c) neither disagree nor agree
(d) agree
(e) strongly agree

1. I think there is too much sexual freedom given to adults these days.
2. I think that increased sexual freedom undermines the American family.
3. I think that young people have been given too much information about sex.
4. Sex education should be restricted to the home.
5. Older people do not need to have sex.
6. Pre-marital sex may be a sign of decaying social order.
7. Sex education should be given only when people are ready for marriage.
8. Extra-marital sex is never excusable.
9. I think there is too much sexual freedom given to teenagers these days.
10. I think there is no enough sexual restraint among young people.
11. I think people indulge in sex too much.
12. I think that the only proper way to have sex is through intercourse.
13. I think sex should be reserved for marriage.
14. Sex should only be for the young.
15. Too much social approval has been given to homosexuals.
16. Sex should be devoted to the business of procreation.
17. People should not masturbate.
18. Heavy sexual petting should be discouraged.
19. People should not discuss their sexual affairs or business with others.
20. Severely handicapped (physically and mentally) people should not have sex.
21. There should be no laws preventing sexual acts among consenting adults.
22. What two consenting adults do together sexually is their own business.
23. There is too much sex on television.
24. Movies today are too sexually explicit.
25. Pornography should be totally banned from our bookstores.
APPENDIX B: ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN QUESTIONNAIRE
Please rate the degree to which you agree with the following statements using the following scale:

a. Strongly disagree  
b. Somewhat disagree  
c. Somewhat agree  
d. Strongly agree

1. Swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than a man.
2. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing laundry.
3. It is insulting to women to have the “obey” clause remain in the marriage service.
4. A woman should be free as a man to propose marriage.
5. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.
6. Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.
7. A woman should not expect to go to exactly the same places or to have quite the same freedom of action as a man.
8. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks.
9. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.
10. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades.
11. Women earning as much as their dates should bear equally the expense when they go out together.
12. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.
13. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in the bringing up of the children.
14. Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set up by men.
15. There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted.
APPENDIX C: TABLES
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Show</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 5 years of age</td>
<td>Snow White</td>
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<td>Cinderella</td>
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<td>Sleeping Beauty</td>
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<td>6-10 years of age</td>
<td>Beauty and the Beast</td>
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<td>The Little Mermaid</td>
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<td>Hunchback of Notre Dame</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The Fox and the Hound</td>
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<tr>
<td>11 – 13 years of age</td>
<td>Who Framed Roger Rabbit</td>
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<tr>
<td>14-16 years of age</td>
<td>The Princess and the Frog</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>The Jonas Brothers</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The Suite Life on Deck</td>
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<td>That’s so Random</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Shake it Up</td>
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<td>Ant Farm</td>
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<td>Make it or Break it</td>
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<td>10 Things I hate about you</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age Range</td>
<td>Shows</td>
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<td>Sony with a Chance</td>
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<td>Vampire Diaries</td>
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Table 2. *Descriptive Statistics for Attitudes toward Women and Sexual Attitudes*

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<th>Attitudes toward Women</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Sexual Attitudes</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<td>5.64</td>
<td>60.08</td>
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Table 3. *Regression Coefficients for Sexual Attitudes*

<table>
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<td>Exposure under age 5</td>
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<td>Exposure between 6-10</td>
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<td>Exposure between 14-16</td>
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<td>Exposure after age 17</td>
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<tr>
<td>F</td>
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</table>

*p<.05, **p<.10
Table 4. *Regression Coefficients for Attitudes Toward Women*

<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>18.82*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p< .001


content and adolescents' sexual behavior. *Journal Of Personality And Social Psychology, 89*(6), 914-924. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.89.6.914


Rideout V, Foehr U, Roberts D, Brodle M. Kids in the Media and At the New Millennium: a report to the Kaiser Family Foundation. 1999.


