



1973

## A Study Of Selected Walt Disney Screenplays And Films And The Stereotyping Of The Role Of The Female

Jerry P. Houseman  
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A STUDY OF SELECTED  
WALT DISNEY SCREENPLAYS AND FILMS AND THE STEREOTYPING  
OF THE ROLE OF THE FEMALE

---

A Dissertation  
Presented to  
the Faculty of the School of Education  
University of the Pacific

In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Education

by  
Jerry P. Houseman

April 1973

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I should like to express my grateful appreciation to the members of my dissertation committee for their valuable counsel and cooperation in the research and preparation of this work.

They are Dr. Shirley Jennings, Chairman; Dr. Dewey Chambers; Dr. Ann Funkhouser; Dr. George Lewis, and Dr. Heath Lowry.

To Dr. Jennings I acknowledge special appreciation. When needed, she always provided encouragement, direction, and inspiration. Dr. Jennings gave up many hours of her own time to insure the successful completion of this project. I owe her much and a simple verbal expression of appreciation seems totally inadequate.

Dr. William Theimer gave invaluable and continuing help in the conception and statistical execution of this project. Pat Wagner, Edythe Eymann and Laura Boyer rendered able technical assistance. This project is dedicated to my wife, Joy, and my children who gave more toward its completion than even I will ever understand.

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## CHAPTER I

### I. INTRODUCTION

"In 1966 Walt Disney Productions estimated that around the world 240,000,000 people saw a Disney movie."<sup>1</sup> "By the spring of 1966 the Disney film collection amounted to twenty-one full-length animated features . . . . forty-seven live-action features . . . . and 280 filmed TV shows."<sup>2</sup> Even with the impact of television Walt Disney Productions has never failed to grow and show an increase in profits year to year. According to Jarvie, "Walt Disney has been Hollywood's most consistently successful showman---perhaps because he knew what audience and subculture he was aiming at. Disney showed a 345% growth in gross income between 1955---1965."<sup>3</sup>

The above figures are indeed impressive, especially in the light of children's film viewing habits. It is reported by Jarvie that "It is generally agreed that youngsters now constitute a much bigger percentage of the audience than previously. Perhaps more significant, they are the basic regular cinemagoers."<sup>4</sup> Averson and White have studied the amount of film viewing done by youth. Their findings are informative:

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<sup>1</sup>Richard Schickel, The Disney Version (New York: Simon Schuster, 1968), p. 19.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 20.

<sup>3</sup>I. C. Jarvie, Movies and Society (New York: Basic Books, Inc., Publishers, 1970), p. 105.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 106.

By the time the average American student graduates from high school today, he has watched more than 15,000 hours of television and seen more than 500 films. During this same period, this average student has attended school five hours a day, 180 days a year, for twelve years, to produce a total of 10,000 hours of school time.<sup>5</sup>

Given this large involvement that children have with motion pictures, an educator is moved to inquire into the possible effects that movies might have upon them. It, therefore, seems appropriate that an educational dissertation be undertaken concentrating on Disney Production films, since as indicated by the foregoing, they are so universally viewed by American children.

There appear to be mixed evaluations of the Disney film product. The former Superintendent of Public Instruction in California, Max Rafferty, extolled Disney as "the greatest educator of this century---greater than John Dewey or James Conant or all the rest of us put together."<sup>6</sup> Also citing the positive aspects of Disney's work, I. C. Jarvie of the University of Southern California has said, "Who is prepared to say that the lives of millions of peoples of the world have not been influenced---helpfully influenced---by the captivating capers of Mickey Mouse or Donald Duck."<sup>7</sup> Not

---

<sup>5</sup>Richard Averson and David Manning White, Sight, Sound, and Society (Boston: Beacon Press, 1968), p. 385.

<sup>6</sup>Schickel, op. cit., p. 349.

<sup>7</sup>Jarvie, op. cit., p. 19.

everyone holds this view. Francis Clarke Sayers, a lecturer in library science at U.C.L.A. summarized the case against Disney as follows:

Mr. Disney has his own special genius. It has little to do with education, or with the cultivation of sensitivity, taste or perception in the minds of children.

I call him to account for his debasement of the traditional literature of childhood, in films and in the books he publishes.

He made a young tough of Peter Pan, and transformed Pinocchio into a slap-stick, sadistic revel! Every prince looks like a badly drawn portrait of Cary Grant, every princess a sex symbol.

The mystical Fairy with the Blue Hair of the Pinocchio film turns out to be Marilyn Monroe, blond hair and all. Look at that wretched sprite with the wand and the over-sized buttocks which announces every Disney program on TV. She is a vulgar little thing, who has been too long at the sugar bowls.<sup>8</sup>

" . . . every princess a sex symbol . . . mystical Fairy with the Blue Hair . . . turns out to be Marilyn Monroe . . . wretched sprite with the . . . over-sized buttocks." Are these, indeed, the stereotypes of females that children perceive in the Disney Productions feature films? Sayers' caustic criticism of the Disney treatment of females deserves further consideration. The possibility that the Walt Disney films may stereotype the role of the American female of all ages is a charge that warrants a penetrating investigation. E. Paul Torrance expresses the serious nature of such stereotyping when he asserts that:

---

<sup>8</sup>Schickel, op. cit., p. 350.

It seems apparent that we make taboo entire areas of experiencing for the female. In so doing, we reduce their potential as human beings. We reduce their openness to experience and their contacts with their environments.<sup>9</sup>

So severe is this problem of female role identification that modern suffragettes are organizing to assert more of their basic rights. ~~What are the issues involved in this~~ stereotyping of the female role which are causing women to demand their liberty with militancy and aggressiveness? "The outcry of the new feminists is that they are an oppressed minority, excluded from positions of power, exploited by male dominance, sexually, economically, and in almost every other way."<sup>10</sup> This criticism of the treatment of females in Disney feature films and in the American society leads to the introduction of the problem explored in this investigation.

## II. THE PROBLEM

### Statement of the Problem

This study attempted to (1) analyze the five screenplays listed on page 6, (2) show two Disney films based on the screenplays analyzed to groups of children and administer a questionnaire to them. The investigator used the obtained

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<sup>9</sup>E. Paul Torrance, Rewarding Creative Behavior (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965), p. 104.

<sup>10</sup>William J. Krutza, Facing the Issues (Grand Rapids: Baker Book House Company, 1970), p. 12.



data to determine (1) whether or not Walt Disney screenplays do stereotype the role of females\* and (2) if children and adults discern this stereotyping of the role of females when they see the films based on the screenplays analyzed.

#### Significance of the Study

This study is one of importance for the following reasons:

1. A study of the stereotyping of the role of females in Walt Disney films has never been done. Therefore, this study will add unique information to the body of knowledge dealing with the effects of films on children.
2. This study, investigating stereotyping of the role of the American female in five of the screenplays of the world's best-known children's motion picture production company, will be of value to media specialists, educators, parents, women's organizations and producers of children's cinema.
3. This study is significant due to the assistance provided by Mr. Ronald Miller, husband of Diane Disney Miller and Mr. William B. Dover, Executive Story Editor of Walt Disney Productions. These men made it possible for the author to obtain the Disney screenplays for study. This was an exception to studio policy. A listing of the five Disney productions which shall be included in this investigation follows:<sup>11</sup>

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\*The stereotyping being investigated is defined by the set of hypotheses found on page 7 and 8.

<sup>11</sup>Letter from William Dover to investigator, September 16, 1971, Appendix A.

<u>Title of Film</u>	<u>Date of Production</u>
<u>Old Yeller</u>	1956
<u>Pollyanna</u>	1959
<u>We Belong Together</u>	1960
<u>Bon Voyage</u>	1961
<u>The Newcomers</u>	1969

---

### III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

It was the purpose of this study to (1) perform a content analysis of the five Walt Disney screenplays listed above, (2) show two Disney films based on these Disney screenplays analyzed to groups of children and administer a questionnaire to them, and (3) show a Disney film based on one of the screenplays analyzed to a group of undergraduate college students and administer a questionnaire to them. The investigator used the obtained data to determine (1) whether or not the selected Walt Disney screenplays did stereotype the role of the American female and (2) if children and college students discerned this stereotyping of the role of the American female when they saw the films based on the screenplays analyzed.

### IV. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### Content Analysis's Method

The content analysis method of research appeared to be the best methodology by which the present investigator

could obtain and classify the data relating to the stereotyping of females in Walt Disney Productions screenplays. This method is defined by Kerlinger as "a method of studying and analyzing communications in a systematic, objective, and quantitative manner for the purpose of measuring variables."<sup>12</sup> Further, according to Kerlinger, the content analysis method is appropriate for the measuring of stereotypes. He states that "a large number and variety of psychological variables can be measured through content analysis: needs, values, attitudes, stereotypes . . . , and so on."<sup>13</sup>

#### Hypotheses

Using the content analysis methodology enabled the researcher to study the following hypotheses which related to the measurement of the stereotyping of females in Walt Disney Screenplays and films reviewed:

1. Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the females as the disciplinarians of the children.
2. Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the females as passive.
3. Walt Disney screenplays and films show the females as dependent upon others for support, care, help or direction.
4. Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the females as artistic.
5. Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the females as being inferior to the males in performing mechanical repairs.

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<sup>12</sup>Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), p. 544.

<sup>13</sup>Ibid., p. 551.

6. Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being excessively talkative.
7. Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as a sex symbol.
8. Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female in business and the professions in subordinate roles.

### Cross-Validation Study

The researcher cross-validated the content analysis measurement by showing two of the Disney films based on screenplays he had analyzed to groups of children and one film to adults and then administering a questionnaire to these subjects. The results of the measurement of the stereotyping as determined by the content analysis was then compared to the results of the measurement as determined by the questionnaire. The fundamental difference between the act of reading a written communication---screenplay---and the pictorial experience---viewing a film---made this an essential procedure. Fritz discussed the distinction between written and pictorial communication at some length:

No two individuals emerge from mediated experience with what ostensibly appears as the same event with exactly similar understandings. As a consequence written symbols as abstractions from these concrete situations will reflect these variations in the significance that they have for the particular individuals. Pictorial communication, in comparison, is not removed from the concrete situations to the same degree. They are more 'iconic' more representative in form and structure of the real thing to which they refer than are written symbols.

Fritz goes on to explain how the nature of films are controlled by cue selection and organization.

Perhaps the most prominent nature of film mediated experience is its controlled character. Though the portrayed situations are composed of cues visually and aurally perceived, they are not of a primary nature but are the resultant of a process of cue selection and organization engineered by the communicator and designed to accomplish a given quality of recipient involvement.

He discusses in depth how elements are fused into a forced interpretation of the subject.

Furthermore, the situations have been pieced together through the editing process in such a manner as to produce a given interpretation of the matter under discussion. The viewer does not receive a series of selected percepts which in real experience he would need to place into some organized frame of reference, but receives them already meaningfully related within a framework predetermined by the communicator. It is in this sense that the experience undergone by the viewer is controlled. The variety of ways in which he may structure the percepts into a meaningful pattern are markedly reduced.<sup>14</sup>

Thus, the cross-validation procedures were employed to determine if the subjects' perceptions of the stereotyping of the females in the films, as measured by the questionnaire, differed from the investigator's perceptions of the stereotyping, as measured by the content analysis.

#### Validity of the Measuring Instruments.

The validity of the hypotheses, content analysis form

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<sup>14</sup>John Fritz, Film Persuasion in Education and Social Controversies---A Theoretical Analysis of the Components Manifest in Viewer-Film Involvement as They Affect the Viewer's Urge to Further Inquiry into Social Controversies (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Indiana University, 1957), p. 67.

and questionnaire was judged to be adequate by a panel of experts. The panel was composed of three sociology professors from San Joaquin Delta College, Fresno State College, and the University of the Pacific.\*

#### Reliability of the Measuring Instruments

The content analysis form was trial tested by three graduate students at the University of the Pacific. It proved reliable as no significant differences were found between results obtained by these judges. The questionnaire was pilot tested on a group of twenty elementary students. The reliability of the questionnaire was measured by the split-half method. It was determined to be .81. More specific validity and reliability data is detailed in Chapter III of the present study.

### V. ASSUMPTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The assumptions upon which this study were based include:

#### Assumptions

1. That knowledge of the stereotyping of the role of females in Walt Disney screenplays and films will contribute to a broader understanding of the stereotyping process in American society.<sup>15</sup>

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\*Appendix B.

<sup>15</sup>William Wall and W. A. Simson, "The Effect of Cinema Attendance on the Behavior of Adolescents as Seen by Their Contemporaries," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XI, (February, 1949), 53-61.

2. That Walt Disney films are extensively viewed by American children between the ages of six and thirteen years old.<sup>16</sup>
3. That films have a strong potential to affect the values, attitudes and behavior orientations of children.<sup>17</sup>
4. That information of this kind may be of value to media specialists, educators, parents, women's organizations and producers of children's films.<sup>18</sup>
5. That the films and screenplays analyzed are primarily intended for children between ages six and thirteen, but in actual practice may encompass viewers of all ages.<sup>19</sup>

The investigation was also based upon certain limitations which follow:

#### Limitations

1. Those established by the stated scope of the study. The investigator is concerned only with the live-action feature-length screenplays and films of the Walt Disney Productions. This study, therefore, will not include any information pertaining to their television films, animated-feature films or books.
2. Those established by the fact that the conclusions reached during the course of this investigation will be applicable only to the two films and five screenplays of the Walt Disney Productions. This study, therefore, will not include any information pertaining to their television films, animated-feature films or books.

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<sup>16</sup>Schickel, *ibid.*, p. 19.

<sup>17</sup>L. L. Thurstone and Ruth C. Peterson, Motion Pictures and the Social Attitudes of Children (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933), pp. 5-37.

<sup>18</sup>James W. Rinehart, The Meaning of Stereotypes (Columbus: The Ohio State University Press, 1963), pp. 1-8.

<sup>19</sup>Letter from William Dover to the investigator, January 3, 1972, Appendix C.

3. Those set by the investigator's lack of concern for the literary quality or photographic value of the five screenplays and two films. The focus will be entirely on the stereotyping of the role of the females within these works.
4. Those set by the concern for the reported presence of values, attitudes and behaviors and not for the internalization of these traits.
5. Those established by the Walt Disney Productions' stated age range for the films and screenplays analyzed, ages six through thirteen.
6. Those affected by the unintentional bias in the analysis of the screenplays by the researcher.
7. Those created by the design of an arbitrary instrument by which to measure the judged presence and frequency of the criterion categories in the screenplays analyzed.
8. Those set by analyzing only the five screenplays and films selected by the Disney officials.
9. Those created by employing an adult sample limited to University of the Pacific students.
10. Those created by limiting the sex roles to America between 1930 and 1973.
11. Those set by perception of roles of characters in screenplays and films and not sex roles in actuality.
12. Those affected by the differences due to individual differences between the researcher and the subjects studied.

## VI. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

The following definitions of terms have been used throughout this study:

1. Ability, artistic: a combination of traits involving capacity for judgments of design and form, often indicated by special aptitude or native talent and acquired skill in creative arts, such as drawing, painting, design and modeling.<sup>20</sup>
2. Ability, mechanical: the individual's ability to deal with mechanisms and mechanical problems.<sup>21</sup>

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<sup>20</sup>Carter V. Good, Dictionary of Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959), p. 1.

<sup>21</sup>Ibid.. p. 2.



3. Aggressiveness: a tendency to forceful, outgoing action, characterized by taking the initiative, defending vigorously, and losing few opportunities to exhibit the self or that with which the self is identified; the opposite of the tendency to avoid danger or the disagreeable by withdrawal.<sup>22</sup>
4. Analysis, content: the critical appraisal of subject matter and materials based upon determined criteria.<sup>23</sup>
5. Closed-form questionnaires: closed-form or structured questionnaires usually consist of a prepared list of concrete questions and a choice of possible answers. To indicate his reply, a respondent marks 'yes' or 'no'; checks, circles, or underscores one or more items from a list of answers.<sup>24</sup>
6. Dependence: a state of leaning or reliance upon others for help, support, care or directions.<sup>25</sup>
7. Disciplinarian: one who administers discipline or enforces order, who demands and secures a high degree of conformity to rules.<sup>26</sup>
8. Female: an individual that bears young or produces eggs as distinguished from one that begets young; woman or girl as distinguished from a man or boy.<sup>27</sup>
9. Film, feature: a film program over one hour long.<sup>28</sup>
10. Halo Effect: the tendency to rate an object in the constant<sup>29</sup> direction of a general impression of the object.<sup>29</sup>

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<sup>22</sup>Ibid., p. 21.      <sup>23</sup>Ibid., p. 28.

<sup>24</sup>Deobold B. Van Dalen and William J. Meyer, Understanding Educational Research (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966), p. 302.

<sup>25</sup>Good, op. cit., p. 102.      <sup>26</sup>Ibid., p. 176.

<sup>27</sup>William Allan Neilson, Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language, Second Edition (Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Company, Publishers, 1956), p. 836.

<sup>28</sup>Neilson, op. cit., p. 837.

<sup>29</sup>Kerlinger, op. cit., p. 516.

11. Hawthorne Effect (reactive effects of experimental procedures): effects produced by the experimental procedures that limit the generalizability of the experimental findings. The presence of observers and experimental equipment may make subjects aware of the fact that they are participating in an experiment. This may alter their normal behavior.<sup>30</sup>
12. History: specific events occurring between the pre-test and posttest in addition to the treatment variable.<sup>31</sup>
13. Independence: absence of reliance on others for help, support, care or direction.<sup>32</sup>
14. Matched Group Design: individuals in both experimental and control groups are matched on some variable known to be correlated to the criterion variable. It is an attempt to ensure that the experimental groups are "equivalent" in initial ability.<sup>33</sup>
15. Maturation Processes: psychological or physical processes within the subjects operating as a function of the passage of time. Their age, fatigue, or interest would confound the interpretation of the effect of the experimental treatment.<sup>34</sup>
16. Motion picture, theatrical: any motion picture designed primarily for use in commercial motion-picture theaters or on entertainment broadcasts.<sup>35</sup>
17. Movie: motion pictures considered especially as a source of entertainment or as an art form.<sup>36</sup>
18. Multiple-Treatment Interference: when the same subjects are exposed repeatedly to two or more treatments, the effects of the previous treatments are not usually erasable; hence, the findings may be generalized only to persons who experience the same sequence of treatments.<sup>37</sup>

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<sup>30</sup>Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 253.      <sup>31</sup>Ibid., p. 249.

<sup>32</sup>Good, op. cit., p. 282.

<sup>33</sup>Audrey Haber and Richard P. Runyon, General Statistics (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Company, 1971), p. 213.

<sup>34</sup>Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 250.      <sup>35</sup>Good, op. cit., p. 354.

<sup>36</sup>Neilson, op. cit., p. 1480.      <sup>37</sup>Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 253.

19. Nonreactive Measure (unobtrusive measure): A measurement is nonreactive when it does not change that which is being measured. It is a passive or unobtrusive measure of behavior and does not introduce stimulus factors to which the subject might otherwise react.<sup>38</sup>
20. Partition (crossbreaks): A numerical tabular presentation of data, usually in frequency or percentage form, in which variables are juxtaposed in order to study the relations between them.<sup>39</sup>
21. Passive: not acting but acted upon; receptive to outside impressions or influences; not active or operating; quiescent; receiving or enduring without resistance.<sup>40</sup>
22. Profession: an occupation usually involving relatively long and specialized preparation on the level of higher education and governed by its own code of ethics.<sup>41</sup>
23. Questionnaire: a term used for almost any kind of instrument that has questions or items to which individuals respond. Although the term is used interchangeably with 'schedule,' it seems to be associated more with self-administered instruments that have items of the closed or fixed alternative type.<sup>42</sup>
24. Reactive Effect of Pretesting: giving a pretest may limit the generalizability of the experimental findings. A pretest may increase or decrease the subjects' sensitiveness to a variable: it may alert them to issues, problems, or events that they might not ordinarily notice. Consequently, these subjects may be no longer representative of the unpretested population from which they came.<sup>43</sup>

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<sup>38</sup>E. J. Webb, D. T. Campbell, R. D. Schwartz and L. Sechrest, Unobtrusive Measures (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966), p. 120.

<sup>39</sup>Kerlinger, op. cit., p. 625. <sup>40</sup>Neilson, op. cit., p. 1651.

<sup>41</sup>Good, op. cit., p. 415. <sup>42</sup>Kerlinger, op. cit., p. 475.

<sup>43</sup>Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 252.

25. Reactive Measure: a measurement is reactive whenever the subject is directly involved in the data collection, and he is reacting to the measurement process itself.<sup>44</sup>
26. Reliability: the relative absence of errors of measurement in a measuring instrument; the accuracy or precision of a measuring instrument.<sup>45</sup>
27. Reliability, split-half: a method used in obtaining test reliability. When the split-half method is used, the test is given only once, but items in it are divided randomly into halves, and the scores tabulated for each half are correlated.<sup>46</sup>
28. Replicate: the systematic repetition of experiments in order to reduce errors due to variation in research variables.<sup>47</sup>
29. Role: a socially prescribed pattern of behavior corresponding to an individual's status in a particular society.<sup>48</sup>
30. Screenplay, motion pictures: the written form of the story prepared for motion-picture production, including description of characters, details of scenes and settings, dialogue, and stage directions.<sup>49</sup>
31. Selection: biases resulting from the differential selection of subjects from the comparison groups. Subjects that are not selected at random and/or pre-tested for equivalence may possess initial differences on the criterion measure that could be mistaken for a treatment difference.<sup>50</sup>
32. Sex Symbol: a female who is extremely attractive sexually; a female whose appearance and personality are sexy.<sup>51</sup>
33. Sexy: exciting or intended to excite sexual desire; erotic, concerned to a large extent with sex.<sup>52</sup>

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<sup>44</sup>Webb, op. cit., p. 120.      <sup>45</sup>Kerlinger, op. cit., p. 431.

<sup>46</sup>Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 316.      <sup>47</sup>Haber, op. cit., p. 178.

<sup>48</sup>Neilson, op. cit., p. 1968.      <sup>49</sup>Ibid., p. 2247.

<sup>50</sup>Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 251.

<sup>51</sup>Harold Wentworth, Dictionary of American Slang, (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1967), p. 459.

<sup>52</sup>David B. Guralnck, Webster's New World Dictionary (New York: The World Publishing Company, 1970), p. 1305.

34. Significance level, 0.05: when an event occurs five percent of the time or less, by chance, some researchers are willing to assert that the results are due to nonchance factors.<sup>53</sup>
35. Statistical Regression: a phenomenon occurring when groups have been selected on the basis of extreme scores. If subjects who do exceptionally well or exceptionally poor on one test are selected into either a 'gifted' or 'remedial' program, respectively, the average score of either of these groups will move toward the mean of the parent population on the second test whether<sup>54</sup> or not the special treatment programs are applied.
36. Stereotype: a fixed standardized conception of the attributes of a class of persons or social values that is not readily modified by evidence of its falsity.<sup>55</sup>
37. Subordinate: placed in a lower order, class, or rank, holding a lower or inferior position, submission to or<sup>56</sup> falling under the control of a higher authority.
38. Supervisor: one that supervises a person, department, organization, or operation; such a person having authority delegated by an employer to hire, transfer, suspend, recall, promote, assign, or discharge another employee or to recommend such action.<sup>57</sup>
39. Talkative: given to or filled with talking; one given to talking; unusual talkativeness; an unchecked, rambling,<sup>58</sup> often foolish, sometimes tedious talkativeness.
40. Validity: the extent to which a test or other measuring instrument fulfills the purpose for which it is used.<sup>59</sup>
41. Validity, content: the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content---the substance, the matter, the topics--of a measuring instrument.<sup>60</sup>

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<sup>53</sup> Haber, op. cit., p. 173. <sup>54</sup> Good, op. cit., p. 526.

<sup>55</sup> Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 250. <sup>56</sup> Neilson, op. cit., p. 2277.

<sup>57</sup> Ibid, op. cit., p. 2296. <sup>58</sup> Good, op. cit., p. 593.

<sup>59</sup> Good, op. cit., p. 593. <sup>60</sup> Kerlinger, op. cit., p. 445.

## VII. SUMMARY

The first chapter of this report has given an introduction to the dissertation, stated the problem, specified the significance of the study, outlined the methodology of the research, pointed out the assumptions and limitations upon which the study is based, and defined the important terms used in the report.

Four additional chapters complete the remainder of the study. They are as follows: (1) Chapter II: Review of the Literature Related to this Study, (2) Chapter III: Description of the Design and Procedure of the Study, (3) Chapter IV: Presentation of the Collected Data as Revealed by the Investigation, and (4) Chapter V: Summary of the Investigation and Recommendations for Further Study.

## CHAPTER II

### I. INTRODUCTION

The literature pertinent to the stereotyping of the role of the female in Walt Disney Productions' screenplays and films has been reviewed in nine categories: (1) the effects of films on children and adults; (2) the female as portrayed as a disciplinarian or not a disciplinarian; (3) the female as depicted as passive or aggressive; (4) the female as pictured as dependent or independent; (5) the female as represented as artistic or not artistic; (6) the female portrayed as mechanical or not mechanical; (7) the female depicted as talkative or not talkative; (8) the female portrayed as a sex symbol or not as a sex symbol and (9) the female in business and the professions pictured as a supervisor or as a subordinate.

### II. THE EFFECT OF FILMS ON CHILDREN AND ADULTS

#### INTRODUCTION

The research related to the effect of films upon children and adults and presented herein falls into three subdivisions. First, a review of the investigations pertinent to the power of films to influence attitude is presented. Second, research associated with the ability of films to

promote cognitive learning is surveyed. Finally, the experiments germane to the effect of motion pictures on psychophysiological and social behavior are examined.

#### A. THE EFFECT OF FILMS UPON ATTITUDE

In 1933, The Committee on Educational Research of The Payne Fund, at the request of the Motion Picture Research Council, made a series of studies concerning the influence of motion pictures upon children and youth. Thurstone and his associates conducted studies designed to change children's attitudes in a given direction by showing them a single motion picture. At the same time Shuttleworth and his colleagues performed studies to determine the influence of the child's total motion picture experience on a wide range of attitudes.

Thurstone studies. This research was conducted in several small towns in Illinois. Attitude scales were administered to the subjects in a pretest-posttest condition. Table 1 on page        provides a graphic summary of the research data. An inspection of the table reveals that in half the cases the findings indicated that the films produced an attitude change in the subjects.

The conclusion drawn by Thurstone that single films do influence attitude changes must be viewed in the perspective of his research procedures. The subjects were volunteer rural students. No inferential statistical tests of significance



were applied to the data. He did not randomly assign subjects or employ control groups. However, his sample size seemed adequate.<sup>61</sup>

Table 1. Summary Data of Thurstone's Film Research

Town	N	Film	Grade	Attitude	Mean Difference
Genoa	133	<u>Four Sons</u>	7-12	Race	.38
Mendota	240	<u>Street of Chance</u>	9-12	Gambling	.00
Princeton	254	<u>Hide Out</u>	9-12	Prohibition	-.01
Geneva	230	<u>Son of the Gods</u>	9-12	Race	1.22*
W.Chicago	235	<u>Welcome Danger</u>	9-12	Race	.17
Genesco	501	<u>Valiant</u>	4-12	Capital Punishment	.05
Batavia	301	<u>Journey's End</u>	7-12	War	.04
Paxton	214	<u>All Quiet on Western Front</u>	9-12	War	.68*
Watseka	276	<u>Criminal Code</u>	7-12	Punishment of Crime	.50*
Galesburg	522	<u>Criminal Code</u>	College	Punishment of Crime	.49*
Aledo	314	<u>Alibi</u>	7-12	Punishment of Crime	.07
Crystal Lake	434	<u>Birth of a Nation</u>	6-12	Race	1.48*

\*Attitude change due to the film claimed by researcher

Thurstone's work is of importance to the present research on Walt Disney Productions films since his experimentation was conducted in theaters. It thus raises the

<sup>61</sup>L. L. Thurstone and Ruth C. Peterson, Motion Pictures and The Social Attitudes of Children (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933), pp. 5-37.

possibility that a single commercial motion picture may influence attitude change in children.

Shuttleworth studies. In these studies, the researchers adopted a survey method, and reviewed a wide range of conducts and attitudes in order to determine the differences between ~~children who attended the movies very frequently and children~~ who attended films only infrequently. Shuttleworth studied 1400 children in grades five to nine. The subjects were from Walden, New York; Dayton, Ohio; and New Haven, Bridgeport and Norwalk, Connecticut. The two groups, one attending the movies two or more times a week and the other attending the moves once a month or less, were equated with respect to sex, age, intelligence, school grade, home background, nationality and community. Table 2 summarizes the Shuttleworth findings. Shuttleworth concluded that the 10 per cent of comparisons which indicated significant differences were caused directly by the movies.<sup>62</sup>

However, when one objectively examines the foregoing research, two points must be mentioned. First, although control of variables by matching was an accepted technique at the time of this study, it is now generally held that it creates more problems than it solves--particularly the problem of regression.<sup>63</sup> Second, the reliability of the questionnaire

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<sup>62</sup> Frank K. Shuttleworth and Mark A. May, The Social Conduct and Attitudes of Movie Fans (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933), pp. 1-93.

<sup>63</sup> Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 259.

which was reported as .34, seems questionable. Nevertheless, the Shuttleworth studies did raise the question of the cumulative impact of movie viewing. Certainly, this could be an essential issue concerning the Walt Disney films due to their special attraction for children.<sup>64</sup>

Table 2. Summary Data of Shuttleworth's  
Film Research

<u>Hypothesis</u>	<u>Conclusion</u>
Movie and non-movie children express different attitudes towards heroes and boobs of the movies.	Partially verified
Movie and non-movie children have different attitudes toward national groups.	Partially verified
Movie and non-movie children have different attitudes toward prohibition.	Partially verified
Movie and non-movie children have different attitudes toward crime.	Partially verified
Movie and non-movie children have different attitudes toward sex.	Partially verified
Movie and non-movie children have different attitudes toward school.	Partially verified
Movie and non-movie children have differences in attitudes toward clothing and the role of clothing in becoming popular.	Verified
Movie and non-movie children have differences in attitudes toward war, the benefits of war, etc.	Not verified
Movie and non-movie children have differences in attitudes toward home and parents.	Partially verified
Movie and non-movie children have differences in attitudes concerning the probability of the hero's escape from threatening danger.	Verified

<sup>64</sup>Shuttleworth, op. cit., p. 85.

Wiese study. Wiese, studying the impact of a militaristic commercial motion picture, Tomorrow the World, on the attitudes of 1500 subjects in Pasadena, Los Angeles, Beverly Hills and Salt Lake City, employed a pretest-posttest design. The attitude changes obtained were statistically significant on four of the twelve topics studied. The experimenter concluded that the film changed the high school students' attitudes about treatment of Jews, the place of women and girls in the family, military training for children and purposes and activities of the Nazi youth organization.<sup>65</sup>

However, the researcher used volunteer subjects which might limit the application of the results. Further, intelligence, sex, or socioeconomic status were not controlled. This lack of a thoroughly controlled group may have led to a "testing effect." Finally, although a large sample was utilized, test validity and reliability were not established.

In spite of the foregoing areas of weakness in the Wiese study, one facet of the research seems particularly pertinent as it relates to the current study of the stereotyping of females in films. It was demonstrated that a film may influence children's attitudes about women and girls.

Rosen study. In this study, the film Gentleman's Agreement was shown to an experimental group of fifty University of Massachusetts students in an attempt to change

<sup>65</sup>Mildred J. Wiese and Stewart G. Cole, "A Study of Children's Attitudes and The Influence of a Commercial Motion Picture," The Journal of Psychology, XXI (January, 1946), p. 151.

their attitude toward Jews. A control group of ninety students participated in the investigation. Both groups were pretested with the Levison-Stanford Questionnaire on Anti-Semitism. On a posttest of the experimental group, 72 per cent showed a favorable change in attitude toward Jews, 26 per cent became more prejudiced and 2 per cent remained unchanged. Of the control group, 47 per cent had a more favorable attitude than before, 52 per cent a less favorable one, and 1 per cent showed no change.<sup>66</sup>

This carefully designed study employed randomization of subjects, a control group and a standardized questionnaire. Thus, major variables were controlled, test "practice effects" were handled and test validity and reliability were established.

This study is important to the present research. It points to the fact that a film effected some change in the attitude of nearly every viewer.

Raths studies. The ability of the film Crossfire to change the attitudes of high school students and adults about racial and religious prejudice was studied by Raths and Trager. An Ohio high school sample of 114 tenth, eleventh and twelfth grade students was tested in a pretest-posttest design. The results indicated that no change in attitude occurred as a result of seeing the film.

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<sup>66</sup> I. C. Rosen, "The Effect of the Motion Picture 'Gentleman's Agreement' on Attitudes Towards Jews," Journal of Social Psychology, XXVI (August, 1948), p. 523.

Adult reactions were obtained from a questionnaire filled out in the lobby of theaters in Boston and Denver, or taken home and returned by mail. In Denver, 334 subjects completed the questionnaire in the lobby. One hundred seventy mailed it back. Four hundred sixty-seven answered the survey in the Boston theater lobby, while 310 returned it by mail. This study also yielded no significant attitude changes. The researchers concluded that Crossfire did not change anyone's basic attitudes.<sup>67</sup>

Again, however, if one examines the research, one discovers that no control group was used in either study. In addition, the adult portion of the research may have utilized a selective sample, since those who attend theaters and mail back questionnaires may be a biased group. Finally, the adults were not pretested.

This research does suggest, however, that a single film may not change attitudes. We must therefore consider the possibility that a single Disney film as well may not sway attitudes.

Kishler study. This experiment was conducted to study the effect that the film Keys of the Kingdom had upon the viewpoint of the audience. The subjects were 815 students in an introductory psychology class at Pennsylvania State University. Before seeing the film, subjects filled out an attitude scale

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<sup>67</sup>L. E. Raths and F. Trager, "Public Opinion and 'Crossfire,'" Journal of Educational Sociology, XXI (February, 1948), p. 345.

measuring religious tolerance. After seeing the film subjects filled out the scale again. Results showed that the differences found were in the direction predicted by the hypotheses, that attitude toward religion, doctrine and church leaders would be more favorable. Only 5 out of 12 of them were statistically significant.<sup>68</sup>

Lack of a control group in the foregoing research may have caused "practice effects" in the testing, as well as incorporating the possibility that specific events occurring between the pretest and posttest may have acted in addition to the treatment variable to produce the results. Kishler's sample group was large enough and varied sufficiently to allow application of results to many college students.

Since this research investigated the attitude change related to a strong main character in the film, it has pertinence to the present study. We must remember that Disney films have strong central characters, all of whom may be influencing the attitudes of children.

Mitnick study. Here the film High Wall was shown to subjects in an attempt to produce changes in feelings of ethnocentrism. One hundred sixty-two students in two high schools in Prince George County, Maryland, participated in the investigation. The treatments utilized were control

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<sup>68</sup> John P. Kishler, "The Effects of Prestige and Identification Factors on Attitude Restructuring and Learning from Sound Films," Technical Report, Pennsylvania State University, March, 1950.

group, film only group, and film with discussion group. Within each level fifty-four subjects were assigned at random to one of the three conditions of the experiment. All subjects were pretested and posttested with a modified form of the California Ethnocentrism Scale. One month after the treatment, the subjects were retested on the E scale to determine retention of attitude change. It was found that both experimental treatments produced significant changes in ethnocentrism. The film-discussion group did not regress significantly from its post-treatment measure when tested one month after treatment, whereas the film-only group did show a change.<sup>69</sup>

This study appears well-designed. A control group along with a pretest-posttest design and random assignment gave rigorous control of most factors that might jeopardize the validity of an experiment. Although the sample group was rather small and selective, thus hindering wide generalization of results, a standardized test of established reliability was employed.

Mitnick's study relates to the present work in that it corroborated the hypothesis that a single showing of a film did affect subject attitude. It was also established that without a discussion of a film's content, subjects may regress to formerly held opinions in a short time.

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<sup>69</sup> Leonard L. Mitnick, Influencing Ethnocentrism in Small Discussion Groups Through a Film Communication (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Maryland, 1956), p. 181.



Sizemore study. This study investigated the use of selected educational films to modify attitudes of prospective teachers toward teacher-pupil interpersonal relationships. Subjects for the study were students enrolled in four sections of the introductory education class and two sections of the introductory psychology class at Northeastern State College.

Experimental and control groups were stratified according to sex and intelligence scores. Positions toward teacher-pupil relationships were measured before and after the film showings by the administration of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. The females of the experimental group manifested a significant attitude change. No comparisons in the intelligence stratification were significant. The comparison of the total control group results with that of the entire experimental group was not significant.<sup>70</sup>

Sizemore's sample may not have been representative of all college students. Most major variables could have been controlled if he would have used randomization of subjects. The control of sex and intelligence variables by matching was certainly an improvement when compared to the research designs of some of the foregoing studies. He did use a control group design to handle testing "practice effects" and the confounding of his treatment by specific events. In addition, he utilized a test of established reliability. Sizemore's

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<sup>70</sup> Oral Glen Sizemore, An Investigation of the Effects of Selected Films on Attitudes of Prospective Teachers Toward Teacher-Pupil Relationships (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1961), pp. 1-137.

investigation is significant to the study at hand, for it suggests that films may be selective in their ability to change the attitude of females.

Edling study. Two films on the advantages of college attendance were shown to 3,431 high school students from eight Oregon high schools. The subjects were high ability students not planning to attend college. Questionnaires were administered to the subjects following the film showings. Edling concluded that the films employed in the study had little impact on large numbers of the subjects. On the other hand, one exposure to a single motion picture appeared to produce significant changes in viewpoint in some individuals.<sup>71</sup>

Although lack of a control group, pretesting and random assignment may limit the study, the sample size seems adequate and the population diverse enough to allow for generalization of the results.

One aspect of the work is especially relevant to the present investigation. We may assume from this research that some individuals observing a Disney film may be swayed in attitudes while others are not.

Wickline study. In an experiment designed to change opinions about science and scientists, Wickline chose an experimental group of 113 and a control group of 131, both of which were pretested and posttested with the Allen Attitude

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<sup>71</sup>Jack V. Edling, A Study of the Effectiveness of Audio-Visual Teaching Materials When Prepared According to the Principle of Motivational Research (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Oregon State University, 1963), pp. 1-117.

Scale. Prior to the posttest the experimental group was shown one film per week until ten films in the Horizons of Science Series had been viewed. The students were in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades at a Philadelphia high school. Results indicated there was not a significant difference in change in outlook between the film and non-film groups.

Furthermore, none of the six variables of grade level, course content, age, total SCAT score, sex, or elective science courses was found to be significantly related to changes in opinion.<sup>72</sup>

One might suggest that the prolonged period of testing may have set the "Hawthorne Effect" into motion in the Wickline study. Nevertheless, this investigator successfully controlled the major variables that operate to confound an experimental study and chose a sample population which affords generalization to similar students in most major urban areas. He employed a standardized measure to provide test validity and reliability.

This study is of consequence to an investigation of Disney films for it indicates that a series of films over a period of time may not significantly alter the attitudes of film viewers.

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<sup>72</sup>Lew Edwin Wickline, The Effect of Motivational Films on the Attitudes and Understandings of High School Students Concerning Science and Scientists (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1964), pp. 1-337.

Scharf study. To determine whether or not a series of mental hygiene films could be utilized to effect changes in sentiment, Scharf employed a sample composed of 150 secondary school low achievers from Phoenix, Arizona. The subjects were randomly drawn from an original population of 1000 low achievers. The principles of randomization were used in assigning the 150 subjects to two experimental groups of fifty each and one group of fifty control subjects. Experimental group A viewed the films and were randomly assigned to groups of ten for discussion of the films. Experimental group B saw the films but did not participate in any discussions. Students comprising control group C did not view the films nor did they take part in any of the discussions. Bills' Index of Attitudes and Values was administered as both pretest and posttest. Analysis of the data revealed that the scores of students in group B (film-only) were significantly different from the scores of all students in either group A or C.<sup>73</sup>

The sample employed was highly selective---low achievers. Thus, the significant differences obtained may be due to the "regression effect." Other aspects of the study are well designed.

The value of this experiment to the study at hand is that it points to the attitude-changing potential of a series

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<sup>73</sup> Albert Scharf, The Effect of Mental Hygiene Films on the Self Concepts and Characteristic Behaviors of Secondary School Low Achievers (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Arizona State University, 1966), pp. 1-401.

of films. Disney Productions have produced several series of movies.

Teahan study. A venture to alter student reaction toward their own and another's race was made by Teahan. He employed an experimental group of 238 subjects and a control group of 184. The students were ninth through twelfth graders. They were from a small Wisconsin city and a large eastern metropolis. Twelve short films representing twelve successful black and white men were shown to the experimental group. Pretesting and posttesting attitude scales were administered to both groups. Significant attitude changes resulted for white but not for black subjects.<sup>74</sup>

Because random assignment was neglected, several important variables may not have been controlled, i.e., intelligence, socioeconomic status, and sex. Teahan, however, did handle the racial and rural-urban factors, thus increasing the generalizability of his results to those populations.

By demonstrating the possible impact a film may have on the feelings of specific racial groups, this study is of value to the present work. It suggests that Disney films may change the beliefs of specific racial groups but not others.

Peri study. The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of a film on the viewpoints toward law of

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<sup>74</sup> John E. Teahan, Some Effects of Audio-Visual Techniques on Aspirational Level and Ethnocentric Shift (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1967), pp. 1-425.

junior high school students. Two hundred thirty-seven Los Angeles eighth graders participated in the study with the subjects assigned randomly to five treatment groups. Treatment one consisted of a single showing of the film; treatment two was made up of two consecutive showings of the same film. The use of a programmed booklet preceding the showing of the film marked treatment three, while treatment four was distinguished by the use of a programmed booklet following the showing of the film. A control group receiving no instruction comprised treatment five. Sex, intelligence, and socioeconomic status were controlled by an analysis of variance design. A fifteen item Likert-type attitudinal inventory was administered to all groups on a pretest-posttest basis. Alternate forms of the test were employed. Statistical tests on the means for the attitudinal inventory indicated that the differences between T3 and T2, T3 and T5, T3 and T1 were all significant. No significant differences were found between T3 and T4 or between T4 and the other treatments.<sup>75</sup>

Peri provided several important factors relevant to the study at hand. He disclosed that a single viewing of a film may produce a change in outlook and that film repetition contributes to the reaction. He revealed that discussion before or after a film is not necessary to alter viewpoints. All of these conditions apply to the review of Disney films.

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<sup>75</sup> Joseph Peri, The Effects of Film Repetition, Programmed Discussion and Audience Set on the Changing of Verbally Professed Attitudes Towards Law (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1968), pp. 1-312.

Derbyshire study. To ascertain if the viewing of films was associated with measurable attitude shift in reading, Derbyshire investigated the reactions of 305 persons. He showed the films at seven Parent-Teacher meetings in Utah. Two forms of a Likert-type attitude scale were administered to the subjects in a pretest-posttest design.<sup>76</sup> In three of the ten cases where the films were tested, the post-viewing mean scores significantly exceeded the pre-viewing mean scores.

A critique of this study must include the following weaknesses: (1) Use of the Parent-Teacher groups was a selective sample. (2) Important variables such as intelligence, sex, and socio-economic status were not handled. (3) The reliability of the tests was not determined. A strength was that the use of the alternate forms of the attitude scale may have helped avoid test "practice effects."

Does this research, however, suggest that Disney Productions films may be affecting audiences in a similar manner? Indeed, it does indicate that attitudes toward some variables may be modified while others remain unchanged. It seems particularly crucial if one remembers that in this study, the transfer from films to reading attitudes is indicated.

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<sup>76</sup> Maurice A. Derbyshire, The Effects of Two Documentary Films Upon Parents' Attitudes Toward the Value of Phonics in Teaching Reading (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Utah State University, 1966), pp. 1-287.

Price study. Price explored the effects that the exposure of black successful models and the combination of black and white models would have on the attitudes of black children. The experimental testing was performed by presenting a combination of six films of black models and six films of white models on a weekly basis to one group of black Indiana children (grades five through eight). Ninety-nine experimental subjects received the film experience and ninety-four control subjects did not view the films. A pretest attitude scale was administered one month prior to the presentation of the first film. Posttesting was done one month after the last film was presented. Alternate scales were used for pretest and posttest measures. No significant differences were found between any of the design conditions.<sup>77</sup>

The prolonged periods of time between pretesting and treatment and posttesting and treatment may have caused a historical confounding of treatment results. Test reliability was low. No attempt was made to control the major variables through randomization or matching.

In spite of the foregoing weakness, the study is pertinent to the present study since it cites the possibility that films may not alter attitudes about race.

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<sup>77</sup> Frank Turner Price, Some Effects of Film-Mediated Professional Models on the Self-Perceptions of Black School Children (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Wayne State University, 1970), pp. 1-295.



Mealy study. A series of films intended to influence feelings toward mathematics were administered once a week for six weeks to seventh grade subjects in Nashville, Tennessee by this investigator. A Solomon four groups experimental design was used to assess the effects of the experiment. Two groups received a pretest, one of which received the experimental treatment and the other group did not. Another two groups did not receive the pretest. One of these groups was experimental and the other was control. Sixty junior high school students were randomly assigned to each of the four groups. Two different measures of attitude response were used in a pretest-posttest format. The dependent measures were the Aiken-Dreger and the Dutton Attitude Scales. A significant overall shift in attitude reactions over the course of the study was disclosed by the attitude measures.<sup>78</sup>

Mealy designed a precise experiment. He achieved this high level of control by utilization of a control group, randomization, and analysis of variance techniques. His Solomon design and highly correlated attitude scales eliminated possible testing effects.

Mealy's work is of particular import to the present research. It is an exacting investigation which has demonstrated that films can alter children's attitudes.

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<sup>78</sup>Edward Clark Mealy, An Evaluation of the Use of Films As An Aid to Changing Students' Attitudes Toward Mathematics (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Peabody College, 1970), pp. 1-315.

Summary of the effect of films upon attitude. As a result of the experimental work discussed in the foregoing pages concerning the effect of films upon the attitudes of viewers, one cannot state that every film has the potential for altering every viewer's attitudes. On the other hand, under certain circumstances, listed below, movies did transform viewpoints.

In the first place, the subject matter of the film did not appear to be a factor in attitude change. In some instances, films based upon such topics as war, prohibition, gambling, crime, home life, religion and school produced attitude change and in other cases, they did not. The research of Thurstone<sup>79</sup> and Shuttleworth<sup>80</sup> support this conclusion. It appeared that other variables, which are discussed below, tended to cause the film topics to be less influential than one might expect. There was one notable exception to this generalization about film subject matter. Movies dealing with ethnic and racial relationships elicited attitudinal reactions in nearly every instance, as pointed out by Thurstone and Shuttleworth research. It may well be that these relationships are so emotionally charged for the viewer that they tend to overrule all logical thought processes.

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<sup>79</sup> Ibid., pp. 5-37.

<sup>80</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-19.

Katz, Sarnoff and McClintock<sup>81</sup> termed this type of viewer "ego-defensive people." They contended that the attitudes these people hold were so crucial to the maintenance of their personalities that some kind of psychiatric treatment would be a necessary forerunner of successful persuasion.

Another generalization that must be stated is that film viewing is a highly individual process. As Rosen<sup>82</sup> demonstrated, no two people's attitudes are affected to exactly the same degree by a film. Thus, a movie which might cause considerable attitude modification for one individual may not affect another person at all. A person's background must be taken into consideration when discussing films and attitude modification. For example, the attitudes of film viewers living in small towns and rural communities were not changed to the degree that those of viewers were who resided in a large city or suburban community.

This point came into focus when the results of the small town studies of Thurstone<sup>83</sup> were contrasted with the results of the large city research conducted by Peri<sup>84</sup> and Scharf<sup>85</sup>. It is possible that the ethnocentrism of the rural community could be the causative factor in this case. Furthermore, elementary

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<sup>81</sup>D. Katz, I. Sarnoff, and C. McClintock, "Ego-Defense and Attitude Change," Human Relations, IX (September, 1956), pp. 27-45.

<sup>82</sup>Ibid., p. 523.

<sup>83</sup>Ibid., pp. 5-37.

<sup>84</sup>Ibid., pp. 1-312.

<sup>85</sup>Ibid., pp. 1-401.

students' attitudes were not altered as much by film viewing as were the attitudes of high school and college students. The secondary and college investigations of Rosen<sup>86</sup>, Edling<sup>87</sup>, and Peri<sup>88</sup>, when contrasted with the elementary studies of Shuttleworth<sup>89</sup>, corroborate this point. Possibly the young child's close identification with the home values may have influenced his reaction to the film. In contrast to this, the tendency for the high school and college student to be independent may have caused them to be subject to attitude alteration by the film medium.

In addition, as demonstrated by Teahan<sup>90</sup>, there was a trend toward attitude modification from film viewing on the basis of racial and ethnic group affiliation. Members of various ethnic and racial groups reacted to films in similar ways. As shown by the work of Price<sup>91</sup>, subcultural identification is a powerful force in attitudinal change. Finally, the blockbuster, big budget film production with but a single attitudinal message was more effective in producing attitudinal alteration than a film or series of films which only treat a topic incidentally. This was especially evident in the research of Thurstone<sup>92</sup>, where such films as "Birth of a Nation" and "All

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<sup>86</sup> Ibid., p. 523.

<sup>87</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-117

<sup>88</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-312.

<sup>89</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-19.

<sup>90</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-425.

<sup>91</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-295.

<sup>92</sup> Ibid., pp. 5-37.

"Quiet on the Western Front" may be compared with lesser known productions dealing with similar subjects. It may well be that these films drew conclusions for the audience and thus increased the likelihood of attitude change.

This opinion is corroborated by the communication studies of Hovland.<sup>93</sup>

It can be concluded, therefore, that some viewers, under the specific conditions mentioned above, may undergo attitude changes while others will not.

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<sup>93</sup>C. Hovland, I. Janis, and H. Kelly, Communication and Persuasion. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1953, p. 65.

## B. THE EFFECTS OF FILMS UPON COGNITIVE LEARNING

Holaday study. This researcher focused his attention on the question of children's recollection of facts as influenced by viewing films. Seventeen commercial films were shown to more than 3,000 Illinois children with the subjects ranging in age from eight to sixteen years old. Following the viewing of a film, the children were tested on a recall test. Results indicated that eight-year-old children could recall three out of every five facts; subjects eleven years of age remembered three of every four facts; while fifteen and sixteen year olds recalled nine of every ten facts. When tested again after six weeks, the subjects remembered 90 per cent of the facts known one day after the screening, and three months later this retention figure was still 90 per cent.<sup>94</sup>

There are certain limitations to the work of Holaday. No attempt was made to control for prior achievement. Other important variables such as intelligence, socioeconomic status and sex were disregarded. The test reliability and content validity were not determined. On the other hand, the

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<sup>94</sup>P. W. Holaday and G. D. Stoddard, Getting Ideas from the Movies (New York: Macmillan Company, 1933), p. 55.

Holaday research overlooked the need for a control group and the equating of his subjects. Further, test validity and reliability were neglected. However, he controlled for prior achievement by adding the pretest-posttest condition to his experiment.

The study relates to the present report in a two-fold manner: first, many Disney films are science oriented; second, it is not uncommon for children to view Disney films more than once. It may thus be suggested that repeated viewing of Disney films will result in substantial increments in learning.

Nunnally study. This study sought to discover what knowledge was gained by five-year-old children by viewing Spotty: Story of a Fawn and Hoppy, the Bunny. An experimental group of sixty children was chosen at random from the kindergarten children of four large city schools in Indianapolis. The data gathered were from a pretest given before the subjects saw the films and a posttest given the same day the children viewed each film. A tape recorder was used throughout the interviews and tests so the investigator could later judge conceptual understandings. Learning scores were very significant.<sup>95</sup>

Although the researchist failed to establish the reliability or validity of her judgments of conceptual

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<sup>95</sup> Nancy Nunnally, Primary Films as a Factor in Promoting Conceptual and Factual Learnings in Kindergarten Children (Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Indiana University, 1955), pp. 1-232.

learning ratings, on the whole, the Nunnally research was well designed. The random assignment of subjects and the pretest-posttest technique controlled for most major factors.

This research raises the question of films teaching higher level cognitive aspects, i.e. concepts. It adds evidence to the hypothesis that films teach facts. Therefore, the experiment is important in a study of the stereotyping of females in Disney films.

Fullerton study. Fullerton set out to determine the impact of color and black and white guidance films employed with and without "anticipatory" remarks upon acquisition and retention of factual information. The 551 subjects were eleventh and twelfth grade students from Clinton, Elk City, Hydro and Weatherford, Oklahoma. The students were randomly assigned to treatment groups. Group A received instruction from color films; group B was read "anticipatory" remarks and shown color films; group C viewed black and white films; group D was read "anticipatory" remarks and received instruction from black and white films; and group E was the control group. Three tests were administered: a pretest, a post-measure, and a retention test given six weeks after the film presentations. Black and white films emerged significantly superior to color film. Groups who received instruction exclusively from films emerged significantly superior to groups who gained instruction from films employing "anticipatory" remarks. All film groups were significantly superior



to the control group on measures for both acquisition and retention of factual data.<sup>96</sup>

In spite of the fact that the rather rural nature of the sample population does restrict the application of results and that Fullerton did not establish the reliability or validity of his dependent measure, in terms of overall design this is a rigorously controlled study. Random assignment, a control group, and the pretest-posttest condition give it a high level of variable control.

This study is relevant to research on Disney films in that it demonstrates the possibility that color is not a factor in learning from a film. It also provides data that establish the possibility of facts gained from films being retained up to six weeks. Finally, it illustrates the fact that films without any comment may promote factual learning.

Kantor study. Three versions of a film entitled The Sunfish were prepared. They included a control version and two experimental versions. One experimental version had questions before the content and the other had questions after the content. The population for the study consisted of 617 seventh grade pupils in three schools in widely differing areas of Los Angeles. All students took a pretest; one week

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<sup>96</sup> Billie J. Fullerton, The Comparative Effect of Color and Black and White Guidance Films Employed With and Without "Anticipatory" Remarks Upon Acquisition and Retention of Factual Information (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1956), pp. 1-365.

later they saw one version of the film and took a posttest; five weeks after the posttest they took a retention test. Kantor stratified his data for intelligence, socioeconomic status and sex variable analysis. He reported no significant differences in the test results due to sex. He found that pupils with high I.Q. did significantly better on each film version than those of low I.Q. Pupils with high socioeconomic status did significantly better than pupils in average socioeconomic situation, who in turn did significantly better than those in low socioeconomic settings. No significant differences between film versions were found.<sup>97</sup>

One important criticism of this study is that Kantor used the analysis of variance and analysis of covariance without random assignment of subjects. This may be a violation of the assumptions on which these statistical tests are built. Another is that he did not utilize a control group. Thus, test "practice effects" are possible. However, the sample drawn from divergent areas of Los Angeles does give his results wide application.

With relation to the present investigation, this study indicates that films may be able to teach factual information to subjects who are one of the target groups of Disney film productions.

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<sup>97</sup> Bernard R. Kantor, An Exploratory Study of the Effects of Inserted Questions in the Body of Instructional Films (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Southern California, 1959), pp. 1-410.

Murphy study. Murphy endeavored to determine the relative effectiveness of filmed introductions to the motion picture, Learning About Light. A seventy-two item test measured factual learning of the content of the picture. Its validity was established by content item analysis. The reliability of the test was .94. Two hundred and seventy-one seventh grade subjects of a Boston junior high school participated in the experiment, and were randomly assigned to five treatment groups and one control group. A pretest-posttest and retention design was employed. It was found that for whole groups, all film treatments produced results significantly superior to no treatment (test only), none of the various filmed introductions produced differences significantly superior to the film-only treatment, but all film treatments produced significant levels of retention.<sup>98</sup>

Murphy's design is meticulously prepared. He provided for random assignment, a control group, and a pretest-posttest condition. He further established the validity and reliability of his measuring instrument.

Once again an experiment is relevant to the work at hand because of the age of the subjects involved. It is also of import due to the fact that a film-only treatment was as effective as experimental films which had been designed to enhance learning.

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<sup>98</sup> Francis Eugene Murphy, The Relative Effectiveness of Filmed Introductions to a General Science Motion Picture (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Boston University, 1961), pp. 1-423.

Kazem study. This investigation was designed to compare the effectiveness of informational-expository type films to the historical-dramatic type films in increasing the understanding of the scientific method by subjects. The subjects for the study were 480 tenth-grade biology students from four Detroit public schools. There were four experimental groups at each school. Group one was an experimental group which viewed the two informational-expository films; group two was an experimental section that saw the two historical-dramatic films; group three was an experimental group which was shown one informational and one historical film, and group four was a control group. Understanding of the scientific method was measured by the Keeslar Scientific Test. This test had established validity and reliability which was adequate, and was used as a pretest-posttest for each of the groups. Subjects were matched for grade level, pretest achievement, intelligence, reading ability, sex, chronological age, and school. It was found that the informational-expository films, the historical-dramatic films, or the two types in combination, contributed significantly to increased understanding of the elements of the scientific method. The informational-expository films made a significantly greater contribution to this understanding than the historical-dramatic films, but not significantly greater than the combination of films.<sup>99</sup>

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<sup>99</sup> Ahmed Kazem, An Experimental Study of the Contribution of Certain Instructional Films to the Understanding of the Elements of the Scientific Method by Tenth-grade High School Biology Students (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Michigan, 1960), pp. 1-258.

Kazem's experiment has certain limitations. A highly selective sample, tenth-grade biology students was used. He attempted to match subjects. Although he equalized a great number of factors, random assignment would have afforded greater control. On the other hand, he presented evidence regarding the reliability and content validity of the dependent measure. He also used a control group. The fact that the study was performed in Detroit makes the results applicable to other urban tenth-grade biology students.

The import this study brings to the current experiment focusing on the Disney movies is that Kazem demonstrated a film can teach higher level thought processes. His research further suggests that informational-type Disney films may occasion more learning of these higher cognitions than the more dramatic Disney productions.

Snow study. Snow performed an investigation of the impact of personal characteristics of learners in relation to the extent of their factual learning from instructional films and from conventional "live" presentations of the same material. Fourteen variables covering the range of pertinent individual differences were included in this research. A series of nineteen films and nineteen corresponding "live" physics presentations were used in an introductory physics course at Purdue University. A total of 437 undergraduates was randomly divided into film and "live" demonstration groups. Using a physics achievement pretest, the sections

were further divided into high, middle, and low previous knowledge of physics sub-groups. All sections received the same posttests and retention tests. Snow concluded that personal characteristics of learners determine to a significant extent, the amount of learning derived by individual audience members in given learning context. Conventional presentation was significantly superior to filmed presentation among students displaying unfavorable attitudes toward instructional films. Filmed presentation was significantly superior to "live" presentation among students displaying favorable attitudes toward films.<sup>100</sup>

Although the foregoing study could have been improved by use of a control group, a validated reliable measure and a broader based sample group, in general it was fairly well designed since variables were controlled by both randomization and a factorial design.

This research related to the present study in at least two respects: first, it emphasized the eminence of individual differences in learning from films; second, it stressed the import of a viewer's attitude toward the learning mode. Visually motivated learners may learn more from Disney films than students with other learning styles.

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<sup>100</sup> Richard E. Snow, Effects of Learner Characteristics in Learning from Instructional Films (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Purdue University, 1963), pp. 1-352.

Gibbs study. This study was framed to determine the effectiveness of a series of Biological Science Curriculum Study single topic films to improve the ability of high school biology students to construct hypotheses relevant to selected questions from the investigator's test. Data for the study were collected from 800 high school subjects enrolled in thirty biology classes in four Indiana high schools. The experimental treatment consisted of presenting the subjects with a series of five different BSCS films. The students were then asked to construct relevant hypotheses by writing the statement on an answer sheet. The control group did not see the films. Two additional BSCS films which were not included in the training procedure were administered to both groups as a pretest and posttest. It was concluded that the ability of high school biology students to construct relevant hypotheses was significantly improved through the use of the BSCS films.<sup>101</sup>

Gibbs neglected to control most major variables such as intelligence, sex, and socioeconomic status. In addition, he did not determine the validity and reliability of the dependent measure. However, he used an adequate sample which would allow for extensive generalization of his findings. He provided a control group and pre- and posttesting.

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<sup>101</sup> Ronald Gibbs, An Analysis of the Effectiveness of the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study Single Topic Films in Teaching Hypotheses Construction to High School Biological Students (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Indiana University, 1967), pp. 1-437.

Nevertheless, because this study reemphasizes the ability of films to teach high level skills, it is of import to this work. Disney films may be teaching complex understanding.

Schell study. Eight hundred and twenty-nine eighth-grade students from a Los Angeles suburban school district served as subjects for an experiment performed by Schell. He randomly assigned the students to one of twelve groups. The groups were then assigned varied treatments involving pre-testing, film viewing, immediate posttesting and delayed posttesting. Four control groups viewed no film. The remaining eight groups saw one of two available fifteen-minute films dealing with drug abuse. Changes measured between pretest and posttest were not significant.<sup>102</sup>

Schell designed one of the most rigorously controlled experiments in this section of the present report. He utilized randomization, multiple control groups, and pre- and posttesting to control variables. The main limitation in the work is that he failed to establish the validity and reliability of his tests.

This study is one of consequence to the current investigation for it stresses the possibility that films may not teach facts under certain conditions. We may therefore

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<sup>102</sup>William R. Schell, The Influence of the Passage of Time on Effects Resulting from Viewing Film on Drug Abuse (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1969), pp. 1-254.



conclude that, at times, Disney films may not enhance learning of facts.

Edwards study. This study set out to determine if the skill of business machine operation could be as effectively learned from filmed demonstration as from traditional classroom instruction. A series of twenty-two films was produced to demonstrate the operations of the business machines used in the course. Two college business machine classes at Michigan State University provided the subjects for the experiments. The classes were each randomly divided, with one-half becoming part of the control group, and the other, part of the experimental group. The control group met at the regularly scheduled time. The experimental group received its instruction individually. Subjects were allowed to use the films and machines at any time between 8:00 a.m. and 5:00 p.m. At the end of ten weeks of treatment, both groups took an identical final examination. There proved to be a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in favor of the experimental treatment.<sup>103</sup>

The amount of time available for students to practice on the machines varied in favor of the experimental group. The experimental group received "tutorial" instruction while the control group worked in a group setting. Both of these

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<sup>103</sup> Ronald Edwards, An Experimental Study in the Teaching of Business Machines Utilizing an Audio-Visual-Tutorial Laboratory Approach with Continuous-Loop Sound Films (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Michigan State University, 1969), pp. 1-179.

factors should have been controlled. A nonreactive measure was built into the normal classroom testing procedure. This may have controlled the "Hawthorne Effect."

This is another experiment that confirmed the fact that learning of skills may be affected by films. It is, therefore, most appropriate to be included in a research study focusing on the effects of films.

McLellan study. McLellan investigated the value of employing films in the teaching of rhythmical gymnastics to college women physical education majors. A detailed presentation of beginning and intermediate skills was included in each of the three films used in the study. Subjects for the experiment were 170 sophomore and junior physical education majors attending Wisconsin State University. The subjects were randomly assigned to treatment groups. The experimental group received instruction in rhythmical gymnastics by the investigator with the aid of films. The control group was given instruction by the same instructor without the aid of films. Students were evaluated on the skills by five qualified judges. Kendell's coefficient of concordance was computed to determine the degree of relationship among the five judges. It was concluded that the agreement was higher than it would have been by chance expectations. In an attempt to determine if any differences existed between the experimental and control groups, the Mann-Whitney U test was utilized. The results yielded isolated cases of significance in one club

skill test and five hoop skill tests in favor of the control groups. No significant differences were found for any other skills.<sup>104</sup>

The only weakness that the current researcher could determine in this study was that the sample group may be too selective to permit wide application. On the other hand, McLellan controlled all major variables in her study. She combined randomization and posttesting to eliminate the need for pretesting. Control groups were also provided. The instructional factor was held constant and the reliability of the experts' judgments was determined.

This study is allied to the present research. It points to the fact that viewers may learn specific physical education skills and not other gymnastic skills even though a high correlation exists between the various tasks. It may be concluded that at times films may or may not effectively teach certain physical education skills.

Nystrom study. This research was planned to determine the associative effectiveness of animated films compared to the conventional lecture method of teaching engineering graphics. The two methods of instruction were applied to 400 beginning engineering students at Texas A & M University. A pretest and posttest were administered to determine each student's gain on the units of instruction. A test of

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<sup>104</sup> Mary McLellan, An Experiment Using Three Films in Rhythmical Gymnastics Using Hand Apparatus (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Iowa, 1969), pp. 1-342.

retention was administered four weeks after the posttest. The reliability coefficients of the tests ranged from .67 to .82. Five instructors were utilized in the study. It was found that the experimental method produced significant gains under the pretest-posttest comparison. The experimental method resulted in significantly higher test of retention scores.<sup>105</sup>

Weaknesses in the foregoing study might include the following: the experimenter did not equate his subjects by random assignment or matching techniques; thus, major variables were not controlled. No attempt was made to control the instructor factor which resulted when five teachers were utilized in the experiment. Further, without a control group test "practice effects" may have occurred. One important strength must also be noted: the reliability of the test was established.

The Nystrom study indicated that animated films are indeed more effective than the conventional lecture method in skill learning retentions over a period of time. His study relates to the present work since it suggests the possibility that skills taught by Disney films may be retained longer than those taught by a teacher in a more conventional manner.

Woodman study. The purpose of Woodman's experiment was to determine if students who saw selected PSSC films, in

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<sup>105</sup> Dennis C. Nystrom, An Experimental Comparison of Sound Animated Films and Conventional Lecture-Demonstration Methods of Teaching Selected Units in Engineering Graphics (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Texas A & M University, 1969), pp. 1-412.

conjunction with the PSSC high school physics course, differed in their achievement of subject matter of physics or in their understanding of science from similar subjects who did not see the films. The criterion tests used were the PSSC Achievement Tests and the Test on Understanding Science. A total of 486 students in nine high schools in Massachusetts participated in the study. Subjects were divided into three treatment groups, one which saw no science films during the year-long investigation, a second which saw only fifteen PSSC films closely related to the questions on the PSSC tests, and a third which saw only fifteen PSSC films unrelated to the PSSC tests. The PSSC tests were administered at the appropriate points in the course, and the TOUS was administered as a pretest and again as a posttest. The statistical method employed was an analysis of covariance. Woodman found that with the PSSC tests, significant differences were obtained between students who saw no films and those who saw fifteen related films, in favor of the no-film group. No significant differences were found between students who saw related films and those who saw unrelated films. No significant differences were found on the TOUS between any of the groups.<sup>106</sup>

There is a possibility ~~that~~ this study may have difficulties in regards to history, maturation, and sample mortality due to the length of the treatment period. The analysis

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<sup>106</sup> Charles Woodman, The Influence of Selected Physical Science Study Committee Films on Certain Learning Outcomes (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Boston University, 1970), pp. 1-382.

of covariance may have been improperly employed. The subjects were not randomly assigned. No attempt was made to control the teacher factor. Nevertheless, because of the use of standardized tests, the experimenter was certain of the validity and reliability of his measures. The sample utilized in the study affords broad generalization.

Because the films are science oriented, as are many Disney Productions films, this study is relevant to the current investigation. These science films did not significantly affect viewer learning; therefore, Disney movies may not teach science.

Dennison study. This investigator developed a series of eight films for teaching basic electronic fundamentals. A pretest was administered to 110 participating Texas A & M students. Six weeks later a posttest was given. Three teachers were involved in the investigation, each of whom taught an experimental group and a control group. The experimental method was comprized of the conventional method supplemented by films. The researcher concluded that significant differences in favor of the experimental method had occurred in the areas of student achievement, initial learning, and retention.<sup>107</sup>

The sample group in this research was rather select. In addition, the researcher made no attempt to validate the

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<sup>107</sup> Bobby Dennison, The Effectiveness of Eight Millimeter Films for Teaching Selected Electronic Fundamentals (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Texas A & M University, 1970), pp. 1-187.

content of his test or establish its reliability. Possible test "practice effects" were not controlled. Intelligence, sex, and socioeconomic status were not handled. Even so, the teacher effect was adequately controlled in this investigation. This was accomplished by the use of the counter-balanced design.

Once again, however, a study is related to the present research because it raises the question of whether or not a film is capable of teaching facts and concepts of science. One must remember that many Disney films are science oriented, e.g. The Absentminded Professor series.

Peters study. Community resource site films were produced and utilized in this endeavor to affect student cognitive and concept development about the environment of given social settings. Two hundred randomly selected seventh grade students in Portland, Maine, served as subjects. A non-standardized achievement recall test and a concepts-principles questionnaire were the evaluative instruments. The experimental group viewed the films while the control group subjects toured the selected sites which were the locations for the film productions. These sites related to processes of manufacturing and mass production. Upon completion of the three tours or viewing of each film an appropriate recall test was administered to the subjects in both groups. The statistical analysis utilized to compare the group performance on the

recall test(s) and concept-principles questionnaire indicated no significant differences between the two treatments.<sup>108</sup>

Test validity was not established by Peters. However, by employment of randomization and a unique method of control Peters designed a sound study. He established the reliability of his dependent measuring instruments by administering the tests to a randomly selected pilot test group.

This study is important to the present investigation in that it demonstrates that films as well as actual experience, may generate factual and conceptual learning in subjects. In addition, the age of the subjects studied is of import since it is so similar to the age of the target audience of Disney films.

Hughes study. The use of six films designed to provide instructions for performing an experiment in introductory physics was compared with traditional instruction. A laboratory achievement test was constructed and administered in a pilot study. The measure's reliability was established. The test content was validated by three physics professors at North Texas State University. All students in a non-technical general physics course at North Texas State served as subjects. There were fifty-four experimental and fifty-three control students. The laboratory achievement test was administered as a pretest and posttest. The experimental

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<sup>108</sup>Oakes Peters, Utilization of Field Trips and Sound Film Simulations to Affect Student Cognition and Concept Development (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Rochester, 1971), pp. 1-414.



group was instructed by the laboratory method films for six experiments, while the control group was taught traditionally. Because no statistically significant differences were found between the groups, it was concluded that laboratory method film instruction and traditional instruction were equally effective for the subjects.<sup>109</sup>

Hughes' inattention to equating his subjects on the major variables may have biased his findings. Further, the sample may have been so small that it was mathematically impossible to obtain statistically significant differences between the groups. Sufficient attention was given, however, to establishing the reliability and validity of his measures.

Hughes revealed in his research that subjects learned as well from films as from traditional teaching. A generalization appropriate to the current research is that Disney films may be as pivotal in a child's learning as the classroom.

#### Summary of the effect of films upon cognitive learning.

Numerous investigations of film learning were reviewed in this section. This research was placed into three classifications for summary purposes. First, studies pertinent to learning and recall of factual material were abstracted. Next, a synopsis of film research germane to higher levels of learning skills was presented. Last, a compendium of investigations of retention of facts or skills gained from motion pictures was given.

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<sup>109</sup> James Hughes, A Comparison of Laboratory Method Films with Traditional Instruction in the Introductory Physics Laboratory (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, North Texas State University, 1972), pp. 1-349.

To begin with, it was demonstrated by Holaday<sup>110</sup> and Nunnally<sup>111</sup> that elementary-age children learn factual material from films more readily than from traditional methods of instruction. In contrast to this, the junior high studies of Kantor<sup>112</sup>, Murphy<sup>113</sup>, Schell<sup>114</sup>, and Peters<sup>115</sup> showed that in only half the instances studied films were more effective in teaching facts than other instructional techniques. Finally, Woodman<sup>116</sup>, Snow<sup>117</sup>, and Hughes<sup>118</sup>, who studied films and factual learning during the high school and college years, did not find any instances in which films were more effective than other teaching techniques. One possible explanation of this decrease in the effectiveness of films is that films may be overused by teachers. As they progress through the grades, learners may tire of the film-learning technique. Snow<sup>119</sup> has purposed that to learn from movies one must have a favorable attitude toward them.

In comparison to factual learning, higher level learning from films tended to remain effective throughout the educational experience of the learner. Whether it was learning concepts in

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<sup>110</sup> Ibid., p. 55.

<sup>112</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-410.

<sup>114</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-254.

<sup>116</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-382.

<sup>118</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-349.

<sup>111</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-232.

<sup>113</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-423.

<sup>115</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-414.

<sup>117</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-352.

<sup>119</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-352.

the elementary school, understanding processes in the junior high, understanding the scientific method in high school or employing principles of engineering graphics as a college student, learners continued to learn from films. The studies of Nunnally<sup>120</sup>, Peters<sup>121</sup>, Kazem<sup>122</sup>, and Nystrom<sup>123</sup> substantiated these findings. It may well be that films that are produced to instruct at levels beyond the factual are novel enough to sustain a favorable attitude among learners.

Finally, studies pertaining to the retention of learning from films were in accord. Factual or higher level material once learned was retained for several weeks. This finding cut across all age levels. For example, Holaday<sup>124</sup> found that elementary students retained factual data from commercial entertainment films for at least twelve weeks. Furthermore, Kantor's<sup>125</sup> junior high pupils retained scientific factual information for five weeks. In addition to this, Fullerton's<sup>126</sup> high school subjects remembered guidance concepts for six weeks. Last, the college students in Nystrom's<sup>127</sup> study retained engineering graphics concepts for at least four weeks.

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<sup>120</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-232.

<sup>122</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-258.

<sup>124</sup> Ibid., p. 55.

<sup>126</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-365.

<sup>121</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-414.

<sup>123</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-412.

<sup>125</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-410.

<sup>127</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-412.

These findings are substantiated by Hovland's classic study of the "Why We Fight" movies used during World War II.<sup>128</sup> He found that some learnings were more in the desired direction after nine weeks than after five days. This was termed the " sleeper effect."

Hence, it can be concluded that films teach facts more effectively to younger learners. In addition to this, it can be said that films teach high level learning skills equally well to learners of all ages. It may also be concluded that learners retain both factual and high level learning for a relatively long period of time.

#### C. THE EFFECT OF FILM UPON PSYCHOPHYSIOLOGICAL AND SOCIAL BEHAVIOR

Dysinger study. One hundred fifty subjects were tested to determine the influence of filmed scenes showing dangerous situations, conflicts, tragic events, and erotic content. The subjects were from New York City. They were divided into three different age groups, six through twelve years, thirteen through eighteen years, and nineteen years old and over. A galvanometer and a pneumocardiograph were utilized to measure subject skin conductance reactions to the selected film scenes. Results indicated that film sequences involving danger, conflict,

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<sup>128</sup> C. Hovland, A. Lumsdaine, and F. Sheffield, Experiments on Mass Communication, Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1949.

and tragedy had the greatest effect on the group of six through twelve year olds; the reactions of the thirteen through eighteen year olds fell off rapidly and were weakest with subjects over nineteen years old. The youngest group was least influenced by romantic and erotic scenes. The greatest film influence was found for the group of thirteen through eighteen year olds.<sup>129</sup>

In the foregoing research, the use of a paid sample may have provided a population with biased characteristics. Reactive effects may also have occurred due to the presence of the experimental equipment. No attempt was made to obtain a baseline reaction pattern for the subjects. Finally, the use of selected scenes may have provided a different experience than that received from viewing scenes in context.

Dysinger's work, however, does relate to the present study in an important way. He has raised the possibility of scenes of danger, conflict, tragedy, and romance eliciting strong emotional reactions from viewers. Disney films often contain the above aspects.

Wall study. This was a study of the influence of cinema films on social conduct of 2,160 London, England, boys and girls between thirteen and seventeen years of age. A questionnaire was administered to the students concerning

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<sup>129</sup>Wendill S. Dysinger and C. A. Ruckmick, Motion Pictures and Standards of Morality (New York: Macmillan, 1933), p. 122.

behavior in films which they believed to have been imitated by their contemporaries. The following behaviors were cited most frequently as giving rise to imitation: manners of dress and hairdress, courtship techniques, and style of dancing, relaxing, and walking. Wall concluded that imitation inspired by films was more widespread among girls than boys, and that one-third of the female subjects copied their behavior from films. At least one-third of all subjects imitated courtship techniques seen in films.<sup>130</sup>

Wall made no endeavor to determine the validity or reliability of his questionnaire. In addition, the subjects were asked to make subjective judgments about the behavior or their contemporaries without an effort being made to establish the reliability of the subjects as raters of behavior. On the other hand, the experiment provided a large sample which would afford generalization of results to most English adolescents.

Since this study points to the possible large influence of films on the imitative behavior of females, it is of import to a study of the stereotyping of females in Disney films. Thus, females may copy actions from Disney films whereas males may not.

Walters study. A study of the enhancement of punitive behavior by use of the film Rebel Without a Cause was conducted

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<sup>130</sup> William Wall and W. A. Simson, "The Effects of Cinema Attendance on the Behaviour of Adolescents as Seen by their Contemporaries," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XI (February, 1949), pp. 53-61.

by Walters. Twenty-eight male hospital attendants served as subjects. Fourteen were randomly assigned to the experimental condition and fourteen to the control group. Experimental subjects were shown the test film while controls viewed the innocuous film, Picture Making by Teenagers. After seeing the films, the subjects were to administer punishment, in the form of electric shocks to the experimenter's confederate when he gave wrong answers to questions about the film. A trial run supplied a pretest measurement. The posttest series of trials on the learning task followed the film. The mean intensity setting selected by the subjects was calculated for each subject for the pretest and posttest trials. The results of the study indicated that exposure to the film containing aggressive content resulted in a significantly greater willingness in the experimental subjects to inflict pain. Walters replicated the study with male and female adolescents. He obtained comparable results.<sup>131</sup>

Walters' use of electronic equipment may have brought the "Hawthorne Effect" into play. The sample group for his primary study was small and select, but he broadened this by his replications. The use of random assignment, a control group and the pretest to establish a reaction baseline were aspects which strengthened this study.

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<sup>131</sup>Richard H. Walters, Edward Llewellyn, and Thomas C. Acker, "Enhancement of Punitive Behavior by Audio Visual Displays," Science, CXXXVI (June, 1962), p. 872.

Due to the fact that some Disney Productions films have scenes of violence, Walters' work is especially applicable. The stereotype of the aggressive male and the weak female may be enhanced by Disney films in spite of the fact that Walters did not find this distinction.

Bandura study. Forty-eight boys and forty-eight girls enrolled in the Stanford University Nursery School participated in this investigation of the imitation of film models. The subjects were divided into three experimental groups and one control group of twenty-four students each. One group of experimental subjects observed real-life aggressive models aggressing toward an inflated Bobo doll. A second group observed the same aggression portrayed on film. A third test group viewed a film depicting an aggressive cartoon character. The control group students had no exposure to aggression and were tested in the classroom situation. Following the exposure experience, subjects were tested for the amount of imitation of aggression in a classroom setting. The experimenter and a nursery school teacher rated the subjects on four five-point scales which measured imitative aggression. The subjects were rated independently by both judges in order to permit an assessment of interrater reliability. The reliability of the composite aggression score was .80. The results obtained provided evidence that there was a statistically significant difference in aggressive imitation between the experimental and control subjects. Subjects who viewed the



aggressive models on film or in person exhibited nearly twice as much aggression as the subjects in the control group.<sup>132</sup>

The sample for this experiment was very select, and the "Halo Effect" may have operated in the matching and rating of the subject's aggression levels because of the use of the regular teacher as a judge. The investigator did eliminate the use of elaborate experimental equipment used in some of the above studies. Bandura also endeavored to establish a baseline of aggressive behavior in addition to determining the judges' reliability.

Because Disney films are seen by many nursery school children of similar socioeconomic status as the subjects in this study, Bandura's work applies to the present report. It is possible that aggressive behaviors may be copied by the very young viewer of Disney films.

Berkowitz study. In this report eighty-eight male University of Wisconsin students were first either angered or not angered by one of two experimenters. Then equal numbers of control and experimental subjects met each experimenter who had been introduced either as a college boxer or as a speech major. The subjects were randomly assigned to the treatment groups. The experimenter who had been presented as a boxer acted insulting in the introductory meeting, while the researchist who portrayed a speech major acted

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<sup>132</sup> Albert Bandura, Dorothea Ross and Sheila Ross, "Imitation of Film Models," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, LXVI (January, 1963), p. 3.

neutral. After the subject had had his session with one experimenter, the other showed the subject a motion picture. Half of the experimental and control subjects saw a seven minute prize-fight film while the other half viewed an equally long movie about horse racing. By using questionnaires as a dependent measure, it was found that the deliberately angered subjects directed significantly more hostility at the boxer experimenter when they had seen the fight film. On the other hand, angered subjects who had seen the racing film showed no significant difference in hostility to the boxer experimenter. Berkowitz concluded that people who have recently been angered and have then seen filmed aggression will be more likely to act aggressively than people who have not had those experiences. It is of import that the strongest attacks will be directed at those who are most directly connected with the provocation.<sup>133</sup>

The one limiting factor in this study is that the reliability of the questionnaire was not determined. To his credit Berkowitz eliminated the difficulty of "reactive effects" to equipment and employed randomization and a control group very effectively. The University of Wisconsin male students affords generalization to a large population.

This study is related to the present work in two vital respects. First, it points to the psychological mental set of the film viewer. An angry observer is more likely to learn aggression from a Disney film than a neutral theater attender.

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<sup>133</sup> Leonard Berkowitz, "The Effects of Observing Violence," Scientific American, CCX (February, 1964), p. 35.

Second, if aggression is learned by an angry viewer from a Disney film, it may be directed at those who angered him.

Hill study. Hill planned this unique study to explore the possibility of the utilization of a film in increasing children's willingness to approach dogs. A pretest and post-test assessment of avoidance behavior was made by asking the children to walk toward a large German shepherd in a play pen at the end of an eighteen-foot runway. If they approached to zero feet, they were asked to pet and feed the dog. Of forty preschool boys in Richmond, Virginia, eighteen did not approach to zero feet. These children were divided into two groups, matched for initial avoidance, and used in the experiment. The subjects in the film group saw an eleven-minute film sequence depicting interactions between a large German shepherd and a child their sex and age. The control group did not see the film. The subsequent posttest revealed that eight of the nine boys in the film group now approached to pet and feed the dog. Only one of the nine control subjects approached to zero feet. This was a statistically significant difference in favor of the film group.<sup>134</sup>

Other than the use of the small selective sample, this is a precisely planned and executed study. The unobtrusive dependent measure is a unique feature. The matching of subjects coupled with the avoidance pretest equalized the

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<sup>134</sup> Jae H. Hill, Robert M. Liebert, and David E. Mott, "Vicarious Extinction of Avoidance Behavior Through Films," Psychological Reports, XXII (February, 1968), p. 192.

experimental and control groups on the variable under study. This study is germane because almost all Walt Disney films involve animals. The possibility that these movies are stereotyping the behaviors of boys and girls with animals is eminent. Hill demonstrated the power of films to direct behavior.

Fryrear study. Thirty boys and thirty girls of nursery school age in Columbia, Missouri, were assigned to one of three groups: (1) a group which observed an adult male model demonstrating affectionate behavior, (2) a group which observed an adult female model showing affectionate behavior, or (3) a control group. The modeled behavior was presented by means of a film and consisted of a sequence of affectionate responses displayed toward a small stuffed clown. The subjects were brought into a room individually by the experimenter with the explanation that the child could play with some toys and watch a film. After the four-minute film, the subject was given the same box of toys and allowed to play with any of them for a period of eight minutes. While the subject was playing, a scorer in the back of the room noted the child's actions each five seconds. The control children played with the toys without seeing the film. It was revealed that both boys and girls in the experimental groups performed significantly more affectionate acts than the control subjects. The females imitated the female model significantly more often than the boys.<sup>135</sup>

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<sup>135</sup>Jerry L. Fryrear and Mark H. Thelen, "Effects of Sex of Model and Sex of Observer on the Imitation of Affectionate Behavior," Developmental Psychology, I (May, 1969), p. 298.

The major variables of intelligence and socioeconomic status were not controlled by the researcher. In addition, a pretest baseline of affectionate behavior was not determined nor were scorer reliability checks performed. The presence of the scorer in the test room may have produced reactive effects to the procedure. Nevertheless, the sex factor was adequately handled.

Because this study indicated sex differences in the imitation of film behavior, it is extremely important to the present study. It may well be that females are more affected by the behaviors of female Disney characters than they are by the actions of male Disney characters.

Heyman study. This study investigated the effect of film-mediated aggression on subsequent aggressive behavior in a population of 120 incarcerated adolescent boys in New Haven, Connecticut. The subjects, paired (High/Low) on the basis of their scores on a self-report measure of past aggressive behavior, were instructed to be verbally abusive to each other in a competitive situation after seeing films. Their verbal aggression was tape recorded and rated by an independent rater according to the Mosher Manual. The aggressive film was an eleven-minute spliced segment from a popular television serial. The neutral film was a segment from an educational film of equal length. The most striking result of the study was the low level of verbal aggressive behavior displayed by the

subjects in all conditions of the experiment. As a result, there were no significant effects due to the film conditions.<sup>136</sup>

In her attempt to provide a baseline of aggressive behavior through self-reports, Heyman may have introduced a subjective bias into her work. In addition, separating the subjects on high and low aggressive background may have caused statistical regression. Randomization and a control group would have improved this study. Heyman did eliminate some of the problems of previous investigations which used electric shock or paper and pencil tests. Her unobtrusive measure was unique. It, along with the use of an independent rater and a standardized procedure, strengthened the research.

In that Heyman's investigation reported no change in behavior due to film impact, it is relevant to the present work. It raises the possibility that Disney films may have little impact upon the behavior of children.

Hartmann study. Seventy-two Salt Lake City adolescent delinquents were initially subjected either to anger-arousing or non-arousing experiences. Control subjects viewed a non-aggressive film. Experimental subjects saw a film depicting a fight sequence. The dependent measures were the duration and intensity of shocks that the subjects administered to their provocateur whenever he made errors on an assigned learning task. Results revealed that (1) regardless of

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<sup>136</sup> Doris Seiler Heyman, The Effect of Film Mediated Aggression on Subsequent Aggressive Behavior (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Connecticut, 1969), pp. 1-95.

arousal level, subjects who witnessed the filmed aggression were significantly more punitive than subjects who had observed neutral films; (2) aroused viewers were significantly more punitive than non-aroused viewers and (3) subjects with longer records of antisocial behavior delivered significantly more aversive punishment than subjects with less extensive records.<sup>137</sup>

Hartmann's study is limited in three aspects. First, pretesting to establish a level of aggression for the subjects was not accomplished. Next, there may have been "reactive effects" to the experimental equipment. Finally, by taking the fight sequence out of context, he may have restricted the generalizability of the findings.

In spite of the above data, the study is of import because it stresses the fact that the effect of films on individuals may be related to the viewers' psychological set. As was reported in an earlier study, viewers of film aggressive acts may respond more punitively than non-aroused viewers. This research augments that data with the information that subjects with long records of antisocial behavior may become more aversive after seeing films with aggressive scenes. Some Disney films picture violence.

Meyer study. The purpose of this study was to compare the consequences of viewing motion picture violence, under

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<sup>137</sup> Donald P. Hartmann, "Influence of Symbolically Modeled Instrumental Aggression and Pain Cues on Aggressive Behavior," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, XI (September, 1969), pp. 280-288.

different conditions of justification for the offensive incidents, on the behavior of Ohio University students. Subjects were angered by the experimenter's accomplice and were given electrical shocks as a result of being given bad grades on compositions they had written. Subjects in seven of the eight groups (twenty-five subjects each) tested saw one of three film segments: (a) a fictional violence film; (b) a violent newsfilm; or (c) a non-violent film. Subjects in the eighth group saw no film. Subjects were randomly assigned to the various groups. The violent films were shown in justified and unjustified contexts by varying the experimenter's explanation of the content. Two additional groups saw the real or fictional films without description to allow subjects to make their own judgments as to the justification or lack of it for the film violence. Following the films, subjects were allowed to administer shocks to the investigator (accomplice). They decided on the number of shocks and the intensity level of the shocks. Shock intensity and number of shocks were the measure of aggressive behavior toward the accomplice. Angered subjects viewing justified news or fictional film violence returned significantly more shocks and significantly more intense shocks than angered subjects viewing unjustified news or fictional film violence, a non-violent film, or no film. No significant differences were found between the impact of



real and the effects of fictional film violence, whether justified or unjustified.<sup>138</sup>

As in other studies of this type the elaborate experimental equipment may have set the "Hawthorne Effect" into motion. Nevertheless, random assignment, a control group and establishment of a baseline level of aggressive response provided Meyer's adequate control of variables.

In conjunction with previous studies cited above, Meyer corroborates the finding that subjects who viewed aggressive films were more punitive than those who observed neutral films. Once again we see that the influence a film has on an individual is related to his prior emotional condition and record of antisocial behavior. As fictional violence had the same results as real violence, Disney films, even though largely fictional, may influence aversive behaviors.

Glass study. This investigation tested the impact of social interaction on the psychophysiological reaction of seventy-eight paid male New York University students to an aggressive film. There were five experimental conditions: (1) the subject viewed the film alone; (2) the subject saw the movie with a confederate of the experimenter who was introduced as another subject; (3) the condition was the same as (2) except a screen separated the subjects; (4) the subject brought a male undergraduate friend to watch the film with

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<sup>138</sup> Timothy P. Meyer, The Effects of Viewing Justified and Unjustified Fictional Versus Real Film Violence on Aggressive Behavior (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Ohio University, 1970), pp. 1-176.

him; and (5) the subject brought a friend, the two were separated by a screen as they looked at the motion picture. At the beginning of the experimental session, each subject was told that the purpose of the study was to investigate his psychological and physiological reactions to a silent film. The film called Subincision depicted an aboriginal puberty rite involving mutilation of the genitals of adolescent boys. Skin electrodes were attached to the subjects' fingers. A twenty-minute period preceded the showing of the seventeen-minute film. During this time, the subjects' resting-level autonomic reactivity was recorded. After the resting level had been recorded, the film was shown. The dependent variable was level of tonic skin conductance. Five critical periods in the continuous skin resistance record corresponding to stressful mutilation scenes in the film were recorded. Skin conductance reactivity scores during the film viewing were covariance adjusted to take account of individual differences. The results demonstrated that there was a significant difference between treatments in favor of viewing the film in the presence of another person. Skin conductance reactivity was near the resting level when aversive scenes were watched in the company of another person.<sup>139</sup>

One weakness of this study was the use of paid subjects. This probably limited the applicability of the findings.

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<sup>139</sup> David Glass, Andrew Gordon and Thomas Hency, "The Effects of Social Stimulation on Psychophysiological Reactivity to an Aversive Film," Psychonomic Science, XX (August, 1970), p. 255.

Another problem was the use of the elaborate equipment. A final difficulty was caused by the neglect of randomization and a control group. A redeeming factor was that Glass explored an area of film research that had been badly neglected. In addition, by utilizing the twenty-minute resting period to obtain a baseline measure, test "practice effects" were probably avoided.

Glass' study opens the possibility that when a filmgoer views an aversive scene, it may not be as disturbing if he is seated next to someone. This is usually the case when six through thirteen-year-old children attend a Disney movie.

Rowley study. Rowley examined the relationship between exposure to an aggressive cartoon and subsequent aggressive behavior. In order to explore four hypotheses she conducted two experiments. In Study I, ninety-six Boston first grade children were randomly assigned, twelve boys and twelve girls to each of the four treatment groups. In the first experimental phase, children in experimental group one and control group one were mildly frustrated by being scolded for playground behavior by the experimenter. Children in experimental group two and control group two were nonfrustrated. In the second phase, children in groups E1 and E2 watched an aggressive cartoon, and children in groups C1 and C2 listened to a nonaggressive story. In the third phase, all children were given the opportunity to aggress in free play. Three raters with an interrater reliability score of .91 recorded aggressive

acts. In Study II, sixty-four Boston first-grade children were randomly assigned, sixteen boys and sixteen girls to each of two treatment groups: an experimental group and a control group. Each of these two groups was randomly divided into eight like-sexed discussion groups of four children each. In the first two phases, children in all groups were frustrated and then exposed to the aggressive cartoon. In the third phase, children in E groups discussed specific aggressive incidents in the cartoon with the researcher, and children in C groups participated in neutral discussions. Finally, all children were given an opportunity to aggress. Aggressive acts were recorded by the judges of Study I. In Study I neither condition (frustration or nonfrustration), activity (film or story) nor sex (boy or girl) made any significant difference in the amount of aggressive behavior. In Study II subjects in E group (violence discussion) were significantly more rather than less aggressive than subjects in the control group (neutral discussion). Neither film nor sex made any significant difference.<sup>140</sup>

Rowley performed a rigorously controlled experiment. The randomization combined with the control groups eliminated pretest invalidity, and controlled major experimental factors. Due to the urban sample of adequate size the results are applicable to nearly all first graders. She was careful to establish interrater reliability.

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<sup>140</sup> Susan Linda Rowley, Film Cartoon Violence and Children's Aggressive Behavior (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Boston University, 1971), pp. 1-241.

Rowley's finding that the aggressive cartoon did not lead to aggressive acts is relevant to this study of Disney films. Thus, violence in a Disney movie may not lead viewers into offensive acts. In addition, the discovery that there was no difference between the aggressive behavior of boys and girls is one of import.<sup>141</sup>

Summary of the effect of films on psychophysiological and social behavior. This summary section dealing with films affecting behavior was divided into four sections. The first reviewed the scope of behavior modeled in films. This was followed by a précis of the age at which viewers imitate film behavior. Next, a review of studies pertaining to sex of viewer and sex of character was presented. Finally, the conditions of behavior imitation were considered.

To begin with, the scope of the behavior modeled from movies tended to be broad. Wall<sup>142</sup> reported that viewers imitated dress, hairdress, courtship techniques and styles of dancing, walking and relaxing from films. Dysinger<sup>143</sup>, Fryrear<sup>144</sup> and Hill<sup>145</sup> gave examples that included such emotions as affection, fear and courage. Other investigators, Berkowitz<sup>146</sup> included, have illustrated the connection between viewing acts

<sup>141</sup> Ibid., pp. 1-241.

<sup>142</sup> Ibid., pp. 53-61.

<sup>143</sup> Ibid., p. 122.

<sup>144</sup> Ibid., p. 298.

<sup>145</sup> Ibid., p. 192.

<sup>146</sup> Ibid., p. 3.

of aggression and violence and the modeling of those behaviors by viewers.

When one turns to the subject of the age at which film behavior is copied, interesting findings are obtained. It was evident from the research in this section that behaviors observed in films were imitated by viewers in all age groups studied. Fryrear<sup>147</sup> and Hill<sup>148</sup> found that nursery and preschool children imitated social behaviors they had observed on the movie screen. Similarly, that elementary school children copied film behavior was supported by the work of Rowley<sup>149</sup> and Dysinger<sup>150</sup>. Hartman<sup>151</sup> and Walters<sup>152</sup> attested to the modeling of film behaviors by adolescents. Last, Berkowitz<sup>153</sup> and Meyer<sup>154</sup> gave examples of behavior copied from films by college students.

Finally, there appeared to be certain conditions related to the viewer's background and personality makeup which enhanced the possibility that film-observed behaviors would be copied.

A generalization about one condition that appears to pertain to behavior modeled from films is that for the most part, it is sex-specific. This has been substantiated by Wall<sup>155</sup> and Fryrear<sup>156</sup>. This finding agrees with Whittaker's finding on sex and persuasibility. He found<sup>157</sup> that female subjects were more persuasible than males. In addition, he observed that "it is

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<sup>147</sup>Ibid., p. 298.    <sup>148</sup>Ibid., p. 192.    <sup>149</sup>Ibid., pp. 1-241.

<sup>150</sup>Ibid., p. 122.    <sup>151</sup>Ibid., p. 280.    <sup>152</sup>Ibid., p. 872.

<sup>153</sup>Ibid., p. 35.    <sup>154</sup>Ibid., pp. 1-176.    <sup>155</sup>Ibid., p. 55.

<sup>156</sup>Ibid., p. 298.

<sup>157</sup>J. Whittaker, "Sex Differences and Susceptibility to Interpersonal Persuasion," Journal of Social Psychology, LXVI (March, 1965), pp. 91-94.

possible that male sources are generally more persuasive than female sources, regardless of the issue or the media employed."

To begin with, Berkowitz<sup>158</sup> demonstrated that a film viewer who was or who had recently been in an emotional state similar to that which was being pictured in the movie, was likely to imitate the social behavior he observed. This view is corroborated by Klapper's findings concerning the effects of the mass media.<sup>159</sup> Furthermore, the motion picture attender was more likely to carry out this behavior if the person who evoked his emotional feelings resembled a film character. In addition to this, Hartman<sup>160</sup> found that film viewers who had experienced the behaviors they observed in movies were more likely to imitate the observed behavior than a viewer without that previous experience.

As Sebald<sup>161</sup> has said, "an individual. . . perceives only if it reinforces his prior images."

Last, Meyer's research<sup>162</sup> indicated that when a viewer saw a movie behavior that he felt was justified, he was more likely to copy that behavior than an action he believed to be unjustified. This finding was substantiated by Lefkowitz

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<sup>158</sup>Ibid., p. 35.

<sup>159</sup>J. T. Klapper, The Effects of Mass Communication, New York: The Free Press, 1960, p. 6.

<sup>160</sup>Ibid., pp. 280-288.

<sup>161</sup>H. Sebald, "Limitations of Communications," Journal of Communications, XII (December, 1962) pp. 142-149.

<sup>162</sup>Ibid., pp. 1-176.

in his studies of the influence of a high status person on the behavior of others.<sup>163</sup>

Hence, research has shown that a broad range of behaviors may be modeled from films. These behaviors may be copied by viewers of various ages. Last, certain conditions seem to determine which viewers will model their behavior from a film.

#### D. SUMMARY OF THE EFFECT OF FILMS ON CHILDREN AND ADULTS

This entire section dealing with the effects of films on children and adults was included in the present report to illustrate the potential of films to influence attitude change, learning, and behavior modification.

That films may produce these results was, of course, essential to this study. If films could have no impact upon the viewer, then there would have been little need for a study of the stereotyping of the female in Walt Disney screenplays and films.

The results of the research with films in changing attitudes pointed to several conditions of attitude change. First, the subject matter of the film did not appear to be a factor in influencing attitude change. In addition it was concluded that films affected each individual in unique ways depending upon the viewer's background. His community, level in school, and racial or ethnic group affiliation loom large when discussing a person's reaction to a film.

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<sup>163</sup> M. Lefkowitz, R. Blake, and J. Manton, "Status Factors in Pedestrian Violation of Traffic Signals," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, LX (November, 1955), pp. 704-706.



Last, whether or not the film was intended to change attitudes was germane to the question of attitude alteration.

The findings of studies dealing with cognitive learning resulted in the formulation of a set of generalizations about films and cognitive learning. To begin with, it was found that factual learning from movies decreased with increased advancement in school. On the other hand, learning of higher level skills from films, such as the interpretation of data, continued to be constant throughout the learner's school experience. Last, it was discovered that retention of film learnings was relatively long-lived for all age groups.

In the areas of social behavior and films, several summary statements were made. In the first place, the scope of behaviors patterned from films was determined to be broad. In addition, the behaviors observed in films tended to be imitated by viewers of all age groups. Last, certain conditions related to the viewer's background were seen to enhance the possibility that the film behaviors would be copied.

Such conditions as the sex of the viewer related to the sex of the characters, the emotional state of the viewer and the film viewer's past experiences--all were germane to the possibility of the movie attender repeating the film behaviors.

In conclusion, although films appear to be influential one must view possible changes in learning, attitude and behavior with restraint. As Haskins commented when discussing the mass communications in general, "It seems clear, then, that

giving a person information--telling him the facts--does not necessarily influence his opinions or behavior." <sup>164</sup>

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<sup>164</sup>J. Haskins, "Factual Recall as a Measure of Advertising Effectiveness," Journal of Advertising Research, VI, June 1966, pp. 2-8.

### III. THE FEMALE AS A DISCIPLINARIAN OR NOT A DISCIPLINARIAN

#### Introduction

It was hypothesized in Chapter I that Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the females as the disciplinarians of the children. This section of the report is concerned with an examination of the literature relevant to a study of the female as a disciplinarian. Experimental studies which compare the female and male regarding the discipline role have been included. The research has been reviewed chronologically.

Clifford study. Clifford planned this research to describe the disciplinary process as it takes place in the home. One hundred twenty Minneapolis mothers, forty having children at each of three age levels (three, six and nine years) were divided within each group according to the sex of their child. Data was gathered by interviewing the mothers, administering the Minnesota Scale of Parents Opinion to both parents, and administering a personality profile to the mothers. It was concluded that mothers were most frequently responsible for discipline. Mothers corrected children 72 per cent of the time. Fathers participated to a minimal extent--12 per cent.<sup>165</sup>

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<sup>165</sup> Edward Clifford, Discipline in The Home: A Controlled Observational Study of Parental Practices (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1957), pp. 1-263.

Several weaknesses of the study should be noted. For example, the only major variable controlled in the study was sex. Matching or randomization would have afforded greater equalization of subjects. The validity and reliability of the interview schedule were not determined. Thus, data collected may reflect the "Halo Effect." No statistical treatment was applied to the data. On the other hand, standardized instruments of established reliability provided data.

This study, however, is related to the hypothesis under study, for it furnishes evidence that the female is the disciplinarian in the home.

Holt study. Investigating family life correlates of social behavior, Holt chose fifteen girls and fifteen boys from the upper middle class and of superior intelligence attending nursery school in Indianapolis for the subjects of this study. The dependent measure was parent interview records. Records of individual interviews with the parents were rated on seventeen scales measuring current socialization practices. Two to four raters assessed all the material. A conference method was used to assign final ratings when raters disagreed. It was concluded that regardless of the sex of the child, mothers were rated higher than fathers on withdrawal of love, isolation, and physical punishment techniques applied to the children.<sup>166</sup>

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<sup>166</sup> Bess Gene Holt, Some Family Life Correlates of Social Behavior in Young Children (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Purdue University, 1960), pp. 1-227.

Limitations of the study would include the following:

- (1) Holt worked with a small select sample making his results limited to upper-middle class parents of superior children.
- (2) The validity and reliability of the interview schedule was not determined by the investigator.
- (3) The interrater reliability of the judges was not established.
- (4) The conference method was depended upon by the researchist; this method can be highly subjective.

The results of the study were as hypothesized in the present research. Holt's finding concerning the female as disciplinarian corresponds to that of the study above.

Platt study. The Inventory of Family Life and Attitudes was mailed to 680 parents of adolescents enrolled at the Devereux School, a suburban Philadelphia residential treatment center specializing in the treatment of behavior and educational adjustment problems. The IFLA, a single composite attitude instrument of twenty-three scales was constructed for use with parents and adolescents. Of the 680 parents, 616 (90 per cent) cooperated in the study by filling out the inventory. The following criteria was adopted for selecting the parent--subjects from those who did return the completed inventory: (a) upper socioeconomic level; (b) absence of primary organic involvement in the child at the school, and (3) intact family structure. The final group of subjects included 108 couples. This study found fathers to be significantly more authoritarian than mothers.<sup>167</sup>

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<sup>167</sup> Henry Platt, "Attitudes of Mothers and Fathers of Emotionally Disturbed Adolescents," Child Development, XXIII (March, 1962), pp. 117-121.

The Platt study revealed a number of strengths with regard to research methodology. Platt controlled the factors of socioeconomic status, sex and intelligence by his selection procedure. The IFLA is a modified form of the Parent Attitude Research Instrument, which is a standardized measure. There is an adequate correlation between the instruments. The high return that Platt received in a mail questionnaire study was exceptional, since at best, a researcher can expect returns as low as 50 or 60 per cent.<sup>168</sup> The high return response allows for valid generalizations to be made to similar populations.

This investigation is allied to a study of the female as a disciplinarian. For this particular sample the male was the authority figure in the home.

Jennings study. The data was drawn from a self-administered questionnaire taken by almost 20,000 high school students selected at random on a national basis. Of the Negro respondents, 19 per cent were children of unskilled or domestic workers, and 4 per cent skilled workers; thirty per cent resided in the South. Fifty-three per cent lived in cities of over 100,000 population. The whites were children of parents less likely to be southern, poorly educated, big city residents, and in low-status occupations. Four per cent of the Negro subjects stated that decisions about discipline were made by the husband and 37 per cent said the discipline decisions were made by the wife. White subjects reported the 7 per cent of

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<sup>168</sup>Kerlinger, op. cit., p. 397.

these decisions were made by husbands while 28 per cent were made by mothers.<sup>169</sup>

Jennings' use of a national random sample gives his results wide application. Further, his partitioning of the sample by race added an aspect of control missing in studies above. It seems unfortunate that the reliability and validity of his measuring instruments were not determined.

In addition to the corroboration which this study supplies to the hypothesis under investigation, it adds another aspect to the scope of this review. Black women in the sample tend to make more decisions about child discipline than any other group studied by Jennings.

Heinstein study. A study concerned with child rearing practices of parents selected at random with young children under six was undertaken in Contra Costa County, California. An open-ended questionnaire on child rearing practices was employed to collect the data. Results of statistical analysis of the data showed that mothers were significantly more punitive than fathers.<sup>170</sup>

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<sup>169</sup> M. Kent Jennings and R. G. Niemi, "Patterns of Political Learning," Harvard Educational Review, XXXVIII (January, 1968), pp. 443-467.

<sup>170</sup> Martin Heinstein, Child Rearing in California. A Study of Mothers with Young Children, California State Department of Public Health, Berkeley, October, 1965, p. 64.

Although the reliability and validity of the dependent measure was not established, there were a number of positive aspects of this study. By employing the open-end questionnaire the researchist achieved flexibility, depth, rapport and co-operation from the subjects. Further, his sample population permits generalization to most metropolitan areas, whereas the random selection of subjects controlled major factors of subject variance.

In a very real way, this study adds the weight of results of tests of statistical significance to the finding that females are the disciplinarians in the family. Certainly, another important finding is that the greatest amount of discipline in the case of adolescents is inner-directed control.

Droppleman study. This experimenter selected two groups--eighty-five boys, and eighty girls in grade seven of a suburban Catholic school near Bethesda, Maryland--as subjects. A parent behavior inventory consisting of twenty-six scales was administered anonymously to both groups in the school auditorium. Separate but identical forms for fathers and mothers were administered in counterbalanced order in a single testing session. The reliability of the scales had a median reliability of .76. The data clearly demonstrated that the sex of the parent and the sex of the child interact in varied ways. The results indicated that the same-sex parent is more controlling than the opposite-sex parent. The data suggested that the



same-sex parent tended to use more direct methods of control than the opposite-sex parent.<sup>171</sup>

Even though a highly selective sample that allows generalization to only Catholic seventh graders was utilized, and the reliability of the inventory was determined while its validity was not, this study injects a new element into the study of the female as a disciplinarian: the possibility that the same-sex parent is the mentor was established by this work.

Hoffman study. The sample here consisted of twelve, middle-class and ten, working-class families in Detroit having a child in attendance at a half-day nursery school. The parent data were obtained from interviews in which the parent gave a fully detailed account of a day's interactions with the child. The findings provide support for the authoritarianism of the middle-class mother and the lower-class fathers. It was also suggested that middle-class norms regarding the marital relationship may be somewhat more equalitarian than the lower-class norms, with the wife's personality having somewhat more pervasive effects than that of the husband.<sup>172</sup>

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<sup>171</sup>Leo Droppleman, "Boys' and Girls' Reports of Maternal and Paternal Behavior," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, LXVII (December, 1963), p. 653.

<sup>172</sup>Martin L. Hoffman, "Personality, Family Structure, and Social Class as Antecedents of Parental Power Assertion," Child Development, XXXIV (December, 1963), p. 882.

Although the social class variable was adequately handled, a number of improvements would have strengthened this study: (1) a controlled set of questions; (2) determining the validity and reliability of the interviews; (3) random selection of the sample group; and (4) applying an inferential statistical analysis to the data.

In spite of the lack of design sophistication, this research is applicable to the present study as the finding suggests that social class factors play a role in determining the sex of the disciplinarian.

Saltzstein study. In an investigation of parent discipline and the child's moral development, seventh graders in the Detroit metropolitan area were studied. A sample of 444 included 146 middle-class boys, 124 middle-class girls, ninety-one lower-class boys and eighty-three lower-class girls. Interviews were conducted with a subsample consisting of 129 middle-class mothers and seventy-five middle-class fathers. No interviews were conducted with parents of the children from the lower class because of the apprehension of school officials. The pattern of findings in the middle class reveals the frequent use of power assertion by the mother. In contrast to the mothers, no significant findings were obtained for middle-class fathers. The foremost finding for the lower class is that the father is more often the ultimate disciplining agent.<sup>173</sup>

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<sup>173</sup>Herbert D. Saltzstein and Martin L. Hoffman, "Parent Discipline and the Child's Moral Development," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, V (January, 1967), p. 53.

When examining the Saltzstein study, the present investigator found that the drawing of conclusions about the lower class when parent interview data is incomplete seems unwarranted. While the sample is large enough to allow for generalization of results to other metropolitan seventh graders, only the sex and socioeconomic level were among the controlled variables. Finally, the validity and reliability of the dependent measure were neglected.

In that this study corroborates the Hoffman study, it is important in noting a trend in the disciplining of adolescents. This replication provides increased confidence in the finding that middle-class mothers and lower-class fathers act as the family disciplinarians.

Eisenberg study. Children's perceptions of their parents and other adults were assessed by means of a questionnaire developed for this purpose by Eisenberg. The items employed were trial tested in a pilot study. All questions required the subject to make a forced choice. Each child was interviewed individually in his room, back yard or living room by one of the investigators. There were ninety-six subjects interviewed for this study (twenty-five six-year old boys, twenty-two six-year old girls, twenty-two ten-year old boys, and twenty-seven ten-year old girls). The subjects were selected from two middle-class suburban areas and from a middle-class residential area of a non-metropolitan small city. Of the 111 parents contacted through the use of a combination of city and telephone

Sebald study. The hypotheses of this researchist were tested on a sample of 578 male students attending four different high schools in Columbus, Ohio. The lower-middle and upper-lower classes comprised 435 subjects. Ninety-one students were from the middle-middle class, and fifty-two subjects were from the upper-middle and lower-upper class. School authorities provided a place and time for the completion of a questionnaire--the dependent measure. The split-half reliability of the instrument was found to be .97; the pretesting provided for an item analysis. It was found that the higher the socioeconomic status of the father or the mother, the lower the father's degree of participation in the disciplining of the children.<sup>175</sup>

Since a large sample including the entire socioeconomic spectrum was employed, generalizations to most groups of high school students is possible. This is an important strength of the study. Further, rigorous effort was made to assure the reliability and objectivity of the questionnaire, even though its validity was not ascertained. Finally, the testing procedures were standardized.

Sebald's finding thus appear most pertinent to the work at hand, since in an investigation of the female's role as disciplinarian, data concerning interaction between the male's role and socioeconomic status is of import.

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<sup>175</sup>Hans Sebald, "Parent-Peer Control and Masculine-Marital Role Perceptions of Adolescent Boys," Social Science Quarterly, XLIX (June, 1968), p. 231.

Hervey study. This research was part of a Head Start research project. The parents (251 women and 185 men) of Detroit Head Start children were asked whether or not they would punish their children for certain behaviors. The questions were administered in a questionnaire format. The parents of this group were primarily Negroes and mainly of the lower socioeconomic level. It was concluded that punishment varies substantially with sex and socioeconomic class. Men, particularly in the lower socioeconomic classes, punished significantly more than the women. Clear significant differences were not observable among the other socioeconomic levels under examination.<sup>176</sup>

The sample was stratified to investigate reactions involving sex and socioeconomic levels. Random selection of subjects affords application of results to most Head Start parents. However, the validity and reliability of the questionnaire was not determined.

Another study which verifies the interaction of sex and social class in relation to discipline is relevant to the present exploration. It points to the fact that the female's role as disciplinarian, in all probability, is in direct relationship to her socioeconomic level. The higher the socioeconomic level, the more she disciplines the children.

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<sup>176</sup> Sarah D. Hervey, A Note on Punishment Patterns in Parents of Preschool Children. Report Number Three. Merrill-Palmer Institute, Detroit, Michigan, pp. 1-13.

Juffer study. Juffer planned his study to explore the influence of parental direction and support on children's originality. Sixty Iowa family triads composed of a father, mother and their eight-year old child were observed in five laboratory situations. Parental directive and supportive acts initiated toward the child were recorded by the investigators. The Torrance Minnesota Tests of Creative Thinking were administered to the child following the last observational period. The children were classified into high, middle and low originality levels according to their scores on the two measures. Parental direction had no significant influence on the child's originality as measured by the MITI. The father's role was significantly more directive than the mother's at each observation period.<sup>177</sup>

While no attempt was made by Juffer to control the major variables or obtain interjudge reliability measures, the results seem applicable to parents of children attending most university laboratory schools. The effort to achieve an unobtrusive measure through observation was a significant departure from the studies employing questionnaires.

The finding that the fathers were more directive than the mothers is apropos to the present experiment. This is the first work to report the upper-middle class father as more directive than the upper-middle class mother.

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<sup>177</sup> Virginia Mahannah Juffer, Socialization of Children with Varying Levels of Originality: An Analysis of Parent-Child Interaction (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Iowa State University, 1969), pp. 1-179.

Davis study. The purpose of this research was to investigate some parental antecedents of childrens' locus of control beliefs. The sample consisted of thirty Kansas family groups composed of a father, mother and son aged eleven or twelve. One-half of these boys had an internal orientation (believed that reinforcement was contingent upon one's own actions). The other half expressed an external orientation (felt that reinforcement is independent of behavior). Each family group was asked to perform together on one task. In the task, each family member responded privately to a questionnaire concerning various problem situations in family living. After this had been done, the family was confronted with several items on which they had made differing responses and asked to discuss and reach a decision agreeable to each member. Observations were made of the process and outcome of decision making, including such things as number of times spoken by each member, to whom these messages were directed, and number of decisions won by each member. Fathers of externals exerted significantly more pressure on the child to comply to his position, and in this way were significantly more controlling of the child's behavior than parents of internals.<sup>178</sup>

Even though Davis devised a unique design by combining one reactive measure with two nonreactive measures, there were some weaknesses in his work. Obtaining interrater reliability

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<sup>178</sup> William L. Davis, Parental Antecedents of Children's Locus of Control (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Kansas State University, 1969), pp. 1-198.

checks for the nonreactive measures and determining the validity and reliability of the reactive test would have provided more rigorous control of the measurement. Socioeconomic class, which has been a major factor in the discipline research, was not handled. Finally, the sample was so selective that it limits generalization. Nonetheless, this exploration is allied to the present study as it was the first to bring forth the locus of control variable. Locus of control appears to interact with the sex of the parent in determining which parent is the disciplinarian.

Everhart study. It was Everhart's intent to explore the effectiveness of mothers and fathers as social reinforcing agents for their preschool children. The subjects were forty boys and forty girls, aged five to six years, and one of their parents. All of the subjects were drawn randomly from a pool of families who were interested in cooperating in the study. The data were collected, using a variation of the Gewirtz and Far Marble-in-the-Hole-Game. The subject's reactions during the game were monitored on closed circuit television. The behaviors were recorded by an observer. It was concluded that there was no significant difference between mothers and fathers as social reinforcing agents in regard to the behaviors of the preschool children.<sup>179</sup>

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<sup>179</sup> James D. Everhart, The Relative Effectiveness of Mothers and Fathers as Social Reinforcing Agents with Preschool Children (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of North Carolina, 1971), pp. 1-86.



The use of a standardized nonreactive measure was a valuable asset in this study. It had reliability and validity. Further, the random assignment gave this study control over major variables that was not provided by many studies reviewed in this section of the present work. However, employment of the closed circuit television may have produced "reactive effects" to the experimental equipment.

The fact that the researchist reported no differences between mothers and fathers as disciplinarians is germane to the present investigation. This was the first study in the section that resulted in such a conclusion.

Erlich study. This study investigated the question: "Has parental discipline been permissive?" The results were based on a national sample of 2000 tenth through twelfth graders randomly selected to match 1960 census distributions for sex, grade in school, residence and geographic region. Although the differences were not large, fathers tended to be stricter than mothers. Fathers gave more direction to sons than they did to daughters; no differences were found for mothers.<sup>180</sup>

The national, stratified, randomly-selected sample permits the application of the results to parents of tenth through twelfth graders in the nation. Randomization afforded

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<sup>180</sup> A. C. Erlich, Parent-Child Interactions, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana Measurement and Research Center, May, 1971: A paper Presented at the Canadian Guidance and Counseling Association Convention, Toronto, June 2, 1971.

control of all major factors. Validity and reliability of the questionnaire was not determined.

This experiment is germane to an investigation of the stereotyping of the female as the family disciplinarian. Socio-economic class, which has been demonstrated by the foregoing research to be an important variable in home discipline, has been adequately handled by this study. This investigator found that the father was stricter than the mother when all social classes were included in an investigation.

Summary of the Female as a Disciplinarian  
or Not a Disciplinarian

The findings of the studies concerned with the question of the female as a disciplinarian tended to revolve about two interacting characteristics: (1) the sex of the parent, and (2) the socioeconomic level of the family.

In the nursery-preschool years, the social class of the family loomed large in determining the disciplinarian of the children. The father in the lower class punished the children more often than the mother did. This is probably due to the fact that most lower-class families are not far removed from a rural heritage. According to Hodges<sup>181</sup> the family "subscribes to such 'patriarchal' values as husband-father dominance and wife-child subservience." The investigations of Hoffman<sup>182</sup> and Hervey<sup>183</sup> corroborated this view of father dominance.

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<sup>181</sup> Harold M. Hodges, Jr., Peninsula People, San Jose, California: Spartan Bookstore, 1964, p. 13.

<sup>182</sup> Ibid., p. 882.

<sup>183</sup> Ibid., p. 1-13.

In direct contrast to this father-dominance was the finding that the middle-class mother is the parent who administered punishment to the child. This was substantiated by Holt<sup>184</sup> and Heinstein<sup>185</sup>, and is probably due to what Hodges<sup>186</sup> termed the "democratic--companionship" of the middle-class family, coupled with the fact that the middle-class mother is more likely to be at home with the children during the nursery school years than is her lower-class counterpart.

When the disciplining of the elementary child was considered, an interesting reversal occurred in the middle class. Suddenly, the father emerged as the most directive of the two parents. Davies<sup>187</sup> supported this view along with Juffer<sup>188</sup> and Eisenberg.<sup>189</sup> Hodges<sup>190</sup> reports "that in the primary years, the child's 'education,' 'school performance,' and 'academic competence' are the most focal of the middle-class father's concerns." This preoccupation of the middle-class father with his child's education probably explains this shift in middle-class family disciplinarian role. During the elementary school years, the lower-class father remained the disciplinarian in the family.

Finally, when one considered the adolescent and parental discipline, Sebold's<sup>191</sup> statement that "the higher the socioeconomic status of the father, the lower the father's degree of participation in the disciplining of the adolescent" was verified by the studies of this section. In research dealing

<sup>184</sup>Ibid., p. 226.

<sup>185</sup>Ibid., p. 64.

<sup>186</sup>Ibid., p. 13.

<sup>187</sup>Ibid., p. 189.

<sup>188</sup>Ibid., p. 120.

<sup>189</sup>Ibid., p. 203.

<sup>190</sup>Ibid., p. 13

<sup>191</sup>Ibid., p. 231.

with the lower class and discipline, Saltzstein<sup>192</sup>, Sebald<sup>193</sup> and Erlich<sup>194</sup> all found that the father was the disciplining agent. On the other hand, Jennings<sup>195</sup> found that the mother made the discipline decisions. The finding for the middle class also corresponded to the Sebald<sup>196</sup> theory. Both Jennings<sup>197</sup> and Saltzstein<sup>198</sup> termed the middle-class mother as the disciplinarian of the children.

Perhaps the middle-class father's career role as professional, independent businessman or corporate employee is the most demanding at about the same time his children reach adolescence. This would explain the shift back to the mother as the middle-class family disciplinarian.

Therefore, it can be concluded that in the middle-class home the mother is the disciplinarian during the child's pre-school experience. Once the child enters school, the father assumes the role of disciplinarian until the child reaches adolescence. At that time, the mother once again emerges as the disciplinarian.

In contrast to this, the lower-class father begins as the disciplinarian and remains in that role throughout the child's life in the home.

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<sup>192</sup> Ibid., p. 53.

<sup>193</sup> Ibid., p. 231.

<sup>194</sup> Ibid.

<sup>195</sup> Ibid., p. 443.

<sup>196</sup> Ibid., p. 231.

<sup>197</sup> Ibid., p. 444.

<sup>198</sup> Ibid., p. 53.

#### IV. THE FEMALE AS PASSIVE OR AGGRESSIVE

##### Introduction

That Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the females as passive has been hypothesized above. This section of the present report reviews the literature pertinent to this hypothesis. The research reports are arranged chronologically in relation to their publication dates.

Toigo study. Three male experimenters used the "guess-who" technique to obtain information relative to a given child's level of classroom aggression. A sample of thirty-eight third-grade classrooms were visited by the examiners in a semi-rural county in upstate New York. The examiners administered the peer-rating aggression instrument to a complete class. Standardized methods of test administration were used with each group. For each examiner, five classes were selected at random from among those visited in the field period. In each of the selected classes, seven boys and seven girls were then chosen randomly. Two scores for each child were used. A child's two scores were the percentage of boy judges who chose the child on the aggressive items and the percentage of girl judges who chose the child on the ten aggressive items. Significant findings

were obtained with respect to the sex of the child being judged. Boys received higher aggression scores than girls.<sup>199</sup>

Random assignment equated the subjects on the possible experimental variables, while standardized measurement procedures afforded testing objectivity. In addition, the sociometric method used was simple, naturalistic and flexible. Unfortunately, Toigo accepted rather than tested the reliability and validity of his instruments.

In a study of the passive aggressive nature of females Toigo's findings are applicable. He discovered that third-grade subjects attribute more aggression to males than they do to females.

Buss study. Buss recruited subjects for introductory psychology classes. The data of 160 subjects were used in the experiment. Forty subjects were placed in each of four groups. There were twenty men and twenty women per group, and half the subjects had a male victim and the other half, a female victim. The subject in both experimental and control groups was told that his goal was to teach the victim a concept. There were three incentives for the subject: proving his ability as a teacher, earning money if the subject learned quickly, or obtaining a better grade in a college course when the victim demonstrated rapid learning. The victim, an accomplice of the

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<sup>199</sup> Romolo Toigo, Leopold Walder, Leonard Eron and Monroe Lefkowitz, "Examiner Effect in the Use of a Near Sociometric Procedure in Third Grade Classrooms," Psychological Reports, XI (December, 1962), p. 785.

experimenter, provided the mode of frustration--inability to learn. An "aggression machine" was employed in the experiment. When the victim failed to provide a correct response in the learning sequence, the subject delivered a shock. The subject controlled the duration and intensity of the shock. The delivery of shock by the subject was labeled aggression. The machine recorded the frequency, intensity and duration of the shocks administered. This was the dependent measure. The results revealed that the men were significantly more aggressive than the women.<sup>200</sup>

Certain limitations in the Buss design must be noted when considering this work. First, the sample appears to be selective affording generalization only to college students in introductory psychology classes who volunteer for experiments. Second, disregard of randomization or matching left the subjects unequated on major variables. Next, no baseline for subject aggressiveness was established. Finally, the use of the "aggression machine" may have set the "Hawthorne Effect" in operation. However, the fact that men proved more aggressive than women is related to the study, since it was hypothesized in this work that women are not pictured as aggressive in Walt Disney films.

Thompson study. An experiment to study aggression habit patterns and sex role was conducted by Thompson. One hundred eighteen men and one hundred eighteen women attending the

<sup>200</sup> Arnold H. Buss, "Physical Aggression in Relation to Different Frustrations," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, LXVII (July, 1963), p. 1.

University of Southern California participated in the study. The subjects were randomly assigned to two conditions of the experiment. Those subjects assigned to the "high anger instigation" condition answered a set of ten personality test items that differed significantly in anger-arousing potential from another set of ten comparable items administered to subjects in "low anger instigation" condition. All subjects were shown a set of eighteen slides depicting scenes that could be interpreted as anger arousing. Subjects were told to record briefly how they thought the slide figures felt. These responses were scored for presence of words with hostile, angry, and aggressive connotations. It was found that the attitude toward anti-social aggression was related to sex, men manifesting significantly more aggressive attitudes than women.<sup>201</sup>

Thompson completed a rigorously controlled study. It included randomization and pretesting to establish a baseline of aggressive attitudes. The results could be generalizable to most private colleges similar to the University of Southern California. On the other hand, grouping the subjects in "high anger" and "low anger" sections may have caused regression to the mean. In addition, use of a control group and establishment of the validity and reliability of the measure would have added power to the study.

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<sup>201</sup> Eric G. Thompson, An Experimental Study of Aggression Habit Patterns and Sex Role (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Southern California, 1965), pp. 1-118.



An investigation indicating that males manifested more aggressive attitudes is pertinent to a study of females as passive or aggressive. In comparison to the aggressive male, the female may indeed appear passive.

Mallick study. In an investigation of the catharsis of aggression, thirty male and eighteen female third-grade children in a middle-class public school were selected randomly from the total third-grade population and assigned to treatment conditions randomly. Two sixth-grade children, one boy and one girl, were selected as confederates. There were two treatments--frustration and nonfrustration. In the frustration condition, the confederate "clumsily" prevented the subject from completing five simple block construction tasks. The experimenter had promised the subject a nickel for each task completed in a limited time period. The confederate also interspersed his interference with a predetermined set of sarcastic remarks. In the nonfrustration condition, the confederate helped subjects to complete the tasks, and no reward was promised or given. In the next experimental phase, each subject was shown his partner (same confederate) sitting outside the room with his hands in contact with electric wires. The experimenter told the subject he could push a button and thus administer shocks to the confederate; no limit was set on the number of shocks that could be given. Subjects in the frustrating condition were told they could thus "get even." There were no significant sex differences in behavioral expression of aggression toward frustrators.

In a permissive situation where they were assured they could not be detected, girls behaved just as aggressively as the boys.<sup>202</sup>

Rigorous control of variables were achieved by utilization of random assignment and a control group. However, the sample group in this experiment may have been too small to make it mathematically possible for statistical significant differences to be obtained. Further, the experimental shock apparatus may have caused "reactive effects" to experimental equipment.

Mallick's interpretation of the finding of no sex differences in aggression has an important bearing upon the present investigation. He proposed that the female will act as aggressively as the male when she feels she is not being observed.

Dorman study. The investigator set out to examine the expression of aggression by preschool children in two Head Start schools in Quincy and Lynn, Massachusetts. The atmosphere of the two Quincy classrooms was one of general permissiveness during free play at which time observations were made. There were nine boys and four girls in one room and eight boys and six girls in the other. The Lynn population was more restricted, working at their desks, and often engaged in specific tasks. The make-up of one room was six boys and four girls. The other had six boys and nine girls. The children were seen individually within the classrooms. Each child was asked to respond to

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<sup>202</sup>Shahbaz Khan Mallick and Boyd R. McCandless, "A Study of Catharsis of Aggression," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, IV (November, 1966), p. 595.

three social situations depicted by dolls and drawings. The situation could elicit an aggressive or a non-aggressive or a non-responsive reaction. After all the children had been tested about the social situations, they played a block game in pairs. No attempt was made to equate the children. Any two children who volunteered were allowed to play. The experimenter watched and noted verbal and motor aggression. As another measure of overt aggression, all teachers were asked to rank order the children in terms of aggression displayed in the classrooms. The correlation between the experimenter's rating of aggression and the rankings from the teachers was .20. The results revealed that girls in Quincy expressed significantly more aggression than did the boys. In the pooled sample no significant differences were found between the sexes.<sup>203</sup>

The findings of the study are applicable to Head Start children. Nonetheless, there were some design limitations: (1) due to school differences, the testing period extended over a longer period of time in Quincy; (2) history and maturation may have differed for the two groups; (3) the variance in aggression for the Quincy girls may have been due to the effect of the differences in classroom environment which was not held constant; (4) no attempt was made to establish the validity or

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<sup>203</sup> Lynn M. Dorman, The Expression of Aggression in Pre-School Children. Head Start Evaluation and Research Center, Boston University, 1967.

reliability of the situational pictures; and finally, (5) the interjudge reliability was low. In spite of the above difficulties, it is important that Dorman found that given a permissive atmosphere, girls expressed more aggression than did boys. This is vital data which relates to a study of the female as passive or aggressive in Walt Disney screenplays and films.

Taylor study. This study investigated the relative aggressiveness of male and female subjects to male and female opponents in a competitive, aggressive confrontation in which the winner could inflict pain upon the loser. The subjects were twenty-four undergraduates, equally divided between the sexes, who were enrolled in an introductory psychology course at the University of Massachusetts. The apparatus used in the experiment consisted of the subject's task board, the investigator's monitoring board, and an AC constant current electrostimulator. Half the subjects in each group were informed that their opponent was a male and the other half that their opponent was a female. Each subject was told that he was competing on a task of reaction time with a subject in an adjoining room whom he would not see or meet. He was instructed to adjust a switch at the beginning of each trial to store any of five intensity levels of shock which he wished his opponent to receive. Those shocks, he was informed, would be administered to his opponent at the end of a trial if he were faster, while the subject would receive the shocks set for him by his opponent if the latter were faster. Actually, there was no opponent. Wins and

losses, level of shock set by the opponent, and the corresponding intensities of shock that were received were all programmed. It was discovered that males manifested significantly more aggressive behavior than did the females.<sup>204</sup>

Although Taylor's sample permits application of results to university psychology students similar to the sample group, it was small and selective. Further, no baseline level of aggressiveness was determined. Finally, the elaborate experimental equipment may have set the "Hawthorne Effect" in motion. Even though the design could have been improved upon, the finding that females reacted less aggressively than the males is relevant to the study of the passive or aggressive nature of females. Thus, Disney films may not be stereotyping the female in this respect.

Semler study. Twenty-five of forty-three, third-grade classrooms in Cedar Rapids, Iowa, were randomly selected to participate in the Semler experiment. There were 292 boys and 275 girls studied. The Peer-Rate Index of Aggression was administered as a group test to the pupils in the classroom as part of the city-wide testing program. The aggression and success in aggression scores for each child were obtained from the PRIA in which each child rated every other child in his class

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<sup>204</sup>Stuart P. Taylor and Seymour Epstein, "Aggression As a Function of the Interaction of the Sex of the Aggressor and the Sex of the Victim," Journal of Personality, XXXV (September, 1967), pp. 475-485.

on a series of items having to do with specific behaviors. Significantly higher aggression scores resulted for the males.<sup>205</sup>

Semler's work has a number of methodological strengths. To begin with, the random selection of the subjects in the investigation make the results generalizable to most third graders in the nation. Next, including the testing as part of the testing program may have eliminated the "reactive effects" to testing. Additionally, the use of sociometry provided a simple, economical and naturalistic method of data collection, while the employment of an instrument of adequate validity and reliability provided additional soundness to this study.

Due to its excellence, this research was highly pertinent to the present experiment. A finding that third-grade boys demonstrated greater aggression than third-grade girls is important to an investigation of the stereotyping of the aggressive-passive behavior of females.

Shemberg study. The relationship between the adequacy of sex-role adjustment and the capacity to express aggression in a situation calling for an aggressive response was investigated by Shemberg. Four hundred introductory psychology students were tested, and from these individuals twenty men and twenty women were selected on the basis of their representing extreme

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<sup>205</sup>Ira J. Semler, Leonard D. Eron, Leonard J. Meyerson and James F. Williams, "Relationship of Aggression in Third Grade Children to Certain Pupil Characteristics," Psychology in Schools, IV (January, 1967), pp. 85-88.

scores on the masculine-feminine dimension of the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey. These subjects were divided equally into four groups, masculine male (MM), feminine female (FF), feminine male (FM), and masculine female (MF). The MM and FF groups represent adequate sex-role identification, while the FM and MF groups represent inadequate sex-role identification. Subjects scoring at the ninetieth percentile or above on the MF scale were placed in the MM or MF groups, while subjects who scored at the tenth percentile or below on this scale were assigned to the FF and FM groups. The order of participation of the forty subjects was randomized. Aggression was measured by an aggression machine. The subject was told that he would use the machine to teach a concept via reward and punishment. It was indicated that reward involved flashing a "correct" light and that punishment involved the presentation of an electric shock each time the confederate made an error. The subject was then shown the shock buttons numbered one through ten on the machine. He was told he could vary the intensity of the shock from weak (button one) to strong (button ten). The measure of aggression was the number on the button pushed. There were no significant differences attributable to sex or sex-role identification. However, the interaction between sex and sex-role identification was significant. The explanation that Shemberg gave is that those groups representing adequate sex-role adjustment are primarily conformists (i.e. conforming

to cultural expectations for one's sex), while those groups representing inadequate sex-role identification are primarily nonconformists.<sup>206</sup>

While Shemberg did utilize a standardized instrument with determined validity and reliability which strengthened his study, he neglected employment of a pretest to determine a baseline level of aggression for the subjects. Furthermore, a means to equate the subjects on major variables was not used. Moreover, the electronic equipment may have induced "reactive effects." Nonetheless, the finding of the interaction between sex and sex-role identification is relevant to an investigation of the female as passive or aggressive. The indication that those who conform to cultural expectations in aggression have adequate sex-role identity and those that do not conform to aggressive expectations do not have adequate sex-role identity is vital to the understanding of the stereotyping of the female as either passive or aggressive.

Feshbach study. Reactions of male and female adolescent pairs to a same-sex newcomer were observed by Feshbach as a means of assessing sex differences in aggressive behavior. The subjects in the experiment were seventh and eighth grade students attending a Los Angeles junior high school. The sample consisted

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<sup>206</sup> K. M. Shemberg, S. Kaye Van Schoelandt and D. B. Seventhal, "Effects of Sex-Role Adjustment upon the Expression of Aggression," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, VIII (February, 1968), pp. 393-395.



of forty-two boys and forty-five girls. The students were divided into all-male and all-female triads. The first two members of the group were judged by their teacher to be "close friends." This judgment was subsequently verified by the children's own reports. During each experimental session, the subjects who had previously been categorized into friendship pairs were brought to the experimental room. They were then advised that they were going to solve social problems together and while there were no correct or incorrect solutions, they were ultimately to arrive at a group decision for each problem. Following the presentation of three problems, the experimenter informed the original pair that she was also interested in observing the process by which an enlarged group of three members would arrive at a common conclusion. A third member, the newcomer, was then brought into the room and introduced. Two problems similar in nature to the first three were then given to the triad to solve. Thus, the original group members participated in the discussion of five problems while the newcomers participated in the solution of two. When the problem-solving phase of the experimental session was completed, rating scales were completed by the triads. Each subject was then asked to evaluate and rate each of the other two group members. The experimental results indicated that female friendship pairs displayed significantly more aggressive behaviors toward same-sex strangers than did pairs of male friends.<sup>207</sup>

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<sup>207</sup>Norma Feshbach, Sex Differences in Adolescent Reactions Toward Newcomers (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of California, Irvine, 1969), pp. 1-265.

Despite the elaborate experimental procedures utilized by Feshbach, additional strength could have been afforded this study by several means. For example, the use of randomization; reliability and validity checks performed on all of the instruments (none were performed), as well as determining interrater reliability for the teachers' judgments--all would have added research respectability.

In all fairness, however, it must be noted that this investigator did compare judge ratings to student ratings. An additional strength was that "reactive effects" to experimental equipment were avoided by the use of the sociometric technique. Finally, due to these procedures, the study findings may be applied to most urban junior high students.

Feshbach's study is germane to an investigation of the aggressive or passive nature of females. The finding that pairs of females are more hostile to a stranger than pairs of males is important to the subject under examination.

Shortell study. Middle and upper-middle class, sixth grade children from Norwalk, Connecticut, (twenty-four boys, twenty-four girls) were told that they were competing in a reaction time experiment against either a boy or a girl in another room. Following each contest, the slower person would receive a loud tone, the level of which was selected by the faster person. In reality there was no opponent and the subjects' win-loss ratio and tone level were both determined by the experimenter. The subject was informed that he was to press

one of the noise level switches on his panel after trials on which he had a faster reaction time than his opponent. If he had a slower reaction time, he was told that he would receive whatever noise level the opponent set before the trial. It was found that male subjects set significantly higher noise levels than female subjects.<sup>208</sup>

Whereas this was a novel modification of the traditional electric shock experiment, its major variables were not equated by design planning. Furthermore, the "Hawthorne Effect" may have been induced by the unique experimental equipment. Finally, no baseline indication was determined for the subject's aggressive level. Notwithstanding, Shortell's study relates to the present research. It corroborates findings of several investigations reported in the foregoing pages indicating that males are more aggressive than females.

Hapkiewicz study. Sixty second-grade children enrolled in a New York metropolitan area school served as subjects in an experiment. Hapkiewicz studied the effect of aggressive cartoons on children's interpersonal play. In order to control for prior associations and to maximize the probability of aggression, subjects were randomly assigned to same-sex pairs. Each pair of children was randomly assigned to one of three

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<sup>208</sup>James R. Shortell and Henry Biller, "Aggression in Children as a Function of Sex of Subject and Sex of Opponent," Developmental Psychology, III (February, 1970), p. 143.

groups. The three treatment conditions included presentation of: (1) an aggressive cartoon, (2) a nonaggressive cartoon and (3) no cartoon. Only one pair of subjects was tested at a time. As soon as the subjects had seen the films, the children were asked if they would like to see another movie. All subjects responded eagerly and were taken to an adjacent testing room. Upon entering the room, the experimenter said, "I have a lot of work to do so I will be very busy. But, while I'm working, you can watch the movie." The experimenter then pointed to a single peep-hole in a box. The researchist started the movie and sat with his back to the subjects. The subjects' interactions were video-tape recorded by a hidden camera. The paradigm maintained continuous frustration between the children as they vied for access to the peep-hole. In order to rate the children's behavior each video tape recording was shown twice. A different child was rated on each showing with an independent judge and the experimenter rating the behaviors. Males exhibited significantly more aggression than the girls.<sup>209</sup>

The Hapkiewicz study had many design strengths. To begin with, the random assignment of the subjects controlled for the initial variability of the subjects, making the results applicable to many urban second graders. Besides this, by use of the

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<sup>209</sup> Walter G. Hapkiewicz and Aubrey H. Rodin, The Effect of Aggressive Cartoons: Children's Interpersonal Play, a Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, New York, (February, 1971).

video tape equipment to obtain an unobtrusive measure, the researcher eliminated the need for validity and reliability measures of a test. Lastly, the experimenter established inter-rater reliability with an independent judge. The single weakness is that the elaborate experimental equipment and procedures may have established the "Hawthorne Effect." Regardless of the one problem, this study is apropos to an investigation of the female as passive or aggressive. The demonstration that boys exhibited more aggression than girls is relevant to the subject at hand.

Riggs study. An experiment was carried out by Riggs to investigate the effects of a subject observing someone else in pain on the subsequent aggression displayed by that subject. Some subjects observed a female accomplice who was supposedly in pain; others observed a male accomplice in the same setting; and still others spent the same amount of time observing an empty room. Half the subjects were insulted prior to this and half were not. The sixty subjects were undergraduate students at Eastern Kentucky University, randomly assigned to one of three experimental conditions. Half were insulted when seated at the control panel by the experimenter; half were not. The subject was instructed to teach a concept to an accomplice of the researchist by the punishment-reward method. The accomplice feigned pain when shocked by the subject for responding with wrong answers. The results indicated that male subjects engaged in significantly more aggression than female subjects;

that insulted subjects engaged in more aggression than non-insulted subjects; and that subjects observing a female in pain engaged in significantly more aggression than subjects observing a male or observing no one at all.<sup>210</sup>

The results of this study should be applicable to most university populations similar to that which was utilized in the study, due to the employment of the randomized control group, posttest-only design. This is a research procedure of rigorous control. However, the presence of the experimental equipment may have made the subjects aware of the fact that they were participating in an experiment and may have thus altered their normal behavior. In spite of this, a finding that is allied to the present research was disclosed by the investigator. Female subjects observed to be in pain tended to increase subsequent aggression from both males and females.

Rowley study. Rowley planned this research to examine the relationship between exposure to an aggressive cartoon and subsequent aggressive behavior. Ninety-six Boston first-grade children were randomly assigned, (twelve boys and twelve girls), to each of four treatment groups: two experimental groups and two control groups. Each of these four groups was randomly divided into six like-sex activity groups of four children each.

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<sup>210</sup> Jay G. Riggs, An Investigation of the Effects of the Observation of Another's Pain on Subsequent Levels of Aggression by the Observer (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Wayne State University, 1971), pp. 1-69.

Children in one experimental group and one control group were mildly frustrated by being scolded for playground behavior by the experimenter. Children in the other experimental and control group were not frustrated. Children in the experimental group were then shown an aggressive cartoon, while the control subjects listened to a nonaggressive story. All children were then given the opportunity to aggress in free play. Three raters with an interrater reliability score of .91 recorded aggressive acts. It was found that neither condition (film or story) nor sex (boy or girl) made any significant difference in the amount of aggressive behavior.<sup>211</sup>

Rowley performed a rigorously controlled experiment. Her use of randomization combined with the control groups established control over major variables. Due to an urban sample of adequate size, the results are applicable to nearly all first graders. Moreover, she determined interjudge reliability, something earlier studies sometimes neglected to do. A work of such high caliber that reports no differences between the sexes in aggressive behavior is a vital data source for research on the stereotyping of the female as passive or aggressive.

Booth study. The purpose of Booth's work was to explore the effect of sexual identity on the imitation of aggression in preschool children. The subjects were sixty-four Portland, Maine, children between the ages of three and six years. They

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<sup>211</sup>Rowley, op. cit., pp. 1-68.

were given the Brown It Scale for Children, as a measure of sexual identity. A median score on this instrument was obtained for the children. A child was considered to be high or low sex-typed, depending on which side of the median his score fell. Subjects on each side of the median within each sex grouping were matched on age, within a six-month range, and randomly assigned to one of two films of adult models aggressing against a plastic, inflatable "Bobo" doll. The films were equivalent with the exception that one model was a male, while the other was a female. Children were shown the films individually, and following this viewing, were allowed to play with the toys used in the films. Subjects were viewed as they played and their level of imitation of aggression was assessed. Results replicated the relationships reported by previous studies concerning the imitation of aggression and subject sex as the males displayed a significantly more aggressive imitation of the models than the females in the study.<sup>212</sup>

Booth's research was adequate in three important aspects. First, the utilization of a standardized instrument to sex-type the subjects strengthened the study. Second, his dependent measure had adequate validity and reliability. Finally, randomization of the subjects controlled most experimental variables.

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<sup>212</sup>David W. Booth, The Effect of Psychological Sexual Identity on Imitation of Aggression in Preschool Children (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Maine, 1971), pp. 1-90.



Notwithstanding, without a control group, testing "reactive effects" may have occurred. In addition, rater reliability was not determined. Improvement of these two procedures would have eliminated any doubts concerning Booth's design. Nonetheless, in that this experiment confirmed the findings that males demonstrated more aggressive behavior than females, it is germane to the present investigation of the female as passive or aggressive.

Summary of the female as passive or aggressive. Regardless of the age group in question, males were clearly more aggressive than females in the vast majority of studies reviewed in the section above. The work of Toigo<sup>213</sup>, Booth<sup>214</sup>, and Buss<sup>215</sup> all support this affirmation. However, there were some notable exceptions to this conclusion. For instance, Dorman<sup>216</sup>, who studied preschool children, found girls more aggressive than boys. The fact that she measured verbal aggression as well as motor aggression may explain this finding. In addition to this Mallick<sup>217</sup> found females as aggressive as males. It is possible that the permissive situation where he assured his subjects they could not be detected in their aggressive acts, freed the females of their need to conform to the expected female role. Furthermore, Rowley<sup>218</sup> found no sex differences in aggressive behavior

<sup>213</sup> Ibid., p. 788.

<sup>214</sup> Ibid., p. 90.

<sup>215</sup> Ibid., p. 1.

<sup>216</sup> Ibid., p. 67.

<sup>217</sup> Ibid., p. 595.

<sup>218</sup> Ibid., p. 69.

between the sexes. The fact that the children were observed in free play, once again without the threat of detection, could aid in the elucidation of these seemingly contradictory findings. Shemberg<sup>219</sup> explained the aggressive behavior of his female subjects as inadequate sex-role identification. In other words, his female college subjects were primarily nonconformists to cultural expectations.

The sex differences in aggressiveness between males and females may be seen as largely determined by cultural influences although biological differences play a part as well. This view is supported by Allport and Lindzey.<sup>220</sup> Cultural influences stem mainly from the home. In most cases boys have been encouraged by their parents to "fight it out," while the girls are not permitted to be aggressive because it is considered "unfeminine". Sears' investigations corroborated this view.<sup>221</sup> As for biological factors, males tend to be more proficient in gross bodily movements which make the muscular reactions of men more suited for aggressive behavior.

Hence, the findings of the majority of the investigations in this section that males were more aggressive than females conformed to cultural and biological expectations.

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<sup>219</sup> Ibid., p. 393.

<sup>220</sup> G. W. Allport and G. Lindzey, Study of Values, Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1951, pp. 25-62.

<sup>221</sup> R. R. Sears, "Relation of Early Socialization Experiences to Aggression in Middle Childhood," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, LXIII (April, 1961), 466-92.

#### IV. THE FEMALE AS DEPENDENT OR INDEPENDENT

##### Introduction

This portion of the present report deals with the female as dependent or independent. It was hypothesized above that Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as dependent. Research concerning the dependence-independence nature of the female is reviewed in the following pages in a temporal sequence beginning with the earliest investigations.

Hartup study. This was an observational investigation of dependency behavior in forty-one children attending the Pre-school Laboratories of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station. Nineteen boys and twenty-two girls with a mean age of five years, two months, participated in the research. The children were members of the upper-middle class and were above average in intelligence. Fifty-five, three-minute observations on each child were carried out during eighteen school days in a four-week period. Subjects were observed in rotation with order of observation determined at random. The observers completed a frequency count of all behaviors listed on a nonstandardized dependency check list. In order to establish their interrater reliability the two observers completed a series of training observations on a group of children who were not subjects in the investigation. The odd-even correlations from all

observations was .69. No significant sex differences were found between males and females in dependency.<sup>222</sup>

The present investigator noted several difficulties with the Hartup research. To begin with, the sample may have been so small that it was impossible mathematically to attain statistically significant differences between groups. Additionally, the population used was selective, making the generalization of results limited. Further, Hartup did not establish the validity and reliability of the measurement check list. Finally, utilization of a reactive measure with the nonreactive measure would have strengthened the work. To his credit, the investigator did establish the interrater reliability of his check list. Even though the study may be criticized in some aspects, the finding that there may not be differences between preschool children in dependency is related to an investigation of the female as dependent or independent.

Mearig study. In her experiment, Mearig studied fluency and dependency as predictors of sex differences in ability and achievement. The sample consisted of 253 pupils at the University School of the University of Michigan. They were enrolled in grades four through twelve. The dependent variables employed were various achievement and ability tests. Independent variables were the Torrance Creativity and Barron Anagrams tests.

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<sup>222</sup>Willard W. Hartup and E. Duwayne Killer, "Nurturance in Preschool Children and its Relation to Dependency," Child Development, XXXI (December, 1960), pp. 681-689.

The statistical analysis was done on the IBM 7090 Computer. It was found that girls sometimes surpassed boys on dependency measures, but the results were not significant.<sup>223</sup>

We may have confidence in the findings reported by Mearig because the use of standardized tests gave her rigorous control over the reliability and validity of her measures. Thus, the results of this report are applicable to populations similar to the test norming groups.

The scope of Mearig's work--covering a range of students from upper elementary through secondary--makes this study important to the present research. It is vital to an examination of the dependence-independence of the female to discover that there may be no difference between the sexes, regardless of age level.

Stein study. The subjects for this investigation of dependency behavior were 120 preschool children equally divided on the basis of sex. Sixty subjects were enrolled in the University of Minnesota Laboratory Nursery School. The remaining sixty subjects were enrolled in day-care nurseries in lower socioeconomic areas in Minneapolis and St. Paul. The subjects were tested individually by a single, female adult who served as model. The task was for the experimenter and the subject

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<sup>223</sup> Judith S. Mearig, Fluency and Dependency as Predictors of Sex Differences in Ability and Achievement (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Michigan, 1964), pp. 1-134.

to alternate in choosing "quills" (pipe cleaners) to insert in their "porcupines" (pieces of soft clay). The subject was presented with two series of twelve imitative trials, separated by a period of time. Each subject, thus, provided a measure of his own base level of dependency from which change could be determined. A concealed observer recorded all responses, as did the investigator. The mean percentage of interjudge agreement was 99 per cent. Attempts by the subject to gain the researchist's attention or approval were recorded by the concealed observer. An attention bid was defined as any conversation initiated by the child or any activity by the child which appeared to be an effort to attract the experimenter's attention. Attention bids which fitted into the game or did not disrupt it were scored as positive dependency while those which disrupted the game or expressed dissatisfaction, hostility or boredom were scored as independence. The subjects were randomly divided into three equal groups. One group was given dependency training, a second group was given independency training and a control group was presented with neither dependency or independency training between the two observations. It was found that, overall, the day care group showed greater increases in dependency than the university group, though the effect was not significant. Boys and girls did not differ.<sup>224</sup>

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<sup>224</sup> Aletha Huston Stein and John Wright, "Imitative Learning under Conditions of Nurturance and Nurturance Withdrawal," Child Development, XXXV (September, 1964), pp. 927-937.

Stein's design was commendable in several facets: (1) it was a rigorously controlled experiment; (2) randomization and a control group were employed; (3) a pretest baseline level of dependency was obtained; (4) interjudge reliability was established; (5) employment of the concealed observer may have eliminated "reactive effects" to experimental procedures; and (6) because of the random selection of the sample population, the results of the experiment are generalizable to nearly all nursery-aged children. Because of her rigorous design, Stein helps establish the theory that there is no difference between the sexes in dependency, a finding that relates to the present research.

Schopler study. In order to study sex differences in dependence, thirty men and thirty women were recruited by Schopler from an introductory psychology course at New York University. The experimental room contained four adjoining booths, separated by high partitions. Each booth contained a set of headphones, which were attached to a tape recorder. Each subject was told that he and another subject had been randomly selected to be a "supervisor" in the experiment. Each supervisor was to be paired with a subordinate. In fact, all subjects were supervisors and the messages they subsequently received from their subordinates were prepared beforehand by the experimenter. The experimental task had been constructed to give each subject absolute power over a dependent partner, who possessed no counterpower. The task required the subject

to make a series of decisions. Each of his choices determined the outcome he received and the outcome his partner received. The alternative producing the best outcome for the subject, produced the worst outcome for the partner. The major dependent variable was the degree to which the subject selected an alternative that deemed him independent. There was no significant difference between males and females in independent behavior.<sup>225</sup>

There are two areas in which the Schopler study may be questioned. First, the fact that the subjects for the experiment were volunteers limits the generalizability of the findings. Second, the elaborate experimental equipment may have set the "Hawthorne Effect" into motion. On the other hand, the unobtrusive measure did not introduce stimulus factors to which the subject might react. Therefore, Schopler's work is another experiment which may confirm the possibility that there are no differences between males and females in dependent-independent behavior.

Hilton study. In order to study dependency, children approximately four years old (half boys, half girls), participated in an experiment performed by Hilton. New York City nursery school directors identified the parents having four-year old children. Only three parents contacted refused to

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<sup>225</sup> John Schopler, "An Investigation of Sex Differences on the Influence of Dependence," Sociometry, XXX (March, 1967), pp. 53-63.



participate. Sixty parent-child pairs so selected visited the laboratory; ostensibly to participate in a study of independent thinking. Half of the parents were given to understand that their child's performance was below average (failure) and half of the parents were told that their child's performance was above average (success). This was done without regard to the child's ability. In both conditions the parent observed the child for five minutes while the child did a series of puzzles. The child was given a private evaluation of his performance. The parent was then left alone with the child for five minutes with instructions to do anything he felt like doing while the experimenter got some more materials. The sequence was repeated twice and was followed by a strong success experience for all children. All of the sessions were observed through a one-way screen by two judges, who were ignorant of the child's condition (success or failure). In regard to the parent's behavior in promoting dependent or independent behaviors as observed by the judges, it was discovered that while there were strong consistent distinctions in parental treatment of children of different birth orders, there were no significant sex differences between boys and girls in dependent-independent behaviors.<sup>226</sup>

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<sup>226</sup>Irma Hilton, "Differences in the Behavior of Parents Toward First and Later-Born Children," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, VII (October, 1967), pp. 282-289.

As the manner of sample selection is extremely biased, it limits the application of the findings of the study. Besides this, the "Hawthorne Effect" may have been in operation as parents were "invited to take part in a study of their child's thinking ability." Finally, no attempt was made to determine the interrater reliability of the judges. Although the design can be sharply criticized, a finding of no difference in dependence-independence behaviors between nursery school boys and girls must be considered because the hypothesis under study concerns the female as dependent or independent.

Acheson study. Acheson studied the dependent behaviors of Head Start children in New York City. Thirty-four Head Start students selected randomly were scheduled to be observed during free play by six observers. Each observer watched each child for a fifteen minute period, making notations of each dependency interaction on a specially designed form. These notations recorded the type of pupil dependency initiating the interaction, as well as the sex of the child. The results of the observations showed that the girls and boys expressed similar dependency.<sup>227</sup>

Some aspects of Acheson's work must be questioned. To begin with, the sample may have been so small that it was not

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<sup>227</sup> Elizabeth Acheson, Responses of Teachers to Pupils' Dependent Behavior and the Reactions of Pupils to these Responses (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Temple University, 1969), pp. 1-119.

mathematically possible to show statistically significant differences between the groups. Too, no attempt was made to establish interrater reliability between the six judges. And finally, validity and reliability of the report form was not determined. One strength of the study was the random selection of the subjects. This permits wide generalization of the results.

In spite of the possible methodological problems, this experiment corroborates the findings of many of the above studies. That there may be no difference in dependency between males and females has implications for the present investigation.

DuHamel study. DuHamel examined dependence-independence by relating these traits to nonimitative and imitative responses. He assumed that nonimitative responses demonstrate independence; imitative responses indicate dependence. His subjects were thirty-two boys and thirty-one girls, all members of middle-class families. These Boston children had a mean age of five years, six months. Parental and nonimitation preferences were determined by asking questions involving three non-sex-typed human figures. After each question the experimenter indicated verbally, and by placement of a particular Flagg doll, the "mother" and "father" choices. The subject was then instructed to make his choice by moving the child doll (sex determined by the sex of the subject) to one of the three figures; thus, the subjects had the alternatives of imitating the mother, the father, or not imitating. There was a significant difference

between boys and girls. More boys than girls made a non-imitative response. Thus, it may be that boys demonstrated more independent behavior than the girls as defined by the assumptions of this work.<sup>228</sup>

DuHamel devised a unique nonreactive measure which eliminated the need for elaborate equipment. Thus, "reactive effects" may have been avoided. Although the validity and reliability of this dependent measure were not established, and the sample group was small and selective, the findings conformed to the cultural expectation--that boys are supposed to behave more independently than girls. This is as hypothesized in the present work.

DiBartolo study. It was hypothesized that sex differences in dependency would be found in this investigation performed by DiBartolo. Twenty-four Minneapolis preschool children in the federally supported (Early Push Program) were used as subjects. Half were males and half were females. For one month prior to the experimental sessions, two classroom teachers independently rated the children for dependency using the Biller Scale. The interjudge coefficient was .54. The behavior ratings were pooled for each child with the mean score adopted as the indication of dependency level. The subjects

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<sup>228</sup> Thomas R. DuHamel and Henry B. Biller, "Parental Imitation and Nonimitation," Developmental Psychology, I (November, 1969), p. 772.

were divided into high and low dependency groups. This assignment yielded twelve boys and twelve girls in each condition. Each subject was brought individually to the experimental room, where the experimenter asked the subject to solve a puzzle. One of four puzzles was used to assess the effects of the variables on performance. The experimenter adopted a nurturant pattern of behavior. After this session, a three-minute rest period consisted of talking with the experimenter about things other than the puzzle. The subject solved the puzzle again, either under the condition of nurturance deprivation or under conditions of continued nurturance. No significant differences in dependency between the sexes were found.<sup>229</sup>

There were several positive points in DiBartolo's work: (1) the research established a base level of dependency for the subjects, (2) interjudge reliability was established, and (3) a rating scale of determined reliability and validity was employed. In contrast to this: (1) the selective sample restricts the generalization of results to children in the Early Push Program and (2) the length of time between the pretest and posttest may have caused the findings to be confounded by history and maturation. Nonetheless, one must not overlook the findings that there were no differences in dependency between the sexes,

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<sup>229</sup>Russell DiBartolo and Edward Vinacke, "Relationship Between Adult Nurturance and Dependency and Performance of the Preschool Child," Developmental Psychology, 1 (May, 1969), pp. 248-251.

because of design difficulties. On the contrary, that there may be no differences between the sexes is important data for an investigation of the female as dependent or independent.

Todd study. Todd utilized twenty-six boys and twenty-eight girls in his research. They had a mean age of six years and four months. The children attended the University Elementary School at UCLA, and were predominantly from the upper-middle class. The subjects were first rated by their teachers on dependence-independence scales developed by Beller, then tested for dependence-independence on a marble game apparatus. The frequency with which the subjects sought attention and help was the dependent measure of dependence. The frequency with which the subject took initiative, persisted and wanted to play the game by himself was the dependent measure of independence. The rating was done by the experimenter on a specially prepared form. A significant sex effect with the performance of males being more independent than the females was found.<sup>230</sup>

Todd's research was marked by some methodological weaknesses as well as by strengths. First, not only did the nature of the sample limit the generalization of the results, but interjudge reliability of the teachers was not ascertained. Second, the "Halo Effect" may have operated. Finally, the apparatus may have set off the "reactive effects" to experimental

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<sup>230</sup> Judy Todd and Charles Y. Nakamura, "Interactive Effects of Informational and Affective Components of Social and Non-social Reinforcers on Independent and Dependent Children," Child Development, XLI (June, 1970), pp. 365-376.

equipment. Two positive aspects were that a baseline level of dependence-independence was established and the Beller Scale employed had adequate reliability and validity. Although the design left some question about the generalization of the findings, the research points to the possibility that males may be more independent than females.

Loney study. Free-choice (Draw whatever you would like) pencil drawings were collected during class time from 176 first-grade and 199 sixth-grade children at six Iowa elementary schools. Loney based his exploration of dependency on the clinical assumption that the spontaneous drawings of suns is a reflection of dependency feelings. Rounded, "sun-like" objects, with or without rays, that were located at or above the horizon or in an area that appeared to be the sky were considered to be suns. Virtually no ambiguity arose over classification. Suns were drawn more frequently by younger children. Suns were also more frequent in the drawings of girls. The chi-square value was significant, thus indicating that girls were more dependent than boys.<sup>231</sup>

Because use of children's drawings produced in class time may have eliminated "reactive effects" of experimental equipment and procedure, Loney eliminated some important

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<sup>231</sup> Jan Loney, "The Sun as a Measure of Dependency in Children's Drawings," Journal of Clinical Psychology, XXVII (October, 1971), pp. 513-514.

difficulties of earlier studies. In spite of this, Loney provided no validity or reliability check for the "sun" drawing assumption, nor did he determine his reliability as a rater. However, Loney's work, which confirms the findings of Todd, is germane to the present work. In research studying the female as dependent-independent, any indication that the female is dependent is relevant.

Goggin study. This investigation of dependency was carried out at two private nursery schools, using a sample of seventy-three white children (thirty-two girls and forty-one boys). The subjects had a mean age of four years and seven months. An observation technique was utilized to measure the dependent behavior shown by the children as they participated in the nursery school programs. Each child was observed by two recorders for twelve ten-minute periods. In the laboratory the subject's performance on purposive and incidental learning tasks was measured by a third observer. No significant differences in dependency behavior was found between boys and girls.<sup>232</sup>

The fact that Goggin determined a baseline level of dependency behavior, and used independent observers to help avoid the "Halo Effect" common to this type of study, were positive aspects of the work. But it must be noted that interjudge

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<sup>232</sup> James E. Goggin, Dependency, Imitation Learning and the Process of Identification (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Yeshiva University, 1971), pp. 1-168.



reliability was not determined. Also the reliability and validity of the rating scales was not determined. Furthermore, taking the child to the laboratory may have set the "Hawthorne Effect" into motion. Despite these possible flaws in design, the finding of no differences between males and females in dependency supports the findings of several experiments above. It is related to the present investigation of the female as dependent or independent.

Weissman study. This experiment involved the concept of field dependence, a concept which is, in turn, assumed to be related to social dependence. Research has indicated that females tend to score higher on field dependency tests. Weissman worked with a group of Washington, D.C. junior high school students. There were twenty-one girls and nineteen boys. The Embedded Figures Test, a measure of field-dependence-independence, was administered to the subjects. Boys were significantly more field independent than the girls in the study. Hence, the researchist concluded that boys were more socially independent than girls.<sup>233</sup>

Neglect of randomization which may limit the generalization of results to similar sample populations, was the only problem with the study. In comparison to this, the strengths

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<sup>233</sup> Hilda Weissman, Sex Differences in Perceptual Style in Junior High School in Relation to Nursery-School and Current Dependency and Sex Role Crystallization, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, The Catholic University of America, 1971), pp. 1-83.

loom large. To start with, Weissman used a measure with established validity and reliability. Thus, use of the standardized measure eliminated some of the problems met in studies employing elaborate equipment or raters. As may be seen, the worth of the study rests upon the validity and reliability of the measure. A reliability coefficient of .90 was reported in The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook. The same source proceeds to report:

Although in its current form the instrument is crude and unwieldy, there is every reason to believe that it can be improved and simplified and that parallel forms can be developed. With such technical improvement, the test will provide a worthy and auspicious addition to psychology's list of valid devices of measurement.<sup>234</sup>

Given this adequate statistical support, it may be assumed that Weissman's experiment is pertinent to the present investigation. That males may be more independent than females is important to the present exploration of females as dependent or independent.

Bigelow study. Employing the Children's Embedded Figures Test to ascertain the dependency of 160 randomly-selected Provo, Utah, children, Bigelow investigated dependency. The subjects were five- to ten-year old children. Each group was broken into subgroups by school and then by sex, making substrata. The dependent measure was administered in the classroom. It

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<sup>234</sup>Oscar Buros, The Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook (New Jersey: The Gryphon Press, 1965), p. 69.

was discovered that sex differences in dependency were not produced in this work.<sup>235</sup>

The Bigelow research revealed a number of strengths with regard to design. Planning random selection into the design provided Bigelow with a rigorously controlled study. Equally as important, he used a dependent measure with established reliability and validity. Further, employment of the regular classroom setting may have helped to avoid the possibility of "reactive effects" to experimental equipment and procedures. Therefore, results may be generalized to most metropolitan samples. His finding that sex differences in dependency did not appear is apropos to the current investigation.

Silber study. A total of 243 undergraduates at the University of Washington completed the Embedded Figures Test. Analysis of sex differences showed that females were significantly more influenced by background than were males. This was construed to mean that the females were more dependent than the males.<sup>236</sup>

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<sup>235</sup>Gordon S. Bigelow, "Field Dependence-Field Independence in Five- to Ten-Year Old Children," The Journal of Educational Research, LXIV (May-June, 1971), pp. 397-400.

<sup>236</sup>Diane B. Silber, Adaption-Level as a Function of Extraversion and Field Dependence (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Washington University, 1971), pp. 1-62.

Because Silber employed a test of established reliability and validity, her finding that females were dependent may be accepted with a great deal of confidence. Her results may be generalized to most university students.

Ferrill study. In an attempt to determine dependency of lower-class subjects, Ferrill administered the Children's Embedded Figures Test. The subjects were 160 male and female pre-school lower-class Negro children from Jackson, Mississippi. It was found that there was no significant difference between boys and girls on the field dependency measure.<sup>237</sup>

This experimental sample permits the application of the results to similar Negro populations. Use of the school environment for the testing eliminated some possible "reactive effects" to testing. The dependent measure possessed adequate reliability and validity.

Ferrill's work corroborates the research of others. The fact that there may be no difference in dependency of males and females is germane to the present report.

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<sup>237</sup> Jack Gordon Ferrill, The Differential Performance of Lower Class Preschool, Negro Children as a Function of the Sex of E, Sex of S, Reinforcement Condition, and Level of Field Dependence (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Southern Mississippi, 1971), pp. 1-136.

Summary of the female as dependent or independent. The research studies of this section were summarized in relation to a two-part theory of dependency development. First of all, as noted by Goldenson, "today psychologists emphasize the fact that every child starts out in life as a completely dependent individual."<sup>238</sup> When one reviews the studies on the subject of dependence-independence, it becomes clear that this is the case. For example, Hortup<sup>239</sup> in studying preschool children, found no difference between the sexes in dependency behaviors. In addition, Stein<sup>240</sup> reported that boys and girls in preschool did not differ in dependent-independent actions. Acheson<sup>241</sup>, similarly, demonstrated that preschool boys and girls were similar in dependency reactions. Moreover, in another preschool study, Di. Bartolo<sup>242</sup> found no sex differences in dependency. Finally, Goggin<sup>243</sup>, Hilton<sup>244</sup>, and Ferrill<sup>245</sup> all supported the fact that preschool children were similar in dependency. The lone dissenting researcher was Du Homel<sup>246</sup>, who found boys were more independent than girls in preschool.

The second part of this dependency theory was expressed by Bigelow<sup>247</sup> when he commented that "Sex differences in dependency occur most markedly after age five." Apparently the

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<sup>238</sup> Robert M. Goldenson, The Encyclopedia of Human Behavior, Vol. I, Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1970, p. 313.

<sup>239</sup> Ibid., p. 681.

<sup>240</sup> Ibid., p. 928.

<sup>241</sup> Ibid., p. 119.

<sup>242</sup> Ibid., p. 248.

<sup>243</sup> Ibid., p. 168.

<sup>244</sup> Ibid., p. 282.

<sup>245</sup> Ibid., p. 103.

<sup>246</sup> Ibid., p. 772.

<sup>247</sup> Ibid., p. 69.

entering of school marks the end of dependency behavior for most males. This is probably explained by the fact that boys in our culture are given the sex role of independence and females are given the sex role of dependence. The school merely reinforces these cultural expectations. Todd<sup>248</sup>, for instance, reported a significant sex effect with males being more independent than females. This was substantiated by Loney<sup>249</sup>, who judged girls to be more dependent than boys. Not all elementary studies reported this difference between the sexes. Bigelow<sup>250</sup>, for example, did not find this sex difference in dependency. Furthermore, Mearig<sup>251</sup> discovered no sex differences in dependent-independent reactions of elementary students. Weissman's study<sup>252</sup> of adolescence confirmed a continuity in the theory of independence for the male and dependence for the female. He adjudged boys as significantly more socially independent than girls. In addition, Selber<sup>253</sup> found college females more dependent than college males. In contrast, Schapler<sup>254</sup> found no differences in college students in independent behavior.

Therefore, it appears that before age five, both males and females are dependent. At age five and after, males become more prone to independent behavior than females.

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<sup>248</sup> Ibid., p. 365.

<sup>249</sup> Ibid., p. 513.

<sup>250</sup> Ibid., p. 69.

<sup>251</sup> Ibid., p. 134.

<sup>252</sup> Ibid., p. 83.

<sup>253</sup> Ibid., p. 62.

<sup>254</sup> Ibid., p. 53.

## V. THE FEMALE AS ARTISTIC OR NOT ARTISTIC

### Introduction

It was hypothesized above that Walt Disney films and screenplays depict the female as artistic. In order to investigate that theory, an examination of the literature pertaining to the artistic nature of women was completed. The investigations are reported in chronological order below.

Bieri study. The Barron-Welch Art Scale was administered by the investigator to sixty-two female undergraduates attending Radcliffe College and fifty male undergraduates attending Harvard University. This was part of a larger research project. The test-retest correlation of the instrument was .94. The Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook reported that, "It is a research test and before any reliance can be placed on its scores, further validation work is essential."<sup>255</sup> No significant sex differences were found on the art scale.<sup>256</sup>

Bieri's study had both strengths and weaknesses which should be noted. His sample group, for example, was quite selective. Further, his measuring instrument had unestablished validity. Nonetheless, the dependent measure had high reliability. In addition, by utilizing the paper and pencil test, the experimenter may have avoided "reactive effects" to experimental procedures and equipment.

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<sup>255</sup> Buros, op. cit., p. 198.

<sup>256</sup> James Bieri, "Sex Differences in Perceptual Behavior," Journal of Personality, XXVI (March, 1958), pp. 1-6.

Notwithstanding the problems cited, this study is pertinent to the present research. The fact that no differences were found between males and females in aesthetic judgment is important to an investigation of the stereotyping of the female as artistic in Disney Productions films and screenplays.

Teed study. This investigation was designed by Teed to examine the relationship of the two-dimensional and three-dimensional creative art expressions of adolescents. The subjects were seventh and eighth grade students in Pittsburgh junior high schools. In the first phase of the experiment, materials were collected from the normal art classrooms where no influences were imposed upon the teacher, students or classroom. The second part was designed by the researcher to control some of the diversity of materials. In addition, the investigator taught all the classes, as a control for the teacher variable. The products created in the two experiments were evaluated by three teams of three judges each. They utilized an overall aesthetic quality criterion. From the findings in this research, the investigator concluded that there was no significant difference between girls and boys in the quality of two-dimensional and three-dimensional art products.<sup>257</sup>

Teed accomplished major steps in design when he controlled the diversity of materials and the teacher variable in the experiment. Three improvements would have strengthened the work:

<sup>257</sup> Henry Truman Teed, The Relationship of the Two-Dimensional and Three-Dimensional Creative Art Expressions of The Adolescent, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1962), pp. 1-145.



(1) random assignment, (2) determination of the interjudge reliability, and (3) discovery of the validity and reliability of the aesthetic quality criterion.

Despite these shortcomings, Teed's finding is apropos to the current experiment. That the quality of work of boys and girls in two- and three-dimensional art products does not differ is vital to the study of the stereotyping of the female as artistic in Walt Disney screenplays and films.

Mosteller study. The purpose of this study was to aesthetically evaluate children's paintings. Paintings about six different subjects--flowers or fruit, houses, trees, playing, abstract shapes, and imaginary birds--were collected from twenty-four second grade, twenty-one fourth grade and twenty-six sixth grade children enrolled in the University School of the University of Michigan. These paintings were evaluated on the qualities of aesthetic wholeness, color effectiveness and quality, composition, vitality, symbol clarity and perspective. The independent judgments of four qualified raters were intercorrelated. These correlations averaged .82. The results of the data analysis showed that there were no significant differences in painting ability that were ascribable to the fact of sex of subject.<sup>258</sup>

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<sup>258</sup> Patty Ruth Mosteller, The Qualities of Art Expression in Children's Paintings in Relation to Other Measures of Their Abilities, Achievements and Adjustment, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Wayne State University, 1963), pp. 1-154.

Mosteller's experiment may be criticized for one point. The validity and reliability of the aesthetic criteria were not determined. On the other hand, the fact that she established the interjudge reliability lends credence to her findings. Thus, the results of the study are applicable to students in grades two, four and six in most schools similar to that of the sample population. Moreover, Mosteller's findings corroborates the conclusions of the studies above and it is of essence to the work at hand.

Eisner study (1965). Eighty-five sixth grade pupils in a midwestern private school, acting as subjects for Eisner's investigation, were asked to produce some art work. The first project was a piece of sculpture made from one-quarter pound of oil-base clay, a handful of colored toothpicks and a paper plate used as a base. To insure privacy, each subject worked in a private booth. The second project consisted of a set of nine drawings made in a booklet. On each page, the subjects found an abstract line which was to be used as the starting point or stimulus for their drawing. Three judges were selected to identify the various types of creativity that each art product might display. The judges met daily for two weeks to discuss criteria and to practice using them. The art products were arranged in two large rooms. The judges, using a nine-point scale, independently evaluated each product for each type of creativity--one type at a time. As soon as a judge completed one evaluation, he handed in his score sheet and received one

for another type; he then selected a different point in the display to begin his next evaluation. This procedure, the purpose of which was to reduce the halo effect, was used throughout the judging. The mean coefficient of interjudge agreement was .71. A statistical analysis of the data demonstrated that there were no significant differences in creative quality of the art products due to the sex variable.<sup>259</sup>

Eisner's experiment was one of rigorous control in some aspects. It had limitations in others. Of a positive nature were his experimental procedures which controlled for the "Halo Effect." Besides this, the researcher was careful to establish interjudge reliability. In comparison to this, his sample was selective. Furthermore, the isolation of the subjects in a booth may have set the "Hawthorne Effect" into motion. Last, the reliability and validity of the nine-point creativity scales were not established. Nevertheless, the research is relevant to the current study for no significant differences were found in the art products of males and females. This is vital data for an investigation of the stereotyping of the female as artistic in Walt Disney screenplays and films.

Eisner study (1966). In order to obtain data about the knowledge of, and attitude toward, the visual arts on the part of students, Eisner studied 1,500 subjects from eighteen institutions in six states. These subjects ranged from ninth grade

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<sup>259</sup> Elliot W. Eisner, "Children's Creativity in Art," American Educational Research Journal, II (May, 1965), pp. 129-135.

through the senior year in college. The high-school sample consisted of those who had elected to take art in high school. The college group was made up of students majoring in elementary education. To obtain data for the study, two instruments were constructed: The Eisner Art Information Inventory and The Eisner Art Attitude Inventory. The Eisner Art Information Inventory measured recognition of art information. The Eisner Attitude Inventory dealt with self-estimate of art ability, voluntary activity in art, satisfaction in art, and attitude toward art and artists. Test reliability for the Information inventory was .93. It was found for the entire population that girls received significantly higher scores than boys at each grade level on both dependent measures.<sup>260</sup>

Even though the validity was not determined for the Information inventory and the reliability and validity were not established for the Attitude inventory, the sample was large and diverse enough to afford application to most high school art and college elementary education students. This fact alone is sufficient to make the experiment apposite to the present investigation.

It is essential to learn that there may be no difference in females and males in art recognition, self-estimate of art ability, voluntary activity in art, satisfaction with art, and attitude toward art and artists.

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<sup>260</sup> Elliot W. Eisner, "Arts Curricula for the Gifted," Teacher's College Record, LXVII (April, 1966), pp. 496-500.

Carr study. Carr sought to establish possible relationships between quality art work and several variables. Four sixth-grade classes in two schools (a laboratory school in a culturally-advantaged neighborhood of Muncie, Indiana, and a school in a culturally-disadvantaged locale in the same city) executed 832 art products. The products were judged by sixteen art educators. It was found that girls achieved much more art quality, originality and craftsmanship than boys; all differences were significant.<sup>261</sup>

Although Carr controlled the socioeconomic variable which gives the results wide application to sixth-grade students, some improvements in his design are indicated. For instance, criteria of judgment were not checked for validity or reliability, nor was the interjudge reliability ascertained. Despite this, Carr's claim that his findings confirmed the societal stamp of art as a feminine pursuit must be considered.<sup>262</sup> This conclusion bears an important relationship to the present study of the stereotyping of the female as artistic in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Eisner study (1967). Eisner's third investigation in this area compared the developmental drawing characteristics of

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<sup>261</sup> Pete J. Carr, The Relation of Quality Art Work to Two Socio-Economic Variables, Two Motivational Variables and Two Budget Variables, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Ball State University, 1967), pp. 1-28.

<sup>262</sup> Ibid., p.27.

culturally advantaged and culturally disadvantaged children. The populations for this study consisted of 1,093 children in forty-six classrooms randomly selected from seven elementary and junior high schools. These children came from grades one, three, five, and seven in schools located in an upper-middle class suburb near Chicago and from slum or near-slum communities in and near Chicago. These children were instructed during a class period to draw a playground scene. On the basis of the playground drawings, a fourteen-category scale of drawing developmental levels was constructed. The criterion was perception of spacial relationships. The scale was validated by having two judges independently classify extra playground drawings according to the fourteen categories composing the scale. The correlation was about .72. It was determined from the data that the performance patterns for boys and girls did not differ significantly.<sup>263</sup>

This study has several strengths and only a few limitations. First, Eisner assured wide generalizability of his findings by his random assignment technique. Next, he validated his criterion scale, and finally, by using the regular classroom period, he avoided "reactive effects" of experimental procedures and equipment. The one apparent limitation was that the measures of reliability were not determined. In spite of this

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<sup>263</sup> Elliott W. Eisner, A Comparison of The Developmental Drawing Characteristics of Culturally Advantaged and Culturally Disadvantaged Children, Report Number CRP-3086 Stanford University School of Education, September, 1967, pp. 1-58.

minor problem, the finding that there may be no difference between males and females in drawing characteristics is vital to a study of the stereotyping of the female as artistic in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Schaefer study. To determine differences between the sexes in art achievement, The Revised Art Scale (RA) of the Welsh Figure Preference Test (WFPT) was administered during a two-hour testing session held outside of school hours. Subjects were 800 male and female students from ten high schools in the New York metropolitan area. They were paid for participation in this study. The schools were chosen because they offered courses or programs providing opportunities for artistic achievement. The group as a whole was superior in terms of academic achievement. An analysis of the mean difference between RA scores of the boys and girls in this study (N was 400 in each group) indicated that the girls scored significantly higher than the boys.<sup>264</sup>

The study design must be questioned in that there were two selection biases in Schaefer's sample. First, the subjects were paid and second, they attended schools selected for artistic achievement. Moreover, it was reported in The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook that the RA correlates highly with the Barron-Welsh Art Scale.<sup>265</sup> It will be recalled that that instrument has high reliability but untested validity. While

<sup>264</sup> Charles E. Schaefer, "The Barron-Welsh Art Scale As a Predictor of Adolescent Creativity," Perceptual and Motor Skills, XXVII (December, 1968), pp. 1099-1102.

<sup>265</sup> Buros, op. cit., p. 198.

these problems do exist, a study that found that females scored higher than males on aesthetic judgment, a component of artistic ability, cannot be totally ignored as it adds data to the investigation of the stereotyping of the female as artistic in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Zambito study. The researchist administered two tests, one with six cursive shapes and the other with six colored angular shapes, in order to determine the artistic aspects in the products of his subjects. Each test was given both individually and in small groups to 499 Michigan students (grades one to twelve). Three judges independently evaluated the products on a nine-point scale for aesthetic organization, redefinition, originality of elaboration, and fluency of ideas. The interjudge reliability for the test was .84. When all grades were combined, it was concluded that females were significantly more artistic than males.<sup>266</sup>

Weaknesses of Zambito's work are twofold: (1) he did not determine the reliability or validity of the dependent measuring instruments or the criterion scale, and (2) insofar as the testing was done individually or in small groups, "reactive effects" to experimental procedures may have been operating. Notwithstanding these limitations, he took a vital

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<sup>266</sup> Stephen Zambito, A Comparison of Group Versus Individual Production of Non-Verbal Artistic Creativity, Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Bureau of Research, January, 1968, pp. 1-10.



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control step when he established interjudge reliability. This was essential, for this study found that females' art products were superior to males' products in aesthetic organization, redefinition, originality of elaboration, and fluency of ideas. Without rater reliability, we could have no confidence in the findings.

Eisner study (1969). In this study, 1,100 subjects in grades one, three, five and seven produced colored crayon drawings under standardized conditions. About half of the subjects were white and half Negro, with about half of each racial group in each of the two social classes (middle and lower). A criterion scale of fourteen categories was constructed. Two experienced art teachers were selected as judges to categorize the drawings independently. To do this, the judges were trained on practice lots of fifty drawings, each of which they sorted independently, and then discussed the differences together. The coefficient of correlation between the two judge's ratings on drawings in this study was .80. No significant differences in artistic performance were found between the sexes on drawing characteristics measured by the scale.<sup>267</sup>

Two minor limitations are overshadowed by the strengths of this study. The problems are that the criterion scale was not validated and its reliability was not determined. On the

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<sup>267</sup> Elliot W. Eisner, "The Drawings of the Disadvantaged: A Comparative Study," Studies in Art Education, II (Fall, 1969), pp. 9-17.

other hand, several methodological strengths are in evidence: (1) interjudge reliability was adequate, (2) standardized testing conditions were maintained, and (3) Eisner controlled for race and social class in this study, making the results widely applicable. Therefore, this examination is apropos to the investigation at hand. That there may be no differences between the sexes in their ability to transform two-dimensional space into three-dimensional illusion is of essence to a study of the stereotyping of females as artistic in Walt Disney productions.

Krippner study. Krippner obtained a sample of gifted boys and girls from a foundation of gifted children in Rhode Island. The subjects consisted of twenty-seven male and thirteen female volunteers. The mean age of the subjects was ten years and seven months. Each subject's main interest was elicited in an interview. The choices were then categorized as "scientific" or "artistic." A total of twenty-four boys cited careers in science while three favored careers in art. Eleven of the thirteen girls were interested in arts while only two selected science. The data was subjected to statistical analysis and the results were significant. It was demonstrated that for the sample of gifted children investigated, a rather clear cut sex difference emerged when careers in art and science were considered.<sup>268</sup>

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<sup>268</sup> Stanley Krippner and Ralph Blickenstaff, "The Development of Self-Concept as Part of An Arts Workshop for The Gifted," Gifted Child Quarterly, XIV (Autumn, 1970), pp. 163-165.

Some problems in this research design must be reported. To begin with, the subjects were gifted volunteers. This selective nature of the sample limits wide application of the findings. Additionally, the investigator did not establish the validity or reliability of his inventory schedule or his category criterion measure. Although methodological problems exist, Krippner's finding that females are more oriented to art careers than males is of interest in light of the present study. That females may be more artistically motivated than males is relevant to an examination of the stereotyping of females in Walt Disney films and screenplays. Moreover, it is of essence that Krippner has observed that social and cultural factors often come into play with little or no regard to the individual's talents and abilities. Sex stereotypes in a culture prevent many talented men from entering fields considered feminine and keep many women from a vocation regarded as masculine.<sup>269</sup>

McWhinnie study. Fourth, fifth and sixth grade children in a Columbus, Ohio, school district were used for the subjects of a study by McWhinnie. Data were collected on the Welsh Figure Preference Test and the Barron Art Scale Test. A total of 249 subjects were assigned at random to the following conditions: (a) perceptual learning, (b) regular art and

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<sup>269</sup> Ibid., p. 163.

(c) control. There were 117 males and 132 females in the group studied. Each subject under each of the three conditions was tested before and after the ten-week treatment period. No significant differences were found due to the sex variable.<sup>270</sup>

Several methodological strengths may be observed in McWhinnie's design. To start, random assignment, pretesting and a control group gave this study rigorous control over variables. Then, the researchist utilized dependent variables of known validity and reliability. Last, employment of the regular classroom testing period helped avoid possible "Hawthorne Effects."

A study of the stereotyping of the female as artistic is enhanced by this excellent research. The finding that there may be no difference between males and females in aesthetic judgment is pertinent to the present research.

Piers study. The subjects were ninety-eight male and forty-seven female undergraduates enrolled in introductory psychology classes at the Pennsylvania State University. The subjects were volunteers who were rewarded by a small increment in course grade. In order to measure subject aesthetic judgment, one of the components of artistic ability, the Revised Art Scale of the Welsh Figure Preference Test was administered.

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<sup>270</sup> Harold J. McWhinnie, "A Third Study of the Effects of a Learning Experience Upon Preference for Complexity--Asymmetry in Fourth, Fifth and Sixth Grade Children," California Journal of Educational Research, XXI (November, 1970), pp. 219-224.

No significant difference was found between the sexes on the dependent measure.<sup>271</sup>

Two biases occurred in the study. First, the subjects were volunteers. Second, the subjects were rewarded by being given an increment in course grade. One positive note of design construction was that a dependent measure of known reliability and validity was employed. Because this study corroborates the findings of McWhinnie, it pertains to the research at hand.

Eysenck study. The Maitland Groves Design Judgment Test was administered to 229 males and 236 female controls (nonart students) and 519 male artists and 478 female artists at the University of London. The subjects were divided into artists and controls on the basis of whether or not they had received formal training in the visual arts. Ages of both groups ranged from sixteen to twenty-five years old. Testing was done under standardized conditions by showing slides to medium-sized groups of students. The dependent measure was considered to be a test of three aesthetic design properties. The results demonstrated that female subjects were significantly superior to the male subjects in aesthetic design properties.<sup>272</sup>

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<sup>271</sup> Ellen V. Piers and Elizabeth P. Kirchner, "Productivity and Uniqueness in Continued Word Association as A Function of Subject Creativity and Stimulus Properties," Journal of Personality, XXXIX (June, 1971), pp. 265-275.

<sup>272</sup> H. J. Eysenck and M. Castle, "Comparative Study of Artists and Nonartists on the Maitland Groves Design Judgment Test," Journal of Applied Psychology, LV (August, 1971), pp. 389-392.

A number of processes gave Eysenck's study rigorous control: (1) the experimenter assured testing objectivity by providing standardized procedures, (2) a dependent measure of established validity and reliability was utilized, and (3) use of a control group strengthened the study. Therefore, one may consider the finding that females may be superior to males in design judgment (symmetrical, three-dimensional, complexity) with confidence, and vital data for an investigation of the stereotyping of the female as artistic in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Summary of the female as artistic or not artistic. This summary of the studies concerned with the artistic nature of the female was completed by considering the age level of the subjects in relation to the art property investigated.

Elementary school age females were studied in relation to several characteristics of art. First, in developmental level of drawings, creative quality of drawings, and artistic quality of drawings females and males did not differ significantly. Eisner confirmed this in three studies (1965, 1966, and 1969). In addition to this, females and males were found similar in oil painting ability, creative quality of their sculpture and aesthetic judgment about art products. Mosteller<sup>273</sup>, Eisner<sup>274</sup> and McWhinnie<sup>275</sup>, respectively, supported this conclusion. In contrast to this, elementary females were reported

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<sup>273</sup>Ibid., p. 154.    <sup>274</sup> Ibid., (1965) p. 129.

<sup>275</sup>Ibid., p. 219.

as superior to males in several properties of art. For example, the classroom art products of elementary school females were seen as superior to those of males in quality, originality and craftsmanship. Furthermore, their products were judged to be more advanced than those of males in organization, definition, and fluency of ideas. Finally, elementary females were shown to have greater motivation to achieve in art than the males. Studies by Carr<sup>276</sup>, Zambito<sup>277</sup> and Krippner<sup>278</sup> verified these findings.

It appears that in areas of art ability, males and females differ very little, but it is when one enters the realm of art properties which are influenced greatly by cultural and sex-role expectations, that one finds the female excelling. For example, areas of attitude and motivation appear to differ measurably.

When one reviews the findings of the investigations dealing with adolescent females and art qualities, it may be seen that females are superior in nearly all aspects. Exceptions to this rule were discovered by Teed<sup>279</sup> and Eisner<sup>280</sup>. For instance Teed<sup>281</sup> found that male and female adolescents did not differ significantly in the quality of two- and three-dimensional classroom art products. Eisner<sup>282</sup>, in addition, demonstrated that their developmental drawing level did not differ.

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<sup>276</sup> Ibid., p. 28.

<sup>277</sup> Ibid., p. 10.      <sup>278</sup> Ibid., p. 163.

<sup>279</sup> Ibid., p. 145.

<sup>280</sup> Ibid., (1966) p. 496.

<sup>281</sup> Ibid., p. 145.

<sup>282</sup> Ibid., (1969) p. 17.

In contrast to this, females were superior to males in many art characteristics. To begin with, adolescent female art products were more advanced in aesthetic organization, definition, originality of elaboration, and fluency of ideas, than those of males. This may have been due to the factors found by Schaefer<sup>283</sup> and Eisner<sup>284</sup>. According to Schaefer, the aesthetic judgment of females was keener than that of males. What is more, the adolescent females in Eisner's study were found to have greater knowledge of and a more favorable attitude toward art than the males he studied.

In the college years the females maintained their superiority over males in knowledge of art, and motivation toward participation in art. Their advantage in aesthetic judgment did not persist in studies conducted by Bieri<sup>285</sup> and Piers<sup>286</sup>. However, Eysenck's<sup>287</sup> work was not in agreement, as he found college females superior to males in the property of aesthetic judgment.

It appears that in areas of basic art ability and aptitude, males and females at all levels differ but little. It is when one views the realm of studies concerned with art properties which may be influenced greatly by cultural and sex-role expectations, that one finds the female excelling over the male. This was especially clear when dealing with art characteristics such as attitude and motivation.

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<sup>283</sup>Ibid., p. 1099. <sup>284</sup> Ibid., (1966) p. 496.

<sup>285</sup> Ibid., p. 6. <sup>286</sup> Ibid., p. 265. <sup>287</sup> Ibid., p. 389.



## VI. THE FEMALE AS MECHANICAL OR NOT MECHANICAL

### Introduction

This division of the report reviews the literature as it is related to the female as mechanical or not mechanical. By mechanical it is meant the ability of the female to manipulate instruments or machinery. Good terms this ability, motor ability. He has stated that, "motor ability is the ability to perform activities that require muscular coordination, such as . . . manipulating instruments or machinery."<sup>288</sup> Experiments dealing with the motor ability of the female are examined below. They are arranged in a temporal sequence beginning with the earliest study and proceeding to the most current.

Beaber study. Three groups of thirty subjects, equally divided as to sex, were randomly selected from regular and special classes within the New York State Public Schools. The groups were designated as the Educable Mentally Handicapped, Young Normal (elementary students), and Older Normal (secondary subjects). Differences between sex within the three groups on the variables of CA, MA and IQ were not significant. Four tests of simple motor performance were administered individually to the subjects. The Simple Response Time (SRT) test required the subject to move the preferred hand from a starting point to a switch ten inches away in response to a white light. The

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<sup>288</sup> Good, op. cit., p. 2.

median time of six responses was recorded as a trial score. Six trials were recorded. The Rate of Tapping (RT) test measured the least number of taps recorded from one to two positions, spaced eight inches apart, during a ten-second trial period. Five trials were recorded. The Rate of Manipulation (RM) test measured the number of seconds required to turn ~~twenty-one-inch~~ diameter pegs with squared bottoms a half turn in two horizontal rows on the form board. Five trials were recorded. The Choice Response Time (CRT) test required the subject to move the preferred hand from a starting point to one of two switches controlling either a red or a green light, each located ten inches away. A random presentation of the red and green stimulus lights was used. The median time of six responses was recorded as a trial score. Six trials were recorded. No significant differences between sexes were observed in any of the three groups.<sup>289</sup>

Despite the interesting design, several limitations appear. Initially, the investigator did not determine the reliability and validity of the four tests of simple motor performance. Further, removing the selected subjects from the regular classroom for testing may have set the "Hawthorne Effect" into motion. In addition, administering four tests may have altered the subjects' attitudes from test to test.

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<sup>289</sup> James Duane Beaver, The Performance of Educable Mentally Handicapped and Intellectually Normal Children on Selected Tasks Involving Simple Motor Performance, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Syracuse University, 1960), pp. 1-158.

Finally, feeling and motivational states about initial tests may have influenced the results of subsequent tests. On the other hand, the random selection of subjects does permit a wide generalization of the finding that there may be no difference between females and males in response time, finger-tapping rate, and rate of manipulation. This is important data for a study of the stereotyping of the female as not mechanical in Walt Disney productions.

Shaycoft study. A sample of nearly 500,000 high school students was located and tested as a part of Project Talent. Nearly 1,400 schools in forty-nine states participated. The sample consisted of four and one-half percent of all subjects in grades nine through twelve in the nation. The Project Talent Battery of Tests, including a number of aptitude and achievement measures, was administered. On both subtests of the battery dealing with mechanical information and reasoning, males scored significantly higher than did females.<sup>290</sup>

Shaycoft's study is strengthened by use of the Project Talent Tests for it is stated in the Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook that, "Project Talent required and got the most careful planning and development probably ever given measurement. Already we are indebted to Project Talent for beautiful psychometrics."<sup>291</sup> Moreover, the sample affords application to nearly

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<sup>290</sup> Marion F. Shaycoft, The Identification, Development, and Utilization of Human Talents, Pittsburgh University, Pennsylvania, report number CRP-566, 1963, pp. 1-284.

<sup>291</sup> Buros, op.cit., p. 1465.

all secondary students in America. Therefore, the finding that males may be superior to females in mechanical reasoning and information may be received with a great deal of confidence. This is vital data for a study of the stereotyping of the female as not mechanical.

Simon study. ~~Twenty-four males and twenty-four females~~ from Southern University participated in the Simon experiment. In order to measure hand steadiness, subjects were asked to keep a probe positioned in a small hole so as not to touch the edge of the hole. The target hole was in front of the subject and slightly below eye level. Each subjects performed two ninety-second practice trials, one with the right and one with the left hand. This was followed by four ninety-second test trials, two with each hand. A standard Steadiness Test was used. It consisted of a steel surface containing several holes. Analysis of the criterion measure data yielded no significant differences in performance between males and females.<sup>292</sup>

Although the Steadiness Test utilized had established reliability and validity, some criticism of the design is in order: (1) Simon's sample was select, (2) its size may have been so small that obtaining significant differences between groups was mathematically impossible, and (3) the elaborate equipment may have induced "reactive effects" to the

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<sup>292</sup>J. Richard Simon, "Steadiness, Handedness and Hand Preference," Perceptual and Motor Skills, XVIII (February, 1964), pp. 203-206.

experimental equipment. In spite of the limitations in the Simon research, the finding that there may not be significant difference between males and females on a test of hand steadiness is important information for an investigation of the stereotyping of the female as not mechanical in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Karlins study. In an experiment designed to investigate possible performance differences between males and females on a hand-eye coordination exercise, 100 volunteer Princeton University students (fifty male, fifty female) performed a simple motor task of filling Xs in circles (as rapidly as possible) for fifty minutes. It was found that there was no significant difference between males and females in performance of this motor task.<sup>293</sup>

While the use of volunteer subjects biased Karlins' study, and the dependent measure was not tested for validity or reliability by the experimenter, the employment of the simple motor task test did reduce the possibility of "reactive effects" to experimental equipment. Consequently, we may view the finding that sex of subject makes no difference in the performance of this simple hand-eye coordination motor skill with some degree of trust. This data is germane to the present

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<sup>293</sup> Marvin Karlins and Helmut Lamm, "Sex Differences and Motor Task Performance," Perceptual and Motor Skills, XX April, 1965), p. 430.

exploration of the stereotyping of the female as not mechanical in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Altman study. Altman translated task behaviors for each of thirty-one occupations into multiple-choice test items. The items, organized into a set of twenty-four tests were administered to about 10,000 students from grade nine through junior college in the Parkersburg and Quincy, Massachusetts, school systems. Males were significantly superior to females in knowledge of the following occupational areas: air conditioning and refrigeration mechanics, appliance service, assembling parts, auto and diesel mechanics, carpentry, electricity, machine tool operation, heavy equipment operation, plumbing and pipefitting, sheet metal work and welding.<sup>294</sup>

Altman's design was relatively adequate. To begin with, the randomly selected sample makes the results applicable to most ninth through junior college youth. Furthermore, the standardized test administration added objectivity to the testing situation. On the other hand, the researchist did not establish the validity and reliability of his measuring instrument.

The results of this study are relevant to the present research regardless of the methodological limitations. That males may be superior to females in knowledge of several occupational areas requiring motor skill tasks is significant evidence for an investigation of the stereotyping of the female as not mechanical in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

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<sup>294</sup>James W. Altman, Research on General Vocational Capabilities (Skills and Knowledge), American Institute for Research in Behavioral Sciences, 1966, pp. 1-162.

Ryan study. The subjects for this experiment with a lever-pulling motor skill were sixteen male and twenty female, randomly-selected kindergarten children attending school in Ontario, Canada. Two experimenters were employed. All subjects received forty-eight trials on a lever-pulling apparatus. During the five-second intertrial interval, the experimenter recorded starting time, from the onset of a stimulus light to initial movement of the lever, and movement time, the time taken to pull the lever from top to bottom of its excursion. Starting and movement times were converted to speeds and combined into eight blocks of six trials. Mean starting and movement speeds for each group, were submitted to statistical analysis. All effects for sex were nonsignificant.<sup>295</sup>

There were more methodological strengths than weaknesses in Ryan's design. The strengths were: (1) employment of outside experimenters instead of classroom teachers in order to eliminate the possibility of the "Halo Effect;" (2) the random selection process was utilized; and (3) the measuring procedure and instrument were pilot tested, thus enabling the researcher to determine its reliability. Two weaknesses are apparent. First, the validity of the dependent measure was not ascertained, and second, the "Hawthorne Effect" may have

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<sup>295</sup> Thomas J. Ryan and Peter Watson, "Children's Response Speeds as a Function of Sex and Verbal Reinforcement Schedule," Psychonomic Science, VI (October, 1968), pp. 271-272.

been induced by the utilization of the lever-pulling mechanism. Nevertheless, the design adequacies outweigh the inadequacies. Hence, the finding of no sex differences in the motor skill of lever pulling is of essence to this study.

Alderman study. One hundred and twenty boys and girls, aged ten and fourteen were randomly selected from eight Edmonton public grade schools. All subjects were tested in the space of five weeks, during after-school hours, in the research unit laboratories. Subjects were tested on the rho apparatus in order to determine age and sex differences in performance of a speed of arm movement motor task. The subject was presented with the task of making a guided, circular, horizontal arm movement of a single orbit that blended into a tangent so that the hand moved forward to touch a target with normal follow through. The movement was made at maximal speed throughout, with appropriate microswitches activated at three one-hundredths of a second chronoscopes to measure reaction time. Subjects were given fifty trials. The reliability coefficients for initial and final levels of skill and for the learning scores were calculated using the first four trials and last four trials of performance. The calculated reliabilities for initial scores and final scores respectively were .69 and .82. The results for initial and final performance were remarkably consistent: fourteen-year-olds were significantly



superior to ten-year-olds and males were significantly better than females.<sup>296</sup>

Even though random selection of subjects gave the findings wide generalizability among ten and fourteen year olds and the researcher established the reliability of his dependent measure, some limitations did exist. For one thing, testing the subjects after school hours in a laboratory may have induced "reactive effects" to experimental equipment and procedures. In addition, the validity of the dependent measure was not determined. Notwithstanding these points, this study is apposite to the present work due to the finding that males may be superior to females in arm speed.

Gundry study. This study was undertaken to determine the effect of sex upon performance in horizontal arm-positioning as measured by absolute error, directional error and latency. The motor task required that the subject reproduce a series of movements in a horizontal plane away from the midline of the body. The subject's arm rested on a lever which could be rotated through an arc of eighty-seven degrees. Forty subjects, twenty men and twenty women, graduate students at Columbia University, New York City, participated in the study. For the particular population investigated, the differences obtained between the sexes failed to reach a level of significance

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<sup>296</sup> Richard B. Alderman, "Age and Sex Differences in Learning and Performance of an Arm Speed Motor Task," The Research Quarterly, XXXIX (October, 1968), pp. 429-431.

beyond chance expectations.<sup>297</sup>

Several design limitations detract from the Gundry work. First, Gundry failed to establish the validity and reliability of the dependent measure. Second, the sample is select, and third, it may be too small to mathematically permit the finding of statistically significant differences.

In addition, the test equipment may have set the "Hawthorne Effect" into operation. Nevertheless, it is germane because it did not corroborate the findings of the arm-movement study of Alderman. Consequently, there may not be significant differences between males and females in arm movement ability.

Hoffman study. The experimenter utilized a telegraph key attached to a multiple-pen-event recorder to measure finger speed of males and females. Two hundred fifty-six subjects enrolled in an introductory psychology class at the University of Bridgeport participated in the experiment. The subjects were seated at a table in a small booth and instructed to "tap" in whatever manner felt most comfortable to them for the duration of a signal light (ten seconds). Males were significantly faster in finger tapping rate than females.<sup>298</sup>

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<sup>297</sup> Ann Tucker Gundry, Sex Differences in the Performance of a Selected Motor Task, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Columbia University, 1968), pp. 1-120.

<sup>298</sup> D. T. Hoffman, "Sex Differences in Preferred Finger Tapping Rates," Perceptual and Motor Skills, XXIX (October, 1969), p. 676.

Although experimental equipment and procedures may have induced the "Hawthorne Effect," and lack of standardized testing procedures may have reduced the reliability of the dependent measure, the positive aspects of the study tend to loom larger. According to the Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook, the validity coefficients with typing course grades and words per minute as criteria for the Tapping Test range from .05 to .73. The average split-half reliability coefficient was .90.<sup>299</sup> Thus, Hoffman provided relevant data for the present research when he found that males may have significantly faster finger movement than females.

Singer study. Forty-two sixth-grade children (nineteen boys and twenty-three girls) and thirty third-grade children (seventeen boys and thirteen girls) participated in an investigation of the performance of four motor skills. All of the subjects were students at the Illinois State University Laboratory School. Grip strength was measured with an adjustable Stoelting hand dynamometer. Four trials were recorded: one with the dominant hand, one with the nondominant hand and then repeated in the same order. To obtain a measure of reaction time, the reaction time system was connected to a timing device. Each subject was given five trials and the total time for all five trials represented the reaction time in the study. A stabilometer was constructed to measure balance ability.

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<sup>299</sup>Buros, op. cit., p. 52.

Balance score was the total of six trials of thirty-second duration. The Minnesota Rate of Manipulation Test was used as an indicator of speed of hand-arm movement. The sum of the time recorded in two trials determined each subject's score. The results of this study demonstrated that males were significantly superior to females on all four motor skills studied.<sup>300</sup>

Several aspects of Singer's work may be termed as limitations: (1) the sample was selective; (2) even though one of the dependent measures, The Minnesota Rate of Manipulation Test, had established reliability and validity, the other three tests did not; (3) the variety of equipment and experimental procedure may have resulted in "reactive effects," and (4) the utilization of the same students as subjects for four tests may have caused multiple treatment interference. Despite the several methodological errors, this study is pertinent to the present investigation because it poses the possibility that females may be inferior to males in grip strength, reaction time, balance ability and manipulation rate.

Carment study. In this experiment to test some aspects of arm-hand coordination, Carment utilized eighty subjects (forty males and forty females) chosen at random from the introductory psychology classes at McMaster University,

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<sup>300</sup> Robert N. Singer, "Physical Characteristic, Perceptual-Motor, and Intelligence Differences between Third- and Sixth-grade Children," The Research Quarterly, XL (December, 1969), pp. 803-811.

Hamilton, Canada. The apparatus used was a modified Gerbrands-Lindsey conditioning panel connected to standard programming and timing units in an adjoining room. The panel consisted of two levers that could be pulled out and that were returned by an adjustable tension spring to their original position. Below each lever was a chute for the delivery of reinforcements and above each lever was a counter that accumulated the number of reinforcements each subject obtained. The subjects were brought to the experimental room and were seated before the panel and instructed in the experimental procedures: "This experiment is concerned with some aspects of coordination. All you have to do is pull the lever. A ball bearing will drop whenever you pull it right. Start to work when these lights come on and stop when they go off." An analysis of the results showed a significant main effect of sex, reflecting a greater overall number of responses made by males.<sup>301</sup>

In spite of the fact that the utilization of the random assignment of the subjects permits generalization of the results to most introductory psychology students at the college level, some problems with the work must be noted. The experimental procedures and equipment may have induced "reactive effects." Further, the validity and reliability of the dependent measure were not determined. Finally, receiving ball bearings as a

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<sup>301</sup> J. W. Carment, "Rate of Simple Motor Responding as a Function of Coaction, Competition and Sex of the Participants," Psychonomic Science, XIX (June, 1970), pp. 342-343.

reinforcement may have appealed to males more than it did to the females. However, the finding that males may be superior to females in certain aspects of coordination does corroborate the findings of several studies above. This data will aid in the drawing of conclusions concerning the stereotyping of the female as not mechanical in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Latchford study. The subjects for Latchford's study were ninety-six students (forty-eight males and forty-eight females) selected at random from the introductory psychology classes at McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada. The apparatus consisted of a panel-mounted, self-centering toggle switch connected to programming and counting units behind a partition in the same room. The subjects were brought to the room, seated comfortably before a panel and were instructed: "This experiment is connected with some aspects of hand-finger coordination. We would like you to move this lever back and forth something like this . . . with your thumb and first two fingers clasped around it. Please use only one hand throughout the test. The experiment lasts for ten minutes; after five, I will stop you and you may rest for three minutes." It was found that there were no differences attributable to the sex of the subjects.<sup>302</sup>

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<sup>302</sup> Margaret Latchford and D. W. Carment, "Rate of Simple Motor Responding as a Function of Coaction, Sex of the Participants and the Presence of the Experimenter," Psychonomic Science, XX (August, 1970), p. 253-254.

Two methodological difficulties in the Latchford work should be mentioned. First, the "Hawthorne Effect" may have been set in motion by the elaborate experimental equipment. Next, the validity and the reliability of the dependent measure was not determined. On the other hand, the findings of the study are widely applicable due to the random selection process. Hence, the results of this experiment are apropos to the current study. It is essential data that there may be no difference between the sexes in some aspects of finger-hand coordination.

Annett study. Annett set out to study the differences between the sexes in manual speed of the hands. Ninety-nine boys and 120 girls selected at random, were examined in eight schools in different districts of Hull, England. The schools were two mixed nursery, three mixed infant-junior, one girls' and one boys' secondary modern and one mixed grammar. Student ages ranged from three and one-half to fifteen years. The subjects were seen individually. The apparatus consisted of two boards, each with a row of two holes, one-half inch in diameter and one inch apart. The boards were fixed at a distance of eight inches between the rows. The apparatus was placed near the edge of a table of appropriate height or on a chair for small children so that the child standing could move the pegs with arms comfortably flexed. The task was introduced immediately to the child as he entered the room. An electrical timing device was started and stopped by the experimenter. In

the analysis of results there were no significant differences between the sexes for the right hand. Males were significantly faster than females with the left hand.<sup>303</sup>

Two methodological strengths of Annett's work are evident. To begin with, the selection process affords generalization of the finding to most children between the ages of three and one-half and fifteen years of age. Then, use of the simple peg board test may have reduced the possibility of the "Hawthorne Effect." The one limiting factor was that the dependent measure's reliability and validity were not ascertained. The findings of the study that there may be no differences in manual speed between the sexes with the right hand but differences in the favor of the male with the left hand is of essence to the current experiment.

Milne study. Milne examined motor performance of young children. The sample of 300 males and 300 females from kindergarten, grade one and grade two was randomly determined by proportional stratification by school. The study was conducted in Battle Creek, Michigan. Each child was given the Motor Performance Battery which includes items for agility, power, flexibility, endurance and reaction time. The analysis of the results indicated that sex was a significant factor in flexibility, power and endurance. In these three aspects the males

<sup>303</sup> Marion Annett, "The Growth of Manual Preference and Speed," British Journal of Psychology, LXI (November, 1970), pp. 545-552.



scored higher than the females. In agility and reaction time, there were no significant sex differences.<sup>304</sup>

Milne's work is a model of design efficiency; consequently the results are applicable to nearly all children in kindergarten through grade two. To achieve this the researchist: (1) employed a rigorous sample selection procedure; (2) used a standardized measuring instrument of established validity and reliability; (3) utilized the normal school testing procedures, and (4) employed simple experimental equipment. Therefore, one may have confidence in the demonstrated specific sex differences in motor ability. Males may be superior to females in motor skill flexibility, power and endurance. On the other hand, there may be no sex differences in motor skill agility and reaction time. All of this is vital data for an experiment to determine the stereotyping of females as not mechanical in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Hill study. This investigation of the relationship of the reaction times and movement times of primary grade children utilized the Iowa Brace Test of Motor Ability as a dependent measure. The subjects were 133 males and 123 females. The children attended public schools in Athens, Georgia, and were between five and eight years old. Statistical treatment of the

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<sup>304</sup> Duane Conrad Milne, The Relation between Anxiety and Motor Performance in Young Children, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970), pp. 1-94.

data revealed significant sex differences in reaction time and movement time in favor of males.<sup>305</sup>

Two strengths of the Hill study were that: (1) a test of known reliability and validity was employed, and (2) the fact that the tests were administered in the school setting and did not require elaborate equipment. On the other hand, the researchist neglected to randomly select the subjects. This fact limits the application of results to children similar to the subjects employed by Hill. Nevertheless, the fact that it corroborates the findings of investigations reviewed above, gives it pertinence to the work at hand.

Summary of the female as mechanical or not mechanical.

In order to summarize the section concerned with the female as mechanical, the investigator organized the studies into two categories. First, the ability of the female as compared with that of the male to operate mechanisms was reviewed. This was followed by a discussion of sex differences in mechanical information.

To begin with, the studies of Beaver<sup>306</sup> and Latchford<sup>307</sup> found no sex differences in the ability to operate mechanisms requiring finger movement. In contrast, Hoffman did. He

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<sup>305</sup> James Fred Hill, Jr. Interrelations of the Reaction Time, Movement Time, Motor Ability, and Physical Fitness of Children Five Through Eight Years Old, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Georgia, 1971), pp. 1-106.

<sup>306</sup> Ibid., p. 158.

<sup>307</sup> Ibid., p. 253.

<sup>308</sup> Ibid., p. 676.

found males were superior in this task. In addition to this, several studies were concerned with the hands and the operation of mechanisms. Simon<sup>309</sup>, for instance, showed that there was no difference in the abilities of the males and females to operate mechanisms requiring hand steadiness. In addition, according to Karlins<sup>310</sup>, males and females operated machines requiring hand-eye coordination equally well. Furthermore, the sexes did not differ in Berber's<sup>311</sup> study in their operation of machines dealing with hand speed. Singer<sup>312</sup> in contrast to the above findings, did determine that males were superior in operating mechanisms requiring hand strength.

Arm movement and the performance of males and females on machinery was the subject of some other investigations. Gundry<sup>313</sup>, Singer<sup>314</sup>, and Carment<sup>315</sup> all found that males were superior to females in this skill. On the other hand, the findings of Ryan<sup>316</sup> did not substantiate this. He cited no difference between the sexes in ability to operate mechanisms requiring arm movement. Another area of study dealt with reaction time and the ability to operate mechanisms. For example, Singer<sup>317</sup> and Hill<sup>318</sup> reported that males excelled over females in performance with mechanisms requiring rapid reactions. However, Milne<sup>319</sup> found that there was no sex difference in the operation of the test machinery due to reaction time.

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<sup>309</sup> Ibid., p. 203.

<sup>312</sup> Ibid., p. 803.

<sup>315</sup> Ibid., p. 342.

<sup>318</sup> Ibid., p. 106.

<sup>310</sup> Ibid., p. 430.

<sup>313</sup> Ibid., p. 120.

<sup>316</sup> Ibid., p. 271.

<sup>319</sup> Ibid., p.94.

<sup>311</sup> Ibid., p. 158.

<sup>314</sup> Ibid., p. 803.

<sup>317</sup> Ibid., p. 803.

Last, in all other mechanical skills studied, males were superior to females. Thus, mechanisms requiring balance, power, flexibility, and endurance were more effectively operated by the males.

In addition to tests of the ability in operation of mechanisms, some investigators were interested in conducting mechanical information comparisons between males and females. Shaycoft<sup>320</sup>, for instance, found males to be superior to females in both mechanical information and reasoning. In like manner, Altman<sup>321</sup>, reported that males were superior to females in mechanical knowledge, thus corroborating Shaycoft's research.

Therefore, it may be said that males were superior to females in the skills and abilities required to operate many mechanisms. At the same time, it must be remembered that no differences were reported between the sexes regarding the skills necessary to perform other mechanical tasks.

As far as knowledge of mechanisms was concerned, males were superior to females in every instance reviewed.

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<sup>320</sup>Ibid., p. 289.

<sup>321</sup>Ibid., p. 162.

## VII. THE FEMALE AS TALKATIVE OR NOT TALKATIVE

### Introduction

This portion of the present report deals with a review of the research which has been done comparing the male and female on various aspects of talking. It was theorized above that females in Walt Disney films and screenplays have been stereotyped as excessively talkative. This chronological review explores data relevant to that topic.

Lindzey study. This research was intended to examine the possibility of sex differences in verbal productivity. The subjects consisted of forty male and forty female undergraduates from Syracuse University. They were enrolled in an introductory psychology course and were required to participate in research as part of the course procedure. They were permitted to select the particular study in which they took part. The dependent measure was a multiple choice version of the Thematic Apperception Test. The test was administered to the subjects by means of projector and screen. It was determined that five of twelve variables showed significant differences between males and females. Females made more statements beyond the subject, they showed greater verbal productivity, their stories contained more ideas, they were more involved in their stories and they demonstrated more evidence of dominance motivation.<sup>322</sup>

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<sup>322</sup> Gardner Lindzey and Morton Silverman, "Thematic Apperception Test: Techniques of Group Administration, Sex Differences, and the Role of Verbal Productivity," Journal of Personality, XXVII (September, 1959), pp. 311-316.

There are aspects of Lindzey's work which are limited. To begin with, the fact that the subjects were allowed to select the study of their choice provided a bias sample. Further, The Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook reported on the TAT reliability and validity: "Estimates of scoring reliability range from .54 to .91. The average internal consistency reliability of .13 indicates a grave need for caution. There is a lack of reassuring validative studies.<sup>323</sup> One positive factor was that giving the test in the group situation may have reduced the "reactive effects" to experimental procedures. Despite its limitations, this research is apropos to the study at hand, for it found that females may make more statements beyond the subject than males, be more verbally productive than males, use more ideas in their stories and get more involved in their stories than males. This is essential data for a study of the stereotyping of the females as talkative in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Edmonds study. Edmons proposed to investigate the verbal abilities of a socioeconomically depressed group of boys and girls of like intellectual ability in order to discover sex differences. The subjects for this study were eleventh-

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<sup>323</sup> Buros, op. cit., pp. 245-246.



grade students from sixty-six Virginia high schools. Sixty-three of the schools were in rural communities. Three of the schools were church-related. The Cooperative School and College Ability Test was administered to 1,239 pupils during the study. The scores were treated statistically to test the data. It was discovered that there was no significant difference between the measured verbal ability of boys and girls at any level when the factor of socioeconomic status was held constant.<sup>324</sup>

The findings should be applicable to most southern rural schools due to the adequate research design employed by Edmonds. First, administering the measure during the regular class session may have reduced "reactive effects." Moreover, The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook reported the validity and reliability of the dependent measure as follows: "SCAT total correlates with Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale total at about .84 and with WAIS verbal at about .88. Clearly there is good evidence for concurrent validity. The authors report

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<sup>324</sup> William S. Edmonds, "Sex Differences in Verbal Ability of Socio-Economically Deprived Groups," Journal of Educational Research, LVIII (October, 1964), pp. 61-64.

Institute for Retarded Children of the State of New York, December, 1965, pp. 1-63.



reliability for the total test of about .95."<sup>325</sup> Consequently, one may be assured that this research is pertinent to the current study. A finding that there may not be sex differences in verbal ability between males and females is data of import for an investigation of the stereotyping of females as talkative in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Friedlander study. This examination of the articulatory level of a socially disadvantaged group of children in a New York City Head Start program involved 150 children. They ranged from four to six years of age. The group was composed of: (1) children with Spanish language background, (2) children from native Negro families, and (3) children of white families. All children were tested with the Templin-Darley Diagnostic Test of Articulation. A taped conversation with each child was used for evaluation of verbal proficiency by an independent group of examiners. No significant differences were found between the sexes in verbal performance.<sup>326</sup>

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<sup>325</sup> Buros, op. cit., p. 452.

<sup>326</sup> George H. Friedlander, Report on the Articulatory and Intelligibility Status of Socially Disadvantaged Pre-School Children. Institute for Retarded Children of the Shield of David, New York, December, 1965, pp. 1-63.



A critique of the work leads to several suggestions for its improvement: (1) the measures should have probably been weighted according to their amount of extraneous variation; (2) the interjudge reliability should have been ascertained for the examiners who rated the tapes, and (3) the criterion for rating the tapes should have been checked for validity and reliability. On the other hand, certain aspects of the study were quite adequate. The Templin-Darley Diagnostic Test is termed a "sound test" in the Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook.<sup>327</sup> In addition, use of the two dependent measures provided more data than the use of a single instrument could have contributed. Finally, due to sample selection procedures, the results of the examination can be generalized to most urban Head Start children. Therefore, a finding of no significant differences between the sexes in verbal performance is germane to the present work. This is relevant data for an investigation of the stereotyping of the female as talkative in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Otto study. The dependent measure the researchist utilized to investigate sex differences in sensory responses was a list of thirty-five concrete nouns adapted from a stimulus word list. Subjects were from three schools in Madison, Wisconsin: (1) an all-white elementary school, (2) an all Negro elementary school, and (3) an all Negro high school.

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<sup>327</sup>Buros, op. cit., p. 313.

A total of 330 pupils participated in the research. Subjects were instructed to give a response to each stimulus, whether verbal or pictorial. As each verbal stimulus was presented, the experimenter enunciated the word. Pictorial stimuli were taped and evaluated as to verbal fluency by three independent judges. Girls gave significantly more responses per stimulus than boys.<sup>328</sup>

Otto neglected some important factors in his research design. First, random selection of subjects would have provided for greater application of the results. Second, validity and reliability of the stimulus list was not established. Third, interrater reliability was not determined, and last, the reliability and validity for the judgmental criterion was not checked. In spite of the problems mentioned above, the fact that the findings of this study corroborated the hypothesis of the current study makes Otto's research of interest here.

Gallagher study. As part of a study to examine certain dimensions of cognitive style, Gallagher also noted verbal expressiveness of males and females. Sixty-eight academically talented students from the Chicago area were involved in this study. They were randomly selected from ten classrooms at the junior and senior high school level. Tape recordings of five consecutive class sessions in each of the ten classrooms were

<sup>328</sup> Wayne Otto, Relationship of Race, Sex and Grade to Responses to Verbal and Pictorial Stimuli, Wisconsin University, Madison, Report Number BR-5-0216-3, January, 1966, pp. 1-11

recorded and transcribed for further analysis. Each subject received an adjusted score. This was obtained by dividing the students' five-day production by total class production. Thus, a subject who gave ten responses in a class of 100 responses would have the same adjusted score as one who gave twenty responses in a class where 200 total responses were given. This adjusted score was calculated by sex. It was found that girls were significantly more expressive in their class performance than were boys.<sup>329</sup>

Gallagher employed some unique design features in his research. One was the use of the nonreactive measure. This greatly enhanced his study. Another was achieved by building the evaluation into regular class sessions and employing regular staff. Thus the "Hawthorne" or "guinea pig" effect was reduced. One criticism would have to be that Gallagher did not ascertain the reliability of his measurement recording system. Because the strengths of the investigation overshadow the limitations, the findings of this study should be given credence. That females may be more talkative than males has been hypothesized above. This investigation tends to support that thesis.

Haly study. In gathering data for a cross-cultural experiment, Haly studied the frequency of individual speeches in American families. The sample consisted of eighty dyads

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<sup>329</sup>James J. Gallagher and William C. Jenne, "The Relationship of Cognitive Style to Classroom Expressiveness and Associated Variables," Journal of Educational Research, LX (February, 1967), pp. 273-279.

from the middle west. All families contacted were middle-class. They all agreed to participate; the recruiter visited them in their homes and each family was paid five dollars. As stimuli for conversation, the families were provided with a questionnaire composed of neutral items. The family was asked to reach joint decisions on the items. Additionally, the families were exposed to three sets of three TAT cards and asked to make up a jointly composed story. The total joint interview lasted about an hour with the interviewer out of the room once instructions had been given. The measurement chosen was the frequency of audible sounds made by the family members during the interview. Each participant wore a throat microphone connected to a small computer in the adjacent room. The computer automatically computed the frequencies of audible sounds for each subject. The computer worked directly from the throat microphones and printed a result each four minutes. Thus, no human judgment was involved in the measurement. An analysis of the data demonstrated that there was no significant difference between males and females in frequency of participation.<sup>330</sup>

Although Haly's work has certain strengths, some limiting factors appear. The strengths were (1) the measurement was extremely objective and (2) he achieved perfect reliability and

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<sup>330</sup> 330 Jay Haly, "Cross-Cultural Experimentation: An Initial Attempt," Human Organization, XXVI (Fall, 1967), pp. 111-117.

validity for his response recording. On the other hand, the weaknesses were that (1) the reliability and validity of his questionnaire for stimulation of discussion was not checked, (2) TAT cards, as noted above, may lack validity and reliability, (3) generalization of his finding is limited by the bias of paid volunteers, and (4) the elaborate equipment may have induced the "Hawthorne Effect." Despite the above limitations, the objective manner of data collection makes this study important in examining the hypothesis. Hence, a finding that there may be no difference in talking frequency in a family setting is vital data to a study concerned with the stereotyping of the female as talkative in Walt Disney movies and screenplays.

Quijano study. Quijano set out to examine language performance of boys and girls in three cultures (Mexican, Mexican-American and Anglo-American). In the study three groups were investigated. One group was composed of first-graders from elementary schools in Laredo, Texas. The second group was composed of first-graders from Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, Mexico. The third group was made up of first-graders from Denton, Texas. There were thirty in each group, fifteen boys and fifteen girls. The groups were matched for age, sex, and grade level. The Van Alstyne Picture Vocabulary Test (an English language instrument translated into Spanish for this study) was administered to the subjects. Statistical techniques were utilized which led to the conclusion that there were no

significant differences between girls and boys on the test of verbal ability.<sup>331</sup>

Several improvements could have been made in Quijano's design. Initially, the sample group may have been too small to make the obtaining of significant differences between groups statistically possible. Furthermore, if she had pooled her results and analyzed them, significant differences might have occurred. Finally, she attempted to control subject variability by matching, a procedure that leaves much to be desired. All aspects of the work were not negative, however. The dependent measure was translated into Spanish for use with the Spanish-speaking subjects, and The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook reports the validity correlation range from .49 to .71. Split-half reliabilities range from .71 to .85.<sup>332</sup> Quijano provides additional evidence that there may be no differences between the sexes in verbal expressiveness.

Gilbert study. Sex differences in verbal expressiveness was a variable in a study by Gilbert. The sample consisted of 102 children, four through six years old, attending two kindergarten classes, and two first-grade classes in New York City. The children were English-speaking Caucasians. Homeroom teachers rated each child on a thirty-two item adjective check

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<sup>331</sup> Teresa Quijano, A Cross-Cultural Study of Sex Differences Among First-Graders on a Verbal Test, (unpublished Master's Thesis, Texas Woman's University, Texas, 1968), pp. 1-60.

<sup>332</sup> Buros, op. cit., p. 537.

list covering areas pertinent to the study. The teachers did not rate the girls as significantly more openly expressive or more verbal than boys.<sup>333</sup>

Although the researchist developed an unobtrusive measure of verbal behavior, it was limited for two reasons. First, no criterion schedule was developed. Second, interrater reliability was not determined. Another limitation occurred when the classroom teachers were utilized as raters of their own homerooms, for this may have induced the "Halo Effect." On the positive side, employment of the classroom setting and regular teachers may have reduced the "Hawthorne Effect." Even though Gilbert's work had methodological errors, findings suggesting that there may be no differences between the sexes in verbal expressiveness are relevant to the current research.

Philipp study. In order to investigate verbal fluency, flexibility and originality, Philipp administered The Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking (Verbal Form A) to all her subjects. Sixty-five fourth grade children in an upper-middle-class suburb of a large urban area served as subjects. The mean age of the subjects was ten years. The researcher administered the test to all subjects. There proved to be no significant differences

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<sup>333</sup>Doris C. Gilbert, "The Young Child's Awareness of Affect," Child Development, XL (June, 1969), pp. 629-639.

between the males and females in verbal fluency, flexibility or originality.<sup>334</sup>

While the use of the small sample may have made it mathematically impossible to obtain significant differences between the groups, the researcher employed a dependent measure of established validity and reliability. Moreover, her utilization of the reactive measure in the regular classroom setting may have reduced "reactive effects" to experimental procedures and equipment. Notwithstanding the problem of sample size, this experiment is apropos to the current study. That males and females may not vary in verbal fluency, flexibility and originality is of essence to an investigation of the stereotyping of the female as talkative.

Gall study. This study explored the relation of personality traits and sex of subjects to oral language productivity. Twenty men and twenty-nine women, ranging in age from eighteen to thirty, were recruited from the student population of the University of California at Berkeley. Each subject was individually seen in a session lasting about two and one-half hours. The experimenter told the subject: "I am interested in the ways people talk about their environments; I will be showing you several situations and asking you to tell me about them. I

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<sup>334</sup> Joan A. Philipp, "Comparison of Motor Creativity with Figure and Verbal Creativity, and Selected Motor Skills" The Research Quarterly, XL (March, 1969), pp. 163-172.



will be tape recording what you say. I want to assure you that everything you say will be held in strict confidence." The subjects were then asked to talk about nine visual displays for a period of two minutes each. Typed transcriptions were made of the subject's spoken descriptions. Oral language productivity was measured by counting the number of words in each description of a visual display. All words uttered by subjects were counted. No significant differences between the sexes in oral language productivity were found.<sup>335</sup>

It is vital to note several difficulties in Gall's research design. First, the sample is selective and biased by the utilization of volunteers. Besides this, the sample may be too small to show significance. Although Gall has designed a rigorously controlled dependent measure which has built-in validity and reliability, the reliability and validity of the visual display cards was not determined. The work is of interest here, in spite of the design problems, for using an adult sample, Gall corroborated the findings which other studies obtained with children.

Milton study. The verbalizations of sixty-seven girls and seventy-five boys were studied by Milton. The subjects were Caucasian children living in Cambridge, Massachusetts. Parents varied in educational background from those who did not

<sup>335</sup> Meredith D. Gall, "Non-Linguistic Factors in Oral Language Productivity," Perceptual and Motor Skills, XXIX (December, 1969), pp. 871-874.

complete high school to those with graduate degrees. The subjects were twenty-seven months of age. The evaluation included a two and one-half hour laboratory visit, followed within two weeks by a six- to eight-hour home observation. The children were administered the following laboratory procedures, in a fixed order from which six verbalization scores were derived: (1) free play--mother and child were left alone in a room for a five-minute adaptation period, followed by a thirty-minute play period during which toys were available. The variables of interest for the present research were total time the child spoke during either the adaptation or play period; (2) narrated visual scenes--each subject was shown a series of twenty-three chromatic scenes, some of which illustrated familiar objects; others illustrated discrepant events. The variable of study was the number of times which the subject issued a description of the scenes; (3) human forms--each child was shown a series of four different but related forms. The main variable was the total number of stimulus-related words spoken by the child; (4) clay faces--finally, each child was shown a series of four clay masks of a male face. The main variable was the total number of words spoken by the child. An examiner, who had not seen the child in the laboratory, visited the home and administered two vocabulary tests. Finally, after six-eight hours of observing the mother-child interaction, the researchist rated the child's speech quality on a seven-point scale.

Sex differences in the mean scores were small and non-significant.<sup>336</sup>

Two serious methodological problems must be mentioned in connection with the Milton study. First, the validity and reliability of the verbalization stimuli were not determined. Second, the number of tests administered to these subjects may have induced multiple-treatment interference. While this is true, counting all words spoken by the subjects provided rigorous control over validity and reliability of the measurement procedure, and must enhance the level of confidence in the finding that there may be no difference between the sexes in verbalization.

Ross study. After taking base rate measures of verbal behavior using a specially devised Story Telling Test, thirty-six children (eighteen boys and eighteen girls) with a mean age of four years, four months, were assigned to matched experimental and control groups. All of the children came from a semi-rural area in Suffolk County, New York. Their families were in the low income segment of the population. The children in the experimental group participated in daily half-hour group sessions for a period of seven weeks during which they were given systematic language training based on reinforcement principles. The children in the control group

<sup>336</sup> Cheryl Milton, Sex Differences in Generality and Continuity of Verbal Responsivity, Proceedings of the Seventy-seventh Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, 1969, Harvard University.

continued attending the regular Head Start program. Upon conclusion of the seven-week training period, the children in both groups were posttested with the measure used in the pretest. The test measured use of adjectives, construction of sentences, and number of words produced. It was found that there was no significant difference between the sexes on the variables studied.<sup>337</sup>

Ross' pretest and control group design gave this investigation rigorous control over the research variables. On the other hand, there is the possibility that administering the pretest may have increased the sensitivity of the subjects. Moreover, random selection would have increased the generalizability of the results. In addition, the matching procedure has limitations. Last, the reliability and validity of the dependent measure were not assessed. While there are obvious reasons for questioning the methodology employed by Ross, his conclusion that there may be no difference between the sexes in number of adjectives utilized, complexity of sentence construction and number of words produced, is of interest to the present investigator.

Smith study. This experiment was concerned with the length of verbalizations of children in a Buffalo, New York Head Start program. The subjects were fifty-six four-year old

<sup>337</sup> Alan O. Ross, Increasing Verbal Communication Skills In Culturally Disadvantaged Pre-school Children, State University of New York, Stony Brook, Office of Education, Washington, D.C. Bureau of Research, August, 1969, pp. 1-51

children. They were observed in four different communication patterns and the mean length of their verbalizations was recorded. The patterns used were the dyad, the triad, the small group, and the role-playing triad. Females produced significantly more speech per response than males across all conditions.<sup>338</sup>

Two design limitations which occurred in Smith's experiment were: (1) exposing the subjects repeatedly to experimental conditions which may have caused multiple-treatment interference, and (2) the researchist not checking his reliability as an observer. On the other hand, by using the length of response as a dependent measure, he probably assured its validity and reliability. Therefore, the finding that the length of female verbalization may exceed that of the male may be held with little reservation.

Gross study. The verbalization of first, third and fifth graders were examined by Gross. Subjects were from the Urbana, Illinois, public schools. Ten subjects of each sex at the three grade levels were randomly selected from the total school population and composed the sample of sixty subjects. The stimulus materials consisted of arrays of four toys. The subjects were tested individually. They were presented with the

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<sup>338</sup> Dennis R. Smith, The Effect of Four Communications Patterns and Sex on Length of Verbalization in Speech of Four-Year Old Children, State University of New York Research Foundation, Office of Economic Opportunity, Washington, D.C. March, 1970, pp. 1-25.

arrays and asked to verbalize about them. All responses to the arrays were recorded verbatim for each subject and submitted to three independent judges for rating. Two warm-up series were presented to assure appropriate comprehension of the task requirements. Following this, the series of six arrays were presented. The interrater reliability was .99.

The summary of the statistical analysis indicated that sex was not significant.<sup>339</sup>

The methodological strengths of this study were that: (1) the randomization increased the generalizability of Gross' results, and (2) he did establish the interjudge reliability. On the other hand, removing the subjects from their classroom, which may have caused "reactive effects" to the experimental procedures, and not ascertaining the reliability and validity of the dependent measure, may be considered the study limitations. Nevertheless, the finding that there may be no differences between the sexes in verbalization is vital data for a study of the stereotyping of the female as talkative in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

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<sup>339</sup> Ira Gross, "Concept Identification with Concurrent and Delayed Verbalization," Journal of School Psychology, X (March, 1972), pp. 47-52.

Summary of the female as talkative or not talkative. In summation, in the investigations of the female as talkative, the research was organized into four categories.

To begin with, the area given the most attention by researchers was that of verbal productivity or the study of the number of words produced by the subjects under experimental conditions. Specifically, Milton<sup>340</sup>, Friedlander<sup>341</sup>, and Ross<sup>342</sup> studied the verbal productivity of preschool children. All recorded the same results. They found no difference between the sexes. Smith<sup>343</sup>, on the other hand, reported that the females in his study were superior to males in the number of words they produced. Moving on to the elementary school years, both Gilbert<sup>344</sup> and Gross<sup>345</sup> found that there was no sex difference between males and females in the number of statements children produced in a test situation. In addition, Haly's<sup>346</sup> investigation of adolescents demonstrated that there was no sex difference in the number of words produced by his subjects. Furthermore, he obtained a similar result for adult subjects. Gall<sup>347</sup> corroborated Haly's finding in his own study of verbal productivity among adults. Lindzey<sup>348</sup>, in contrast to the finding for adults in general, reported that college females surpassed males in verbal productivity.

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<sup>340</sup>Ibid., p. 18.

<sup>341</sup>Ibid., p. 63.

<sup>342</sup>Ibid., p. 51.

<sup>343</sup>Ibid., p. 25.

<sup>344</sup>Ibid., p. 629.

<sup>345</sup>Ibid., p. 47.

<sup>346</sup>Ibid., p. 117.

<sup>347</sup>Ibid., p. 871.

<sup>348</sup>Ibid., p. 311.

Verbal fluency was the topic of study by both Otto<sup>349</sup> and Philipp<sup>350</sup>. Otto, who studied middle-class elementary subjects, found the females more verbally fluent (using polished speech patterns) than the males. Philipp, by way of comparison, investigated upper-middle class subjects and found no differences between the sexes in verbal fluency.

A third area of research considered, concerned verbal ability. To begin with, Quijano's<sup>351</sup> research was with elementary subjects and reported no differences between the sexes in verbal ability. In addition, Edmonds<sup>352</sup> studied the verbal ability of adolescents and found no sex differences. Last, Philipp<sup>353</sup> and Lindzey<sup>354</sup> performed research in the area of verbal originality. Philipp found no sex differences among his elementary students but Lindzey reported that college females were superior to college males in verbal creativity or originality.

Four areas were examined in this section of the current report. They were verbal productivity, fluency, ability, and originality. The majority of the investigations found that there were no differences between males and females in these traits. Nevertheless, it must be emphasized that when differences were obtained, it was the female who was reported as being more talkative (superior in verbal production, fluency, ability, and originality) and not the male.

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<sup>349</sup> Ibid., p. 11.

<sup>350</sup> Ibid., p. 163.

<sup>351</sup> Ibid., p. 60.

<sup>352</sup> Ibid., p. 61.

<sup>353</sup> Ibid., p. 163.

<sup>354</sup> Ibid., p. 311.



## VIII. THE FEMALE AS A SEX SYMBOL OR NOT A SEX SYMBOL

### Introduction

This section of the current study details experiments which deal with physical attraction of males and females. One of the hypotheses under study is that Walt Disney films and screenplays stereotype the female as a sex symbol or as extremely attractive. This chronological review of research presents data relevant to physical attractiveness of the sexes.

Walster study. Among the variables under consideration by Walster was the physical attractiveness of the sexes. The subjects, all freshmen students, were 376 men and 376 women who purchased tickets to a Friday night dance held on the last day of "Welcome Week" at the University of Minnesota. For experimental purposes, ticket sales were set up in the foyer of the Student Union. As the subject walked along a table in the foyer, he was first sold a ticket by a student. He then moved down the table as a second student checked his student body identification card, while a third student handed him a questionnaire with his student code number stamped on it and asked him to complete it at an adjoining table. A fourth

student directed him to a seat. The four students were actually college students who had been hired to rate physical attractiveness. As each subject passed, the four raters rapidly and individually evaluated the subject's physical attractiveness on an eight-point scale. Once the subjects were seated, they began filling out a questionnaire. First, the subject answered several demographic questions. The next measures were designed to assess how considerate the subject felt he would be to a fairly attractive date. Four pages of questions followed this introduction. The questions measured the following four variables: (1) subject's popularity, (2) subject's nervousness about a blind date, (3) subject's expectations in a computer date, and (4) subject's self-esteem. From the University's state-wide test service program, several additional measures were secured. The subject's high school academic percentile rank, his Minnesota Scholastic Aptitude Test score, his score on the Minnesota Counseling Inventory and his score on Berger's Scale of Self Acceptance. Two days after the subject completed his questionnaire, he was assigned a date. Dates were randomly assigned to the subject with the limitation that a man was never assigned a date taller than himself. The subjects met their dates at the dance--held in a large armory. Subjects'

attitudes toward their dates were assessed during intermission. Men were to report to one of seven small rooms to rate their dates; women were to remain in the large armory to evaluate their partners. How often couples actually dated after this first date was determined in a follow-up study. It was found that the personality measures such as the Minnesota Counseling Inventory and the Berger's Scale of Self-Acceptance and intellectual measures such as the Minnesota Scholastic Aptitude Test, and high school percentile rank did not predict couple compatibility. The only significant determinant of subject's liking for his date was the date's physical attractiveness. The correlation between liking of the date and evaluation of the date's physical attractiveness was .78 for male subjects and .69 for female subjects. The difference between the correlations was not significant.<sup>355</sup>

A critique of this work reveals both weaknesses and strengths in methodology. First, Walster obtained her subjects in a selective manner as her group was limited to freshmen who enjoyed dancing. Next, the elaborate experimental procedures may have set the "Hawthorne Effect" into motion. Furthermore,

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<sup>355</sup> Elaine Walster, Vera Aronson, Darcy Abrahams and Leon Rottmann, "Importance of Physical Attractiveness in Dating Behavior," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, IV (August, 1966), pp. 508-516.

when rating the subject's physical attractiveness, raters saw the subjects for only a few seconds as the subject moved in line. Besides this, the validity and reliability of the measure of physical attractiveness were not determined. However, it is reported in the Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook that the reliability coefficients of the various scales of the Minnesota Counseling Inventory range from .56 to .95. Likewise, the yearbook suggests, "that the test authors' conclusion that the scales have 'reasonably acceptable' validity is too strong a statement in light of the evidence presented."<sup>356</sup> Finally, interjudge reliability interjudge reliability intercorrelated at .49. Despite the problems cited, the finding that the physical attractiveness of the male is as important in real life interpersonal relations as the physical attractiveness of the female, is pertinent to a study of the stereotyping of the female in the Walt Disney films as extremely attractive or a sex symbol.

Leckart study. This study of the sex differences in the duration of visual attention to the opposite sex utilized twenty-five females and twenty-seven males as subjects. They were from the introductory psychology course at Michigan State University. The stimuli consisted of forty black and white photographs selected from national magazines. Each picture contained a single adult male or female. Half the pictures were of men, half were of women. Each male picture was matched

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<sup>356</sup> Buros, op. cit., p. 142.

with a female picture so that age, position, angle of view, stimulus complexity and novelty were controlled. The photographs were placed in random order, face down in a three-sided wooden box from which the subject could remove only one picture at a time. A cardboard box was provided for discarding viewed pictures. Subjects were instructed to view the pictures one at a time, looking at each picture for as long as he liked, while the time spent viewing each picture was recorded automatically with an Esterline-Angus event recorder. Thus, for each subject the total time spent looking at the male and female pictures was computed. Comparisons revealed that females looked significantly longer at female pictures than at male pictures, but that males did not differentially attend to the male and female pictures.<sup>357</sup>

Two positive aspects of Leckart's study were: (1) lack of elaborate equipment may have reduced the possibility of "reactive effects" to experimental equipment, and (2) the relative simple experimental procedure may have eliminated substantial "reactive effects" to the experimental procedure. On the other hand, he did not attempt to determine the validity or reliability of the picture-viewing process. Nevertheless, the finding that there was no significant difference in the duration of visual attention given to pictures of either sex by males is relevant to the current study. This is important

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<sup>357</sup>Bruce T. Leckart, Kenneth R. Keeling and Paul Bakan, "Sex Differences in the Duration of Visual Attention," Perception and Psychophysics, I (October, 1966), pp. 374-375.

data for an exploration of the stereotyping of the female as a sex symbol in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Brislin study. This study was a replication of the Walster research cited above with several minor changes. The number of subjects, for example, college freshmen and sophomores from the Pennsylvania State University, was smaller--  
fifty-eight. The smaller number of subjects used made the dance more manageable and conceivably allowed subjects to interact with several other people present. The twenty-nine couples, strangers before the dance, were randomly formed using the same procedure as the Walster study. Another measure, a measure of social desirability, was gathered in addition to physical attractiveness data. Another difference in the studies was that the post-questionnaire was administered to the subjects two hours after the dance started. For both sexes, the attractiveness-desire to date correlation was significant. The measure of sociability did not produce significant differences between the sexes. No other significant correlates were found. It was concluded that the findings strongly support the Walster data, especially the high correlation between physical attractiveness and desire to date. 358

Brislin's research has the same limitations as the Walster study. They have been cited above. In addition to

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Richard W. Brislin and Steven A. Lewis, "Dating and Physical Attractiveness: Replication," Psychological Reports, XXII (June, 1968), p. 976.

these, the reliability and validity of the seven-point sociability scale was not determined. Nonetheless, a study that corroborates the finding that physical attractiveness is the most important single variable in the dating relations of males and females, and that there is no difference between the sexes in this variable, is pertinent to a study of the stereotyping of the female as extremely physically attractive in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Byrne study. Byrne performed an experiment to determine the attraction of University of Texas subjects to an opposite-sex stranger. Photographs of males and females representing two levels of attractiveness were obtained from college yearbook photographs of eighty-four males and eighty-four females. Judges consisted of thirty male and twenty-four female introductory psychology students drawn from the same population as the experimental subjects. Each judge was given a pile of photographs. The judge was given the pile of photographs of one sex at a time with instructions to sort them into two groups--attractive and unattractive. Only pictures that obtained all judges' agreement were included in the study. The selected pictures were then attached to an attitude scale supposedly filled out by a stranger. The randomly selected subjects were 103 male and 102 female introductory psychology students. They were asked to read the attitude scale, look at the picture and then fill out a forced-choice type questionnaire regarding the subject. Among other topics which the questions measured was

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the subject rating of the bogus stranger as either physically attractive or unattractive. It was found that interpersonal attraction was significantly greater toward physically attractive strangers for both sexes.<sup>359</sup>

This study was rigorously controlled in most aspects. For example, not only was the interjudge reliability determined, but the reliability and validity of the picture selection process were checked as well. In addition, the random selection of subjects certainly affords wider generalizability of the findings. Nonetheless, it must be noted that the validity and reliability of the questionnaire were not established. Notwithstanding this one limitation, ascertaining that the physical attractiveness of an opposite sex stranger is as important an attraction factor for females as it is for males is apposite to the current research into the stereotyping of the females in Walt Disney films and screenplays as extremely physically attractive.

Mack study. The purpose of the Mack experiment was to investigate dating and rating preferences of male and female college students. Data were obtained by the Dating Preference Survey. The sample included 691 randomly selected freshmen and senior college students from Texas University. A data

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<sup>359</sup>Donn Byrne, Oliver London and Keith Reeves, "The Effects of Physical Attractiveness, Sex and Attitude Similarity on Interpersonal Attraction," Journal of Personality, XXXVI (June, 1968), pp. 261-269.

analysis revealed that male and female subjects regardless of classification, tend to support the same characteristics for popularity on campus. Personality, physical attractiveness and sociability were all significant characteristics in determining popularity. Males ascribed significantly more importance on personality and sexual accessibility characteristics in serious dating than did females. Further, males placed significantly more importance on physical characteristics for a prospective marriage partner than did females.<sup>360</sup>

Validity and reliability data were not ascertained for the Dating Preference Survey but administration of the paper and pencil type measure in class may have eliminated "reactive effects" to experimental procedures. Moreover, use of the large random sample provided wide application of findings to the research. Consequently, the finding that males ascribe more importance to physical attractiveness in selection of marriage partners than females, and the fact that females attach as much moment to physical attractiveness as males in campus popularity, is data pertinent to an investigation of the stereotyping of the female as a sex symbol in Walt Disney fillms and screenplays.

McWhirter study. This researchist set out to determine how the attraction relationship was affected by the sex and

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Joanne Mack, The Dating and Rating Preferences of A Group of Male and Female College Students, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Texas Woman's University, 1969), pp. 1-197.

physical attractiveness of the interacting persons. The subjects were forty-eight male and forty-eight female undergraduate psychology students at Texas Tech University--all randomly selected. Each subject was rated by four male judges on a scale according to the physical attractiveness of the subject. The mean interrater reliability was .62. Similarly, stimulus pictures were rated by fifteen male and fifteen female judges. Those with the most equally spaced mean ratings were used as stimulus pictures. The subjects were told that the purpose of the experiment was to see how well they could predict others' behavior on the basis of limited information, *i.e.*, attitudes and physical appearance. They were asked to complete an attitude questionnaire on controversial issues. Further, they were told that later each would be given another subject's questionnaire and asked to evaluate him. Actually, the questionnaires they received were bogus. To each questionnaire was appended one of the stimulus pictures. An analysis of the attraction scores revealed that sex of subject was not significant. There did not seem to be a tendency for males to be more influenced than females by stranger attractiveness. The agreement between subject attractiveness and stranger attractiveness for both sexes was significant.<sup>361</sup>

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<sup>361</sup> Richard Marshall McWhirter, Interpersonal Attraction in a Dyad As a Function of the Physical Attractiveness of Its Members, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Texas Tech University, 1969), pp. 1-55.

As can be seen, McWhirter performed a rigorously controlled experiment. First, he established the interrater reliability for the judges of his subjects and stimulus pictures. Additionally, the random selection of subjects provided for wide application of results among university students. Finally, his clever use of the bogus questionnaire may have reduced "reactive effects" to experimental procedures. However, the study could have been even further enhanced if McWhirter had determined the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. The findings that males and females did not differ in their attraction to pictures of physically attractive members of the opposite sex and that physically attractive subjects were more attracted to the pictures of physically attractive members of the opposite sex is related to the present research, nonetheless.

Cavior study. Cavior explored physical attractiveness and interpersonal attraction among fifth and eleventh grade subjects from Houston, Texas. The subjects were photographed. They then judged their classmates and themselves on physical attractiveness. The subjects were also rated on physical attractiveness by judges who did not know them. Subjects also ranked their classmates on popularity and filled out an attitude questionnaire reflecting how similar they believed their attitudes were compared with each member in their class. Multiple regression analyses indicated that physical attractiveness contributed to most of the variance in popularity rankings of the fifth grade boys' rankings of both boys and

girls, the fifth grade girls' rankings of the boys, and the eleventh grade boys' ranking of the girls. Perceived attitude similarity accounted for more of the variance in popularity rankings than physical attractiveness for the fifth grade girls' rankings of their female classmates, the eleventh grade girls' rankings of both boys and girls, and the eleventh grade boys' rankings of their boy classmates.<sup>362</sup>

Some limitations which occurred in the Cavior study should be noted. First, although use of the intact classrooms may have reduced "reactive effects" to the experimental procedures, it limited the application of the findings. Next, neither interjudge reliability of the questionnaire was determined, nor was the reliability of the subjects as judges ascertained. Despite these limitations, this study, utilizing subjects other than college students, is pertinent to the investigation of the stereotyping of the female as extremely physically attractive (sex symbol) in Walt Disney productions. The fact that age may interact with sex to determine the basis of popularity is germane to the present research.

Miller study. Miller investigated the role of physical attractiveness in impression formation. The subjects that participated in this study were 360 male and 360 female

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<sup>362</sup> Norman Cavior, Physical Attractiveness, Perceived Attitude Similarity, and InterPersonal Attraction Among Fifth and Eleventh Grade Boys and Girls, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Houston, 1970), pp. 1-109.

undergraduates from introductory psychology courses at Miami University, Ohio. Each of 200 male and 200 female photographs, obtained from the university yearbook office, were rated on a nine-point scale of physical attractiveness by 100 hundred male and 100 female subjects. In this way stimulus pictures were obtained. The subjects were seen in groups of as many as four. Each subject was given individual instructions, worked in a separate cubicle, and was randomly assigned one of the twelve photographs. None of the subjects were informed of the physical attractiveness dimension. Subjects were asked to record their impressions of the person in the photograph on the Adjective Preference Scale. The psychometric status of the instrument was impressive, with Kuder-Richardson reliabilities ranging from .55 to .96. To increase the representativeness of each attractiveness level, the scores on the dimensions for the two photographs at each attractiveness level were combined. It was found that for both sexes there were similar significant effects for physical attractiveness. A consistent pattern emerged: the unattractive person was associated with the negative or undersirable pole of the dependent measure, while the highly attractive person was judged significantly more positively. The status of the moderately attractive persons was variable, generally falling between the high and low attractive stimuli but not significantly different from both extremes.<sup>363</sup>

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<sup>363</sup> Arthur G. Miller, "Role of Physical Attractiveness in Impression Formation," Psychonomic Science, XIX (May, 1970), pp. 241-243.

Miller took great caution in designing a rigorously controlled investigation. To begin, the sample was large and selected randomly, making the results of the research widely applicable. Then too, the dependent measure's reliability was impressive. On the other hand, its validity was not determined. Furthermore, administering the scale in a laboratory situation may have induced "reactive effects" to the experimental procedures. In spite of the problems in the study, the fact that physical attractiveness was demonstrated as a potentially strong determinant of first impressions, makes this research pertinent to a study of the stereotyping of the female as physically attractive (sex symbol) in Walt Disney films. Moreover, it is of essence to the current research that there were no sex differences in the utilization of physical attractiveness as the main variable in forming the first impression.

Ervin study. Eighty-eight introductory psychology students at the University of Texas served as subjects for a study of computer dating and attraction. The subjects were selected from a pool of 420 introductory psychology students who had been given an attitude-personality questionnaire. The questionnaire had a split-half reliability of .88. By means of a specially prepared program, the responses of each male were compared with those of each female. From this data, male-female pairs were selected to represent either the greatest or the least number of matching responses. Of the resulting pairs, a few were eliminated because (a) one was married, (b) the

resulting pair was racially mixed, or (c) because of a failure to keep the experimental appointment. The remaining subjects formed twenty-four high-similar pairs, and twenty low-similar pairs. The experiment was run with only one of the selected couples at a time. In the experimental room, they were introduced to one another and told:

For our experiment, we would like to create a situation somewhat like that of a computer date. That is, you answered a series of questions. The computer indicated that you two gave the same responses on some of the questions. Now we would like for you to spend a short time together on a coke date at the Student Union. Here is fifty cents to spend on whatever you would like. We hope that you will learn as much as possible about each other in the next half hour, because we will be asking you a number of questions about one another when you return.

When they returned from the date to receive their final instructions, an unobtrusive measure of attraction was obtained: the physical distance between the two subjects while standing together in front of the experimenter's desk. The distance was noted on a simple ordinal scale ranging from zero (touching one another) to five (standing at opposite corners of the desk). The subjects were then separated and asked to evaluate their date on the Interpersonal Judgment Scale. The Interpersonal Judgment Scale consisted of ten seven-point scales. The scale had a split-half reliability of .85. At the end of the semester (two or three months after the date), it was possible to locate seventy-four of the eighty-eight original subjects who were willing to answer five additional questions. Each was asked to write the name of his or her computer date



and to indicate whether or not they had talked to one another since the experiment, dated since the experiment, or whether a date was desired or planned in the future. Finally, each was asked whether the evaluation of the date was influenced more by physical attractiveness or by attitudes. An analysis of the responses for male and female subjects on both dependent measures demonstrated that there were no significant sex differences in attraction responses. Physical attractiveness was the single most important variable in evaluating the date.<sup>364</sup>

For the most part, Erwin employed an adequate research design. First, he incorporated reactive and nonreactive measures of his variant into the experiment. Second, the "Hawthorne Effect" was reduced by building the attitude-personality questionnaire into the regular freshman testing schedule. While both instruments had adequate reliability, the validity of the attitude-personality questionnaire and the Interpersonal Judgment Scale was not determined. Moreover, selection of the subjects on the basis of high and low similarity scores may have resulted in statistical regression. Last, use of other than regular staff and class time for the study may have induced "reactive effects" to the experimental procedures. Again, this research is pertinent to a study of the stereotyping of the female as a sex symbol (extremely physically attractive) in

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<sup>364</sup> Charles R. Erwin and Donn Byrne, "Continuity Between the Experimental Study of Attraction and Real-Life Computer Dating," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, XVI (September, 1970), pp. 157-165.

Walt Disney films and screenplays for it corroborates the finding that males and females may not differ in attraction response to the physical attractiveness of a member of the opposite sex.

Rivenbark study. This research project investigated sexual differences in physical attractiveness as a determinant of heterosexual liking. A questionnaire describing eight situations of interaction ranging from first impression through marriage, asked college freshmen to judge the import of physical attractiveness for them in each of these settings. The judgment was made on a Likert-type scale of one to five. The subjects were 177 male and 177 female students in introductory psychology at Alabama University. The results indicated that men ranked physical attractiveness significantly (but only slightly) higher than women.<sup>365</sup>

Whereas, employment of the regular classroom and teaching staff to administer the questionnaire may have reduced the "guinea pig" effect, certain methodological problems should be mentioned. First, the reliability and validity of the questionnaire was not established. Also, lack of random selection limits the generalization of results to subjects similar to the sample population. Even though this is the case, the fact

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<sup>365</sup>H. W. Rivenbark and Howard Miller, "Sexual Differences in Physical Attractiveness as a Determinant of Heterosexual Liking," Psychological Reports, XXVII (December, 1970), pp. 701-702.

that the response to "looks" seemed nearly equally as strong in men and women is of import to the study of the stereotyping of the female as a sex symbol in Walt Disney films and screen-plays.

Parrott study. Parrott explored the facial characteristics of sexual appeal. The subjects were randomly selected students in the cafeterias at Sacramento City College and Sacramento State College. There were thirty-eight males and thirty-eight females in the sample. The total sample number was evenly divided between blacks and whites. Pictures were selected from recent college yearbooks of other schools and enlarged to approximately three by five inches. Final selection eliminated faces with any unusual or special features. Three completely different, but equated, booklets of pictures were formed. Each had a male and female picture side of three blacks and three whites in each sex group. The six pictures in each sex set ranged from strongly black to strongly white. The ranking of the pictures was done using a six-order scale and pictures were selected for use when consensus was reached on their ranking by the research team. The three black female pictures with a one rating were the individuals with the thinnest lips, narrowest noses, etc; the three black females with a three rating had the thicker lips, wider noses, etc. For the white females, those with a rating of one had the thicker lips, wider noses, etc., in their group; white females with ratings of three had thinner lips, narrower noses, etc.

The male pictures in each ethnic group were ordered on the same basis. Each picture was rated by the subjects on a sexually appealing-sexually unappealing semantic-differential-type scale. Results indicated that males showed a significant sexual rating pattern based on physical features of the females. For females, raters there was no significant sexual rating pattern based on physical attractiveness of the males.<sup>366</sup>

Some methodological errors mar this interesting study. To begin, the subject selection limits the application of the results. Next, the reliability and validity of the picture-ranking scale and the semantic-differential type scale were not ascertained. Finally, ranking of the physical attractiveness of the photographs by the research team may have introduced a "Halo Effect." Even though the problems occurred, the fact that males varied their sexual appeal rating on the basis of the physical features of the females and that females did not vary their sexual appeal rating on this criterion, makes this study apropos to the present research.

Dokecki study. The physical attractiveness rankings assigned to classmates by fifth and eleventh grade West Virginia students was examined by Dokecki. Two groups of subjects were employed in the research: fifth-grade (eighteen

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<sup>366</sup>George L. Parrott and Georgetta Coleman, Sexual Appeal in Black and White, Proceedings of the Seventy-ninth Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, 1971, Part One, pp. 321-322.

boys, twelve girls), and eleventh-grade (fourteen boys, fourteen girls). A professional photographer took five-by-seven inch black and white, full-length pictures of all the subjects. The camera, lighting, and position of the subjects was held constant. The subjects were asked to rank the photographs of their classmates separately by sex from the most to the least physically attractive. Interrater reliability of physical attractiveness was determined by the Kendall coefficient of concordance, with the coefficients ranging from .43 to .74. It was discovered that the correlations between the boys' and girls' rankings for each of the four sets of pictures did not differ significantly from each other.<sup>367</sup>

Dokecki's study was adequately designed and controlled. First, the experiment, being conducted in the regular class setting, may have avoided "reactive effects." Next, the experimenter determined the interrater reliability for his subjects. Last, by having the subjects rank the actual photographs, the experimenter avoided the problems generated by elaborate experimental equipment and paper and pencil measures. Hence, the findings of the study may be viewed in confidence. The fact that the sexes did not differ in their physical attractiveness rankings of classmates is of import to the present research. In that males and females may not view

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<sup>367</sup> Paul R. Dokecki and Norman Cavior, Physical Attractiveness Self-Concept: A Test of Mead's Hypothesis, Proceedings of the Seventy-ninth Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, 1971, Part One, pp. 319-320.

physical attractiveness differently is of importance to the investigation of the stereotyping of the female as a sex symbol (extremely physically attractive) in Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Summary of the female as a sex symbol or not as a sex symbol. The section of the current report reviewed dealt with the sex symbolism of the female. Investigations in the section above were included in the report due to the fact that they compared subject attitudes related to the physical attractiveness of males and females. The researcher assumed that if one sex was consistently viewed as more physically attractive than the other, a sex role stereotype would exist--sex symbolism.

The investigations germane to physical attractiveness were of three types: (1) studies involving dating, (2) studies employing photographs, and (3) studies utilizing questionnaires.

To begin with, the findings of the dating studies were all consistent. For instance, Ervin<sup>368</sup> concluded that physical attractiveness was the single most important attitude in dating. Furthermore, males and females did not differ in this respect. Both sexes were attracted to the dating partner primarily by the partner's physical attractiveness.

Similarly, Walster<sup>369</sup> reported that the liking of a date for both sexes was first and foremost based upon the date's physical attractiveness. Brislin<sup>370</sup> replicated Walster's investigation and came to the same conclusion--regardless of

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<sup>368</sup> Ibid., p. 157.

<sup>369</sup> Ibid., p. 516.

<sup>370</sup> Ibid., p. 976.

the person's sex, they are attracted to another person mainly because of the other person's physical appearance. Hence, dating research found that the female is no more a sex symbol because of her physical attractiveness than the male, who is as appealing to females because of his physical appearance.

Turning to the studies utilizing photographs instead of live subjects, the same general consistency of finding occurs. Byrne<sup>371</sup>, for example, found that the pictures of attractive strangers held the same attraction for subjects of both sexes. In support of this finding, Miller<sup>372</sup> found that both sexes rated photos of the unattractive person negatively while they judged the opposite-sexed highly attractive person positively. The work of Doeckel<sup>373</sup>, Cavior<sup>374</sup>, and McWhirter<sup>375</sup> all corroborated this viewpoint.

In contrast to this, Parrott<sup>376</sup> discovered that although males showed a significant sexual rating pattern based on the attractiveness of the physical features of females in pictures, the females in his study did not base their preference for males on physical attractiveness. Leckart<sup>377</sup> reported an interesting finding. It seems that his female subjects looked longer at female photographs than they did at pictures of males. The male subjects in his study did not vary the duration of the visual attention they gave to pictures of either sex.

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<sup>371</sup> Ibid., p. 261.

<sup>372</sup> Ibid., p. 241.

<sup>373</sup> Ibid., p. 320.

<sup>374</sup> Ibid., p. 109.

<sup>375</sup> Ibid., p. 55.

<sup>376</sup> Ibid., p. 321.

<sup>377</sup> Ibid., p. 374.

Summarizing the findings of the studies based on the use of photographs, it may be stated that although a few investigators found otherwise, the majority of researchers support the conclusion that attractive males are as interesting to females as attractive females are to males. Therefore, the sex symbol role of the female is not based on reality.

Last, the research involving questionnaires about physical attractiveness (sex symbolism) must be considered. These studies substantiated the findings of the research employing dating and photograph designs. Mack<sup>378</sup>, for instance, reported that personality, physical attractiveness and sociability were all significant characteristics in determining popularity for his subjects, regardless of their sex. Similarly, Rivenbark<sup>379</sup> agreed that males ranked physical attractiveness higher as a basis for friendship but only slightly higher than did the female subjects. It may be seen, therefore, that questionnaire research corroborates the finding of dating and photograph investigations--males and females are equally attentive to the physical attractiveness of the members of the opposite sex.

Finally, one may reach the conclusion on the basis of the accordance of the three different types of studies reviewed above, that the concept of the female as a "sex symbol" is not true to real life. The male could be considered just as much a "sex symbol" as the female. At this point, the relevance of this conclusion to the present study of the female in Walt Disney screenplays and films may be stressed. To be free of

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<sup>378</sup> Ibid., p. 197.

<sup>379</sup> Ibid., p. 702.



the stereotype of the female as a "sex symbol," the male characters appearing in these materials should not be portrayed as giving more attention to the physical attractiveness of the female characters than the female characters do to the physical attractiveness of the male characteristics. The findings of the current investigation concerning the female as a "sex symbol" in the Walt Disney materials will be compared to the finding of the research studies of this section in Chapter V of this report.

#### IX. THE FEMALE IN BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS AS A SUPERVISOR OR A SUBORDINATE

##### Introduction

This section of the current report deals with the female as a supervisor or a subordinate in the world of work. It has been theorized above that females in Walt Disney films and screenplays are stereotyped as holding subordinate positions in business and the professions. This section of the present investigation reviews the literature in a temporal sequence. It begins with early studies and proceeds to present day research.

Mason study. In a study to determine if the sex role is dominant over the occupational role, Mason investigated the occupation of teaching. He selected teaching because it was an occupation in which large numbers of both men and women were employed. The sample design called for a ten per cent systematic random sample of the beginning teachers in the nation. The general procedure was to randomly select a sample of school districts, stratified by pupil enrollment. The districts so selected supplied the names and addresses of their beginning teachers. The teachers on these lists were then randomly selected in turn; there was thus a two-stage sample. In this way, each beginning teacher in the nation had an equal probability of selection. Usable replies were received from 7,150 beginning teachers or eight-nine per cent of those to whom questionnaires were sent. Mason also administered the questionnaire to 2,758 students attending Cornell University who were planning to enter many different occupations. One section of the questionnaire asked questions concerning the desire of the subjects to exercise leadership. It was found that there was a significant difference in both the teacher group and the college subjects between males and females desiring to exercise leadership. The males of both groups hoped to move into

administrative and supervisory positions while relatively few females expressed this goal.<sup>380</sup>

Mason went to great length to design an adequate study. His stratified random selection procedure makes the results of the research highly applicable. Although the questionnaire's validity and reliability were not determined, the high rate of return minimized the effect of bias. Therefore, the finding that females reject leadership roles is germane to the current research. This is important data for an investigation of the stereotyping of the female in business and the professions as subordinate.

Porter study. Porter explored the possible association between executive success criteria and scores on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank Masculinity-Femininity scale. A population of 195 pre-1944 male Stanford Graduate School of Business MBA's participated in the study. Six criteria for leadership were employed. They were: pay, policy-deciding authority, level in the organization, job interest, career progress, and being in management. The subjects were separated into three subgroups by size of employing organization:

- (a) large organizations subgroup: 15,000 employees and over;
- (b) medium organization subgroup: 50-14,999 employees, and
- (c) tiny organization subgroup: fewer than fifty employees.

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<sup>380</sup>Ward Mason, Robert J. Dressel and Robert K. Bain, "Sex Role and the Career Orientation of Beginning Teachers," Harvard Educational Review, XXIII (Fall, 1959), pp. 371-383.

The results demonstrated that the pattern of coefficients suggested that masculinity of interest was inversely correlated with executive success in large organizations, while positively correlated in small organizations.<sup>381</sup>

Porter's utilization of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank Masculinity-Femininity scale may limit the application of the results of this study. The Sixth Mental Measurements Year-book reports that, "The author was especially careful to indicate the limitations of the four nonoccupational scales-- . . . Masculinity-Femininity . . . scales which because of their ambiguity, could just as well have been dropped."<sup>382</sup> Regardless of this, the study raised the possibility that feminine characteristics are not alien to executive leadership. This is data of essence for an examination of the possibility that Walt Disney productions may stereotype the female as subordinate in business and the professions.

Krippner study. In this study of sex, ability and interest, data were obtained from 351 seventh- and eighth-grade pupils in an upper-middle class Chicago suburban community. There were 189 boys and 162 girls in the sample. The Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills and the Science Research Associates Primary Mental Ability Tests were administered to the

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<sup>381</sup> Albert Porter, "Effect of Organization Size on Validity of Masculinity-Femininity Score," Journal of Applied Psychology, XLVI (June, 1962), pp. 228-229.

<sup>382</sup> Buros, op. cit., p. 1071.

subjects as well as a vocational-educational questionnaire designed by Paul Witty for use in Northwestern University's Psychoeducational Clinic. It was found that significantly fewer girls than boys selected college degree vocations. Girls who intended to enter jobs requiring a college degree, chose semi-professional fields (teaching and nursing) almost unanimously. Professional occupations (scientist, doctor, etc.) were virtually ignored by the females. A small proportion of gifted girls than boys planned to enter college; fewer still wished to go on to take advanced degrees or to enter top level professional positions.<sup>383</sup>

One strength of Krippner's study was that he utilized standardized tests. To begin with, the predictive validity and split-half reliabilities of the Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills are reported as adequate in Tests in Print.<sup>384</sup> Further, the SRA Primary Mental Ability Tests were validated school subject grades. The median correlation was .22. The reliability by test-retest estimate varied from .73 to .93 in different grades.<sup>385</sup> On the other hand, the reliability and validity of the investigator-designed vocational-educational questionnaire were not established. Although the results of

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<sup>383</sup> Stanley Krippner, "Sex, Ability, and Interest: A Test of Tyler's Hypothesis," The Gifted Child Quarterly, VI (Autumn, 1962), pp. 105-110.

<sup>384</sup> Oscar Buros, Tests in Print (Highland Park, N. J.: Gryphon Press, 1961), p. 22.

<sup>385</sup> Buros, Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook, p. 780.

the study are generalizable only to upper-middle class populations in suburban communities, the finding that females regardless of ability and achievement, planned for subordinate vocations is of interest to the current experimenter. This is vital information for a study of Walt Disney films and screenplays and the stereotyping of the female in business and the professions as subordinate.

Masih study. Masih investigated career saliency and its relation to certain needs, interests and job values. Subjects in the Syracuse University Institute of Research Study, a total of 1,043 junior and seniors, were given a battery of tests that included the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS), the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) and the Guilford-Zimmerman Interest Inventory (GZII). In addition, 300 men and 220 women were also given one-hour interviews. The subjects of the study were drawn from the above groups. The final sample consisted of sixty-eight men and 118 women drawn from the Schools of Education, Liberal Arts, Engineering and Business Administration. A panel of three judges used information contained in the interview to categorize subjects into three groups: low Career Saliency, medium Career Saliency and high Career Saliency. The judges were instructed to use the definition of Career Saliency and a basic criteria to categorize the subjects. Only those cases were included for final analysis where all three judges agreed on the rating of Career Saliency. Separate groups of men and women differentiated

on Career Saliency were studied to show the relationship of Career Saliency to the variables hypothesized. The characteristics that seemed to differentiate the high-salient individuals from the other groups were: (1) a low interest in associating and interacting with the opposite sex, (2) a comparatively higher need to endure long periods of work, and (3) an interest in high-level occupations. Comparing men and women on Career Saliency, a significant difference was found, indicating a greater proportion of high career-salient individuals among men.<sup>386</sup>

Use of the standardized dependent measures enhanced the Masih study. The Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook reported the reliability of the EPPS test-retest reliability estimates ranged from .55 to .87. On the other hand, it was stated that "The validity data reported are scanty and inadequate."<sup>387</sup> Moreover, the reliability correlations of the GZII are declared to range from .68 to .88 by Buros. He stated that, "one must accept the authors' statement that useful external criteria have not been sufficiently developed for the establishment of validity data."<sup>388</sup> Further, the interrater reliability was not determined. In addition, Masih did not establish the reliability

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<sup>386</sup> Lalit K. Masih, "Career Saliency and Its Relation to Certain Needs, Interests, and Job Values," Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV (March, 1967), pp. 653-658.

<sup>387</sup> Buros, Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook, p. 203.

<sup>388</sup> Buros, op. cit., p. 1058.

and validity of his criteria for Career Saliency. Finally, multiple-treatment interference may have resulted due to the fact that subjects were selected from the Institute of Research Study. In spite of the problems cited, the finding that males have a greater interest in high-level occupations than females is relevant to the present study. This is data of import for a study of the stereotyping in Walt Disney films of the female in business and the professions as being in subordinate roles.

Clark study. In this exploration of the influence of sex and social class on occupational preference and perception, lower-class children (159 boys and 139 girls), and middle-class children (206 boys and 204 girls), were randomly selected to serve as subjects. All students were in grades three through six in New York City elementary schools. Children's perceptions and preferences of occupations were assessed by the Vocational Apperception Test (VAT). The children, interviewed individually, were asked about their occupational preferences. They were also asked to name the occupation being performed by the stimulus figure in the VAT. The subjects' occupational preferences were coded as "professional," "white collar," or "other." It was found that professional occupational choices were made by fifty-three per cent of the middle-class boys, thirty per cent of the lower-class boys, sixty-eight per cent of the middle-class girls, and eighty-five per cent of the lower-class girls. The sex difference was significant in favor of the girls.<sup>389</sup>

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<sup>389</sup> Edward T. Clark, "Influence of Sex and Social Class on Occupational Preference and Perception," Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV (January, 1967), pp. 440-444.



Both positive and negative design factors may be observed in Clark's work. First, the positive factors: (1) the results of the study should be applicable to most children in large urban areas, (2) Tests in Print reported that the reliability and validity of the VAT were adequate,<sup>390</sup> and (3) Clark controlled the race and class variables in this work.

Areas that could have been improved upon include: (1) a confounding of race and class may have occurred because all of the children in the middle-class sample were white, whereas approximately ninety per cent of the lower-class boys and girls were Negro, and (2) "reactive effects" to the experimental procedures may have resulted when the children were interviewed individually. Nevertheless, the fact that grade school girls may show a greater preference for professional occupations than grade school boys makes the findings of Clark highly interesting to the current experimenter. This is vital data for a study of the stereotyping in Walt Disney films and screenplays of the female in business and the professions as subordinate.

Diamond study (1965). The purpose of Diamond's research was to determine the relationship between occupational level and the subject's interests, identified as either masculine or feminine. Three hundred randomly selected subjects from the University of Chicago were employed. The instruments used for the investigation were the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey

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<sup>390</sup>Buros, Tests in Print, p. 1827.

(OIS) and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank Masculinity-Femininity scale (SVIBM-F). Four experimental conditions were investigated: (1) male, (2) female, (3) high occupational level, and (4) low occupational level. The results indicated that for both high occupational groups, differences between the sexes were not significant. For both groups of low occupational level, significant sex differences were found. Females of this group showed a greater preference for professional occupations. This corroborated Clark's finding. The findings also indicated a significant degree of relationship between the high occupational level and the female scale.<sup>391</sup>

The single limiting factor of Diamond's work was his use of the SVIBM-F scale. The limitations of the SVIBM-F scale have been indicated. Notwithstanding this, the positive factors outweigh the limitation. To begin, in the Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook, the OIS is reported to have quite satisfactory concurrent validity results. Furthermore, its test-retest reliability correlation was stated to be .85.<sup>392</sup> In addition, random selection should make the results generalizable to nearly all college students. Finally, testing of the subjects in the regular university testing program may have reduced the "Hawthorne Effect." Consequently, the findings that a high occupational level is related to feminine traits,

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<sup>391</sup> Esther E. Diamond, Occupational Level Versus Sex Group as a System of Classification, Proceedings of the Seventy-sixth Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, 1968, pp. 199-200.

<sup>392</sup> Burros, Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook, p. 1063.

and lower-class females show a greater preference for professional occupations than do males, are apropos to the experimental work at hand. This is important information for research into the stereotyping of the female in business and the professions as subordinate by Walt Disney films and screenplays.

Megargee study. The purpose of this study was to explore the influence of sex roles on the manifestation of leadership. A 113-item test labelled the Gough Inventory (GI) was administered to approximately 600 students in introductory psychology classes at the University of Texas. From this pool of subjects, four groups were formed with twenty pairs of subjects in each. Group one consisted of High-Do men paired with Low-Do men, Group two of High-Do men paired with Low-Do women, Group three of High-Do women and Low-Do men, and Group four of High-Do women with Low-Do women. The subjects in each group were at least twenty score points apart on the Do scale of the GI. A box was placed in an upright position so that it resembled a large telephone booth. Midway up the side opposite the entrance, one hundred three-eighths inch holes were drilled. Each hole was filled with a slot-headed bolt one inch long and one-fourth inch in diameter. Because of the narrowness of the bolt, the only way the nut on the outside could be unscrewed efficiently was for one partner to enter the box and hold the bolt in place with a screw driver. After the pairs of subjects had been formed, the individuals were contacted by telephone and a time arranged when both could come to the laboratory. At the

appointed time, each pair was led to the room in which the apparatus was set up. The following instructions were then read: "This is a study of the relation between the Gough Inventory and leadership under stress. This box represents a machine and you are a team of troubleshooters who are to repair it in the fastest possible time. The repair that must be made is to remove all the yellow nuts, leaving the red, green and unpainted ones in place. One person, who is the leader, is to stay outside in front of the machine, and the other, who is the follower, must go inside. The leader must locate the yellow nuts, call out their location to the follower, and remove them using this wrench. The follower must obey the leader's commands and, using this screwdriver, hold the bolts in place while the leader removes the nuts. It is up to you to decide who will be the leader and who will be the follower. Any questions? OK. I shall start timing you now." It was discovered that in Groups one and four, in which both partners were of the same sex, seventy-five per cent of the High-Do men and seventy per cent of the High-Do women took the leadership role. In Group two, High-Do men were paired with Low-Do women. Ninety per cent of the High-Do men assumed the leader role. In Group three in which High-Do women were paired with Low-Do men, dominance conflicted with sex role. As expected, this inhibited the assumption of leadership by the High-Do women. Only twenty per cent assumed the leader role over the Low-Do men. These differences between the four groups were all significant.<sup>393</sup>

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<sup>393</sup> Edwin J. Megargee, "Influence of Sex Roles on the Manifestation of Leadership," Journal of Applied Psychology, LIII (October, 1969), pp. 377-382.

While Megargee designed a highly interesting study, the limitations should be reported. First, employment of the elaborate procedures and apparatus may have induced the "Hawthorne Effect." Second, Megargee did not establish the reliability and validity of the GI. Third, a control group of pairs unselected as to GI scores would have enhanced the study. And last, the use of a mechanical task may have carried a male stereotype and not have been a true measure of leadership role. Despite the problems in design noted, a study that indicated the inhibition of leadership by dominant females when paired with submissive men should not be ignored. That social role expectations may inhibit the leadership talent of women is pertinent to a study of the stereotyping of the female in Walt Disney productions as subordinate to men in business and the professions.

Diamond study (1970). The earlier Diamond study was concerned mainly with intragroup differences in the relationship between occupational level and masculine and feminine interests. This replication compares social class differences. The inventory responses of the 300 subjects from the earlier study were employed as the data for this investigation. It was found that male and female scores on the scales for the two High Occupational Level groups were not significant. All other differences were significant.<sup>394</sup>

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<sup>394</sup> Esther Diamond, Relationship Between Occupational Level and Masculine and Feminine Interests, Proceedings of the Seventy-eighth Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, 1970, pp. 177-178.

Diamond's utilization of the cross-class comparisons was an improvement on the original design. The Diamond research design has been criticized above. Her finding that sex differences with regard to interests in occupational level were minimized at the high end of the occupational continuum but sharply differentiated at the low end is apropos to the current experiment. Thus, to attain a supervisory position, a female must not differ significantly in occupational interests from a male, whereas being subordinate means to have dissimilar occupational interests. These are data relevant to a study of the stereotyping of the female in Walt Disney films and screenplays as subordinate to men in business and the professions.

Clack study. Occupational prestige and vocational choice were investigated by Clack. Eight hundred seven high school seniors and sophomores from inter-city, suburban and rural schools in Indiana ranked twenty occupations on the basis of prestige. They also picked and ranked their five most preferred occupations. It was found that males and females exhibited no significant differences in their prestige rankings of occupations. Clack concluded that although females aspire to high prestige professional occupations, society dictates that these occupations are not open to females on an equal basis with the males.<sup>395</sup>

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<sup>395</sup> Ronald J. Clack, Occupational Prestige and Vocational Choice, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Purdue University, 1970), pp. 1-124.

A critique of the Clack design reveals several positive aspects. First, Clack's sample is general enough to afford wide application of his findings. Then too, by building the dependent measure into the regular classroom examination schedule and by utilizing regular staff as test administrators, Clack reduced possible "Hawthorne Effects." One shortcoming of the work was that the list of twenty occupations was not checked for reliability and validity. Nevertheless, this exploration is germane to the present investigation. That females do not differ from males in their aspiration to high professional rank is of essence to a study of the stereotyping of females by Walt Disney films and screenplays as subordinate in business and the professions.

Rose study. This investigation of the relation of sex and occupational choice to personality characteristics was performed by Rose. The Omnibus Personality Inventory (OPI) was administered to 275 males and 236 females from various majors at the University of Kentucky. Significant differences were found by sex and occupational category. A significant interaction effect was found for sex and occupational category.<sup>396</sup>

The strength of the Rose study is in the use of the standardized measure. To begin with, the Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook reported that the reliability coefficients of the various OPI scales range from .71 to .93. Further, it was

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<sup>396</sup> Harriett A. Rose, "Sex and Occupational Choice," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XVIII (September, 1971), pp. 446-56.

concluded that, "Inasmuch as these calculations are based upon responses by more than 2,000 subjects these reliability estimates must be viewed as extremely stable."<sup>397</sup> Additionally, in regard to concurrent validity the comment is made that, "The emergent correlation pattern is generally what would be predicted on the basis of the scales description, thus offering positive validity evidence."<sup>398</sup> Therefore, when Rose concluded: (1) "men and women tend to choose different occupations, and (2) that choice is directed by sex stereotypes,"<sup>399</sup> we may have confidence that her statements are based upon adequate data gathering measures and procedures.

Cooker study. This research centered around the vocational values of elementary school children. Cooker attempted to learn more about the nature of these values and their relation to grade level and sex. Three consecutive grades--four, five and six--were chosen to study. The school district comprising Charlotte County, Florida, furnished the subjects. A total of forty boys and forty girls were randomly assigned to the study sample from each grade level, resulting in a total of 240 subjects. The instrument used to measure values was the Short Form Vocational Values Inventory. As a result of the

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<sup>397</sup> Buros, Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook, p. 333.

<sup>398</sup> Ibid.

<sup>399</sup> Rose, op. cit., p. 460.



study, significant differences were found to exist between the sexes. Boys appeared to place more value on control and money, whereas girls seemed to value altruism more than boys. Significant differences were also found among children in grades four, five and six. The value of altruism was seen to be of lesser importance as grade level increased from four through six.<sup>400</sup>

Three strengths appear when the Cooker study is subjected to criticism: (1) the random selection increased the generalizability of results to an increased elementary population, (2) use of the regular school personnel and testing schedule reduced the "guinea pig" effect, and (3) a dependant measure with established validity and reliability was utilized. Hence, the finding that males value control of others in a vocation more than females, may be viewed with a high level of confidence. This is interesting data related to the study of the stereotyping of females in Disney films and screenplays as subordinate to males in business and the professions.

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<sup>400</sup> Philip Cooker, Vocational Values of Elementary School Children as They Relate to Sex and Grade Level in School, (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Florida State University, 1971), pp. 185.

Summary of the female in business and the professions as supervisor or subordinate. This section of the report has reviewed research dealing with the female as supervisor or subordinate. The investigations were summarized in three categories. To begin, studies concerned with the characteristics required for leadership positions were reviewed. Next, the investigations pertinent to the females' interest in leadership were summarized. Last, studies that compared the reactions of the sexes to leadership opportunity were abstracted.

In the first place, the studies reviewed pointed to the theory that feminine characteristics were not alien to the supervisory role. For instance, Porter<sup>401</sup> found that femininity of interest was positively correlated with executive success. Diamond<sup>402</sup> corroborated this by reporting that high occupational positions correlated with feminine behavior. Thus, it appears that females as far as their behavioral traits are concerned are suited to executive success.

It is when one moves to the research pertaining to the females' occupational interests that the reasons for this mismatch between their characteristics and actual occupational status begins to become apparent. Research demonstrated that young females were interested in executive careers. Clark<sup>403</sup> for example, reported that girls chose professional occupations more often than males. It is when the female entered the secondary school where she actually had to begin planning her career that her interest in supervisory positions began to be modified.

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<sup>401</sup>Ibid., p. 228.

<sup>402</sup>Ibid., p. 177.

<sup>403</sup>Ibid., p. 440.

Krippner's work<sup>404</sup> aptly illustrates this point when related to Clack's study<sup>405</sup>. Clack reported that males and females did not differ in their aspiration to high level professions. How these adolescent females face the reality of their sex role is seen when one considers Krippner's finding<sup>406</sup> in the light of the females' aspirations. He reported that fewer girls than boys selected college degree courses designed to lead to the professions. Instead, girls chose courses terminating in the semi-professional fields, especially teaching and nursing. This propensity to select occupations which were ill-suited to the females' traits and interests, persisted into the college experience of the females. For example, Diamond's female college subjects showed a greater preference for professional occupations<sup>407</sup>, but the work of Rose<sup>408</sup> and Mason<sup>409</sup> pointed to the reality of what courses they actually pursue. Mason<sup>410</sup> found that the sex role expectations were dominant over the actual occupational choices. In a similar manner, Rose<sup>411</sup> discovered that the females' choice of occupation was directed by the society's sex role stereotypes and not their personal desires.

Finally, Magargee's study<sup>412</sup> was illustrative of what occurred when a female ignored the occupational sex-role stereotypes and attained a high level supervisory position. He found

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<sup>404</sup> Ibid., p. 105.

<sup>405</sup> Ibid., p. 124.

<sup>406</sup> Ibid., p. 105.

<sup>407</sup> Ibid., p. 200.

<sup>408</sup> Ibid., p. 460.

<sup>409</sup> Ibid., p. 371.

<sup>410</sup> Ibid., p. 371.

<sup>411</sup> Ibid., p. 460.

<sup>412</sup> Ibid., p. 377.

that when a female executive with high leadership ability was placed in a dominance conflict situation with a low leadership potential male, the female inhibited the assumption of the leadership role and allowed the inept male to assume the role of supervisor.

Thus, the studies in this section have lead to some interesting findings. Females have characteristics which correlate highly with skills required for high level executive positions. From an early age they show a greater interest in this position than most males. But when they begin preparing for their careers, they select careers which will place them in subordinate positions. If they do not, and attain a role of executive leadership, they still will subordinate themselves to male executives in dominance-conflict situations. The best explanation of this behavior is that society has fashioned a sex role stereotype in which women are expected to work in subordinate positions.

This section's research is pertinent to a study of the occupational role ascribed to females in Walt Disney screenplays and films. The role of the female was examined in Disney materials to ascertain if the Disney Productions perpetuates the image of the female as subordinate in business and the professions. Chapter Five of the current investigation addresses itself to that question.

## CHAPTER III

### DESCRIPTION OF THE DESIGN AND PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

In order to collect the data necessary to test the eight hypotheses concerning the Walt Disney screenplays and films, the research procedures were conducted as described in this chapter.

#### I. INTRODUCTION

The investigation was completed in three steps. First, a content analysis was made of five Walt Disney screenplays. This was followed by showing elementary children two Disney films and administering a questionnaire to these subjects. Finally, one film was shown to college students and they also completed the questionnaire. These procedures enabled the researcher to study the following null hypotheses:

1. There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are portrayed as disciplinarians of the children.
2. There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are pictured as passive or aggressive.
3. There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are shown as dependent or independent.

4. There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are depicted as artistic.
5. There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are portrayed in performing mechanical repairs.
6. There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are shown as being excessively talkative.
7. There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are pictured as sex symbols.
8. There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are depicted in business and the professions in supervisory and subordinate roles.

In addition to delineating the procedures used to collect the data necessary to test the foregoing hypotheses, this chapter also describes the steps considered essential to insure both internal and external validity of the current study. They are outlined below in sufficient detail to allow other researchers to replicate the study or any part thereof if they consider that the conclusions reached warrant such study.

## II. THE PROCEDURES

### The Sample

The sources of data for making this study were (1) the five full-length, live-action, feature screenplays selected by the Walt Disney Productions (see page 17) and (2) questionnaires

devised by the present investigator and administered to the following populations:

- a. Two hundred fifty-four students in grades two through six. The grade level selection in this investigation was made because Mr. William Dover of the Walt Disney Productions had stated that "a very broad and large segment of our audience is composed of youngsters from six to thirteen."<sup>413</sup> The children attended two schools in Rancho Cordova, California. Rancho Cordova is a suburb of Sacramento. It is located fifteen miles east of Sacramento on Highway 50. Of the 254 students who participated in the study, 138 were males and 116 were females. The sample's ethnic ratio was seventeen per cent minority groups. Fourteen per cent of the subjects' parents had average jobs, twenty-nine per cent better than average, and fifty-seven per cent below average jobs when occupations were classified utilizing Warner's Revised Scale for Rating Occupations.<sup>414</sup> Thirty-two per cent of the subjects had intelligence test "IQ's" below 100, fifty-eight per cent had scores between 100 and 125 and ten per cent had scores above 125 as recorded in cumulative records at the schools. Both schools, Rancho Cordova Elementary and Cordova Villa Elementary are located in the Folsom-Cordova Unified School District.
- b. Thirty-two undergraduate students (fourteen males and eighteen females) enrolled in the Schools and Society course at the University of the Pacific. The University of the Pacific is located at Stockton, California. The sample's ethnic ratio was twenty-two per cent minority groups. Eight per cent of the subjects' parents had average jobs, sixty-nine per cent better than average, and twenty-three per cent below average jobs when occupations were classified utilizing Warner's Revised Scale for Rating Occupations.<sup>415</sup> Subjects' mean scores on the Scholastic Aptitude Test were 505.05 on the verbal section and 535.07 on the quantitative

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<sup>413</sup>Letter from William Dover to the investigator, January 3, 1972. Appendix C.

<sup>414</sup>W. Lloyd Warner, Social Class in America (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1960), p. 140.

<sup>415</sup>Ibid.

measure. These data were obtained from the registrar's office at the university.

### Content Analysis of the Five Screenplays

To test the foregoing hypotheses, the researcher designed a form on which to record the frequency representation of the attitudinal postures and occupational roles of the females as portrayed in the five screenplays. This form may be found in Appendix D. The investigator placed a definition or set of definitions before each category on the form. The definitions guided the researcher in rating the attitudinal postures and occupational roles of the characters appearing in the screenplays.

The investigator examined each screenplay in order to collect appropriate data, and record them in the proper spaces on the form. This method of content analysis required using a separate copy of the recording form for each of the five screenplays examined. Each time a category of the form was identified in the text of the screenplay, it was recorded on the form. If the category was not mentioned or not judged present by the researcher, no mark was made. When he had finished reading the screenplay, the investigator totaled the number of tallies for each criterion category present and then computed the percentage representation and performed a chi-square statistical test. The chi-square test indicated whether or not the Disney screenplays contained statistically significant differences in the treatment of males and females in relation to the criterion categories under study. The 0.05 significance level was employed in determining whether to accept or reject the null hypotheses.



### Determination of the Instrument Reliability

The reliability of the instrument was assessed by asking three doctoral students from the School of Education at the University of the Pacific to review a screenplay. The screenplay was selected by drawing its title from a box containing five slips of paper, each slip having one of the five screenplay titles typed upon it. The screenplay selected for the reliability check in this fashion was "Pollyanna."

Prior to the actual reliability determination, the researcher and the judges employed the screenplay, "We Belong Together," to train themselves in the use of the instrument. Out of this trial run it was decided by the reviewers to: (1) tally a character's attitudinal posture only once in any one interaction with other characters, and (2) tally a character's occupational role just once in the script analysis.

Following this training session, the judges and the investigator used the instrument to analyze the first fifty pages of "Pollyanna." All four of these reviewers worked independently. To use the instrument a reviewer would spread the three pages of the instrument before him as he read the screenplay. If a screenplay character's attitudinal posture or occupational role could be tallied on one of the eight tables of the instrument, the reviewer made a mark in the appropriate cell. The variable of the character's sex was also considered before placing the tally mark. The original instruments used by the reviewers are in Appendix E. The cells in the instrument tables

were designed to correspond to those in a cross-break table employed in the chi-square statistic. After each reviewer had completed his analysis of the fifty pages of the "Pollyanna" script, the following technique was utilized to determine the instrument reliability. The cells for each table in the instrument were numbered in the following manner:

Sex	Mechanical	Not Mechanical
Male	1	2
Female	3	4

All corresponding cells for all eight tables on the instrument were summed for each reviewer. Four separate chi-square statistical tests were then performed to compare the reviewers' use of the instrument. For example, all number one cells of the four reviewers were compared using the chi-square statistic to determine significant differences between the reviewers' judgments of character attitudinal posture or occupational role. In a similar fashion, cells two, three and four were submitted to statistical analysis. Table three is a summation of these chi-square comparisons. The basic chi-square formula was utilized.<sup>416,417</sup> As can be seen by an inspection of this table, all of the chi-square values were well below the value of 3.8, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. Therefore, because the results of the

$$\chi^2 = \frac{N(AD-BC)^2}{(A+B)(C+D)(A+C)(B+D)} \quad \text{two variable case}$$

<sup>416</sup> James L. Bruning and B. L. Kintz, Computational Handbook of Statistics (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1968), p. 207.

<sup>417</sup> Haber, op. cit., p. 242.  $\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$  one variable case

raters' use of the instrument did not differ significantly, the instrument's reliability was established.

Table 3. Summed Cell Values and Chi-square Values for All Judges in the Reliability Determination of the Content Analysis Instrument

		JUDGE				$\chi^2$
		1	2	3	4	
CELL	1	15	15	15	14	0.02
	2	18	17	17	16	0.00
	3	30	30	33	34	0.01
	4	29	33	30	27	0.43

\* Significant at 0.05 level

#### Determination of the Content Validity of the Definitions

Content validity of the set of definitions used to mark each category was obtained by asking three professors of sociology to judge the set of definitions against the set of hypotheses to determine adequate coverage of the hypotheses' content. They also judged the adequacy of the hypotheses to cover the area of stereotyping of the female. Any definition and/or hypothesis which did not achieve one-hundred per cent approval of the judges was modified. This procedure was repeated until each definition and hypothesis was approved by all judges. The forms employed by the judges are in Appendix<sup>B</sup>.

### Statistical Treatment of the Content Analysis Raw Data

The raw data were treated as they related to these areas of study: (1) Was the criterion category present? (2) What was the judged frequency? (3) What was the percentage of criterion representation relative to the other criterion categories? and (4) Were there statistically significant differences present between males and females within each criterion category?

In order to compute the judged frequency of individual categories, single screenplays, and combined frequency counts of all the screenplays, the researcher treated the data in the following manner:

1. Frequency counts of individual categories were tallied as recorded. This sum was the number of times a particular category had been assessed present in each of the selected screenplays.
2. The frequency counts for each category were then summed over all screenplays to determine the total number of times particular criterion categories had been found in the complete list of the screenplays analyzed in this study.

To determine the percentage representation of each category, the investigator computed the number of times a particular criterion category was judged present, and then determined a proportion based on a comparison with data collected relative to the other categories. After this step, the proportion was then converted to a percentage.

To determine the statistical significant differences between males and females in criterion representation, the

basic chi-square formula was utilized. Yate's formula for correction was employed when cell size was less than five.<sup>418</sup>

Film study with the elementary subjects. The investigator felt it was not only essential to this research to determine if stereotyping of the role of the female was present in Disney screenplays but that it would also be a significant contribution to educational research to ask whether or not children perceive the stereotyping found in the screenplays when they viewed the films. This was a cross-validation study. In order to answer this question, the experimenter showed two films to the subjects and administered questionnaires based on the hypotheses of the study.

Questionnaire construction. When drafting the schedule of questions the investigator consulted Kerlinger's criteria:<sup>419</sup>

1. Is the question related to the research problem and the research objectives?
2. Is the type of question the right and appropriate one?
3. Is the item clear and unambiguous?
4. Is the question a leading question?
5. Does the question demand knowledge and information that the respondent does not have?

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<sup>418</sup>Haber, op. cit., p. 246.

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{r=1}^2 \sum_{c=1}^2 \frac{(\text{frequency observed} - \text{frequency expected})^2}{\text{frequency expected}}$$

<sup>419</sup>Kerlinger, op. cit., p. 473.

6. Does the question demand personal or delicate material that the respondent may resist?
7. Is the question loaded with social desirability?

The researcher selected the closed-form or structured questionnaire. This form was suitable to the nature of the problem, which was to determine if subjects perceived the attitudinal and occupational postures of the characters in the films. The questionnaires consisted of a list of sixteen concrete questions and a choice of "males" or "females" for answers. The advantages and disadvantages of the closed-form questionnaires have been discussed by Van Dalen:

Closed-form questionnaires are easy to administer and fill out, help keep the respondent's mind riveted on the subject, and facilitate the process of tabulation and analysis. But they often fail to reveal the respondent's motives, do not always yield information of sufficient scope or depth, and may not discriminate between fine shades of meaning. If proper precautions are taken in constructing the questionnaire, these weaknesses can be somewhat overcome.<sup>420</sup>

Because the author did not require knowledge of the respondent's motives or great depth of information for his purpose, the weaknesses of the closed-form questionnaire were not significant to this research.

In the ordering of the questions, Van Dalen's criteria were employed:

Are items placed in a psychologically or logically sound sequence---simple, interesting, neutral questions preceding more difficult, crucial, or personal ones

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<sup>420</sup> Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 302.

and those that establish a frame of reference or provide keys to recall before those asking for details? Is a smooth transition made from one group of questions to the next? <sup>421</sup>

The investigator drafted a set of questions for each hypothesis under study. Thus, the questionnaire was made up of eight sets of questions. The questionnaire may be found in Appendix F.

Determination of the content validity of the questionnaire. Content validity of the set of questions was obtained by asking three professors of sociology to judge the set of questions against the set of hypotheses to determine adequate coverage of the hypotheses' content. Any question that did not achieve one-hundred per cent approval of the judges was modified. This procedure was repeated until each question was approved by all judges. This method has been utilized by Van Dalen in his research.<sup>422</sup> The form used by the judges may be found in Appendix G.

Pilot testing the questionnaire. The questionnaire was pilot tested with a group of twenty students in grades two to six at the Theodore Judah Elementary School. This school is located in the Folsom-Cordova Unified School District. This group was not used in the experiment. The purpose of the pilot

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<sup>421</sup>Ibid., p. 305.

<sup>422</sup>Ibid., p. 313.

test was to eliminate procedural errors and to establish the reliability of the questionnaire. "Bon Voyage," one of the two films used in the study, was shown to the pilot subjects. It was selected at random by drawing its title from a box. Following the showing, the children completed the questionnaire under the same conditions proposed for the experiment.

Questionnaire item selection. The questionnaire, as administered to the pilot subjects, was composed of four questions for each of the eight hypotheses--a total of thirty-two questions. In order to shorten the test, the two questions for each hypothesis that most pilot subjects marked in the same manner were selected for inclusion in the questionnaire. Thus, the final form of the questionnaire had sixteen items.

Determination of the reliability of the questionnaire. The reliability of the questionnaire was measured by the split-half method. "When the split-half method is used, the test is given only once, but items in it are divided randomly into halves, and the scores tabulated for each half are correlated."<sup>423</sup> Computer program THE101 at the Laboratory of Educational Research, University of the Pacific, was employed to perform the correlation. Fergusen's formula for the correction of the split-half procedure was used.<sup>424</sup> The correlation was found to be 0.81.

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<sup>423</sup> Ibid., p. 316.

<sup>424</sup> George Fergusen, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1970), p. 367.

$$r_{xx} = \frac{2r}{1+r}$$



Administration of the experimental film treatment.

After the procedural and reliability corrections indicated had been completed, the two films "Bon Voyage" and "Pollyanna" were shown to the subjects and the questionnaires were administered. The investigator rented the films from the McCurray Camera Company of Sacramento for each showing. Five classroom teachers from each school volunteered to have their classes participate in the experiment. One second, third, fourth, fifth, and sixth grade classroom of subjects from each school took part in the study.

The weeks beginning May 15 and 22, 1972, were set aside for the experiment. The investigator visited the schools on alternate days. "Bon Voyage" was shown the week of May 15, 1972. "Pollyanna" was shown the week of May 22, 1972.

When the investigator arrived at the school on the scheduled testing days, each of the five cooperating teachers sent five children to the multipurpose room. Thus, groups of multi-grade subjects were tested on the same day. No child was sent twice. On the final testing day at each school, the teachers sent any child who had not yet participated in the study. Because some classes were smaller than twenty-five in number, the total sample N was 234 instead of 250.

At about 9:00 a.m. the researcher assembled the twenty-five subjects in the room. They were told that they would see a Walt Disney film and then answer a short questionnaire. They were told that this had nothing to do with their school work or

grades. The experimenter told the subjects that he was interested in obtaining their feelings about some things in the Disney films and that was what the questionnaire was about. The film was shown and the questionnaire administered. The questionnaire was read orally by the investigator, as the subjects read the questionnaire silently and responded in writing to each question before the researcher proceeded to the next. This technique was recommended by Van Dalen:

Fewer partial responses and refusals to reply are obtained when the researcher personally presents the questionnaire, for he can explain purpose and significance of the study, clarify points, answer questions, and motivate respondents to answer questions carefully and truthfully.<sup>425</sup>

#### Statistical Treatment of the Questionnaire Raw Data

The raw data were treated as they related to these areas of the study: (1) What was the frequency and percentage of responses to each set of questions for individual films and for both films? and (2) Were there statistically significant differences present between male and female subjects on the sets of questions on individual films and on both films?

In order to compute the judged frequency of individual questions, and sets of questions of single films and combined frequency counts of both of the films, the researcher treated the data in the following manner:

1. Frequency counts of individual questions and sets of questions were tallied as recorded for each film.

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<sup>425</sup>Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 302.

2. The frequency counts for each question and set of questions were then summed over both the films.

To determine the percentage representation of each question and set of questions, the investigator computed the number of times a particular criterion category was selected, and then determined a proportion based on a comparison with data collected. After this step, the proportion was then converted to a percentage.

To determine the statistical significant differences between males and females in question representation, the basic chi-square formula was utilized.

#### Film Study with the Adult Subjects

The final aim of this study was to ascertain if adult subjects discerned the stereotyping found in the screenplays when they viewed the films based on the screenplays. This phase of the research varied only slightly from phase two above, "Film study with elementary subjects." Both studies used the same questionnaire and employed the same analytical statistics. They varied only in subjects and procedure in administering the questionnaire.

The researcher attended two sessions of the School and Society course at the University of the Pacific. The instructor introduced the investigator as a graduate student studying Disney films. The students were told that they would view "Bon Voyage" and answer a short questionnaire about the film. No additional data were supplied to these subjects. One class was

held at 1:00 p.m., on May 16, 1972. The other was conducted at 7:00 p.m., May 18, 1972. The university students read the questionnaire for themselves and worked at their own paces.

### III. SUMMARY

This third chapter has outlined the procedures devised to collect the data necessary to test the hypotheses. It has presented the steps considered essential to insure both internal and external validity. Two additional chapters complete the remainder of the study. They are as follows: (1) Chapter IV: Presentation of the Collected Data as Revealed by the Investigation, and (2) Chapter V: Summary of the Investigation and Recommendations of Further Study.

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION OF THE COLLECTED DATA AS REVEALED BY THE INVESTIGATION

#### I. INTRODUCTION

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In order to make an analysis of the data, the investigator treated the findings as described in Chapter III. From the computations necessary to test the hypotheses a number of contingency tables have been prepared; these tables have been analyzed and explained in the following pages. They are presented in this chapter in the same order in which the null hypotheses have been listed on page        of this report. The data pertinent to each hypothesis are presented together, and are ordered as follows: (1) contingency tables of data dealing with screenplay content analysis, (2) contingency tables concerned with films viewed by the elementary subjects and (3) contingency tables of data related to the film viewed by the college subjects.

#### II. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING WITH THE FEMALE AS A DISCIPLINARIAN OR NOT A DISCIPLINARIAN

##### Null Hypothesis

There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are portrayed as the disciplinarian of the children.

A. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING  
WITH THE CONTENT ANALYSIS  
OF SCREENPLAYS

Analysis of Table 4: Disciplinarian  
Data All Screenplays

Data compiled in Table 4 shows the frequency and percentage breakdowns and calculated chi-square values for the disciplinarian data relevant to the content analysis of all screenplays studied. For three of the scripts, "We Belong Together," "Pollyanna," and "Old Yeller," the female characters were judged to be the disciplinarians of the children 86.67, 71.43 and 72.73 per cent of the time respectively. There was no difference in the frequency in which the males and females were found to be the disciplinarian in the analysis of the screenplay "The Newcomers." Both were judged disciplinarian 50.00 per cent of the time. On the other hand, the content analysis of the script of "Bon Voyage" the males were judged to be the disciplinarian 87.50 per cent of the time. In spite of this in the overall summation of all the screenplays, the female characters were judged to be the disciplinarian 64.52 per cent of the time while the males were found to be the disciplinarian 35.48 per cent of the time. In the cases of "We Belong Together" and "Pollyanna" the chi-square values of 6.66 and 3.86 respectively, were significant at the 0.05 level, thus the null hypothesis was rejected the these scripts. The chi-square values for the other three screenplays did not reach significance and the null hypotheses was accepted in these instances. For the combined screen-

Table 4. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Disciplinary Data Pertaining to the Content Analysis of the Screenplays

Screenplay	Sex	Disciplinarian
"We Belong Together"	Male	f=2, %=13.33
	Female	f=13, %=86.67
	$\chi^2=6.66^*$ (Y)	
"Pollyanna"	Male	f=6, %=28.57
	Female	f=15, %=71.43
	$\chi^2=3.86^*$	
"The Newcomers"	Male	f=6, %=50.00
	Female	f=6, %=50.00
	$\chi^2=0.00$	
"Old Yeller"	Male	f=3, %=27.27
	Female	f=8, %=72.73
	$\chi^2=1.24$ (Y)	
"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=7, %=87.50
	Female	f=1, %=12.50
	$\chi^2=3.12$ (Y)	
All Screenplays	Male	f=24, %=35.29
	Female	f=43, %=63.24
	$\chi^2=5.38^*$	
*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.		
(Y) Yates correction for continuity applied.		

plays, the chi-square value of 5.38 exceeded 3.84, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level. Hence, in this case, the null hypothesis was rejected.

B. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE ELEMENTARY SUBJECTS  
WHO VIEWED THE TWO FILMS

Analysis of Table 5: Disciplinary  
Data for All Films Shown.

Table 5 presents the frequency and percentage breakdowns and calculated  $\chi^2$  values of the disciplinarian data collected with the questionnaire administered to the elementary subjects.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary males. The female characters were judged to be the disciplinarians of the children by the male subjects 122 times or 41.22 per cent of the time.

Male characters were selected as not a disciplinarian 122 times or 41.22 per cent of the time. They were judged to be the disciplinarians 26 times or 8.79 per cent of the time. The females were judged as not a disciplinarian 26 times or 8.79 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 124.32 was larger than 3.8, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary females. The fifty-nine female subjects who viewed this film judged the female characters in it as the disciplinarian 108 times or 45.77 per cent of the time. They reported the males as the disciplinarians only ten times or 4.24 per cent of the time. They saw the females as not a disciplinarian ten times or 4.24 per cent of the time. In comparison, they judged the males as not a disciplinarian 108 times or 45.77 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 162.84 was significant at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by all elementary subjects. The elementary subjects selected the female characters in "Pollyanna"



as the disciplinarian 230 times or 43.64 per cent of the time. They cited the males as the disciplinarians 36 times or 6.77 per cent of the time. Females were seen as not a disciplinarian 36 times or 6.77 per cent of the time, while this posture was attributed to the males 230 or 43.64 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected because the  $\chi^2$  value of 281.96 exceeded 3.8, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary males. Thirty-three times or 12.89 per cent of the times the male sample judged the female characters in this film as the disciplinarian. On the other hand, they selected the males as the disciplinarians ninety-five times or 37.11 per cent of the time. The subjects chose the females as not a disciplinarian ninety-five times or 37.11 per cent of the time, while they saw the males as not a disciplinarian on thirty-three occasions or on 12.89 per cent of the time. Due to the fact that the  $\chi^2$  value of 58.88 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by the elementary females. The female characters were judged to be the disciplinarians of the children by the female subjects forty-one times or 18.00 per cent of the time. They selected male characters in the film as the disciplinarian on seventy-three occasions or 32.00 per cent of the time. Male characters were cited as not a disciplinarian

forty-one times or 18.00 per cent of the time. In comparison to this, females were judged as not a disciplinarian seventy-three times or 32.00 per cent of the time. Once again the frequency count established the male as the disciplinarian thus providing a  $\chi^2$  of 18.24. This was large enough to be significant at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all elementary subjects. The 121 elementary subjects who viewed this film chose the female characters in it as the disciplinarian sixty-six times or 13.64 per cent of the time. They judged the males as the disciplinarians on 176 instances or 36.37 per cent of the time. They reported the females as not a disciplinarian on 176 occasions or 36.37 per cent of the time. At the same time they judged the males as not a disciplinarian sixty-six times or 13.64 per cent of the time. A  $\chi^2$  value of 96.80, significant at the 0.05 level, led to the rejection of the null hypothesis.

Both films as seen by the elementary males. The males in the sample group cited the female characters in both films as the disciplinarian 155 times or 28.08 per cent of the time. They reported that the males were the disciplinarians 121 times or 21.92 per cent of the time. Females were seen as not a disciplinarian 121 times or 21.92 per cent of the time, while this posture was reported for the males on 155 occasions or 28.08 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected because the  $\chi^2$  value of 5.52 was larger than 3.8, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level.

Both films as seen by the elementary females. As table 5 indicates, the female characters in both films were selected as the disciplinarian by the female subjects on 149 instances or 32.11 per cent of the time. At the same time, the males were judged as the disciplinarians eighty-three times or 17.89 per cent of the time. The female subjects chose the females as not a disciplinarian eighty-three times or 17.89 per cent of the time. They saw the males as not a disciplinarian in 149 instances or 32.11 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 37.12 was larger than 3.8, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by all elementary subjects. The 254 elementary subjects who viewed both films cited the female characters as the disciplinarian 296 times or 29.14 per cent of the time. In addition, they judged the males as the disciplinarians on 212 occasions or 20.87 per cent of the time. In their estimation the females were not a disciplinarian 212 times or 20.87 per cent of the time. At the same time they found the females to be a disciplinarian 296 times or 29.14 per cent of the time. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected because the  $\chi^2$  value of 30.48 exceeded 3.8, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level.

Table 5. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Disciplinary Data Pertaining to the Questionnaire Administered to the Elementary Subjects Viewing the films "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Disciplinary	Not a Disciplinary
Males N=74	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 26, %= 8.79	f=122, %=41.22
		Female	f=122, %=41.22	f= 26, %= 8.79
		$\chi^2=124.32^*$		
Females N=59	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 10, %= 4.24	f=108, %=45.77
		Female	f=108, %=45.77	f= 10, %= 4.24
		$\chi^2=162.84^*$		
Total Sample N=133	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 36, %= 6.77	f=230, %=43.64
		Female	f=230, %=43.64	f= 36, %= 6.77
		$\chi^2=281.96^*$		
Males N=64	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 95, %=37.11	f= 33, %=12.89
		Female	f= 33, %=12.89	f= 95, %=37.11
		$\chi^2=58.88^*$		
Females N=57	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 73, %=32.00	f= 41, %=18.00
		Female	f= 41, %=18.00	f= 73, %=32.00
		$\chi^2=18.24^*$		
Total Sample N=121	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=176, %=36.37	f= 66, %=13.64
		Female	f= 66, %=13.64	f=176, %=36.37
		$\chi^2=96.80^*$		
Males N=138	Both films	Male	f=121, %=21.92	f=155, %=28.08
		Female	f=155, %=28.08	f=121, %=21.92
		$\chi^2=5.52^*$		
Females N=116	Both films	Male	f= 83, %=17.89	f=149, %=32.11
		Female	f=149, %=32.11	f= 83, %=17.89
		$\chi^2=37.12^*$		
Total Sample N=254	Both films	Male	f=212, %=20.87	f=296, %=29.14
		Female	f=296, %=29.14	f=212, %=20.87
		$\chi^2=30.48^*$		

\*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.

C. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE COLLEGE SUBJECTS WHO  
VIEWED "BON VOYAGE"

Analysis of Table 6: Disciplinary  
Data for "Bon Voyage"

Table 6 shows the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated  $\chi^2$  values for the disciplinary data collected with the questionnaire administered to the college subjects.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college males. The female characters were judged to be the disciplinarians of the children by the male subjects ten times or 17.86 per cent of the time. Male characters were selected as not a disciplinarian ten times or 17.86 per cent of the time. They were judged to be the disciplinarians eighteen times or 32.15 per cent of the time, whereas the females were cited as not a disciplinarian ten times or 17.86 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 5.04 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college females. The female characters were judged to be the disciplinarians of the children by the female subjects ten times or 13.89 per cent of the time. Then too, they selected male characters in the film as the disciplinarian on twenty-six occasions or 36.11 per cent of the time. Male characters were cited as not a disciplinarian ten times or 13.89 per cent of the time. In contrast to this, females were judged as not a disciplinarian twenty-six times

or 36.11 per cent of the time. Once again the frequency count established the male as the disciplinarian, thus providing a  $\chi^2$  of 13.68. This was large enough to be significant at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all college subjects. The thirty-two college subjects who viewed this film chose the female characters in it as the disciplinarian twenty times or 15.63 per cent of the time. They judged the males as the disciplinarians in forty-four instances or 34.38 per cent of the time. They reported the females as not a disciplinarian on forty-four occasions or 34.38 per cent of the time. In addition, they judged the males as not a disciplinarian twenty times or 15.63 per cent of the time. Because the  $\chi^2$  value of 17.92 exceeded 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 6. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Disciplinary Data Related to the Questionnaire Administered to the College Subjects Viewing the Film "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Disciplinary	Not a Disciplinary
Males N=14	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=18, %=32.15	f=10, %=17.86
		Female	f=10, %=17.86	f=18, %=32.15
		$\chi^2=5.04^*$		
Females N=18	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=26, %=36.11	f=10, %=13.89
		Female	f=10, %=13.89	f=26, %=36.11
		$\chi^2=13.60^*$		
Total College Sample N=32	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=44, %=34.38	f=20, %=15.63
		Female	f=20, %=15.63	f=44, %=34.38
		$\chi^2=17.92^*$		

\*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.

### III. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING WITH THE FEMALE AS PASSIVE OR AGGRESSIVE

#### Null Hypothesis

There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are pictured as passive or aggressive.

#### A. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING WITH THE CONTENT ANALYSIS OF SCREENPLAYS

#### Analysis of Table 7: Passive- Aggressive Data for all Screenplays

Table 7 presents the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated chi-square values for the passive-aggressive data pertinent to the content analysis of all screenplays studied.

"We Belong Together." Here, the characters were not judged by the experimenter to be passive on any occasion. He further noted that male characters were aggressive four times or 21.05 per cent of the time. In addition, he pointed to the fact that the female characters in the script were aggressive fifteen times or 78.95 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 5.26 exceeded 3.84, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna." In this screenplay, the researchist selected the male characters as passive four times or 15.38 per cent of the time. He tallied them as aggressive seven times or 26.92 per cent of the time. On the other hand, he found the females passive five times or 19.23 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 0.065 was not significant at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

"The Newcomers." On two occurrences in "The Newcomers" the investigator accounted the males as passive 6.45 per cent of the cases. He rated the male characters as aggressive on twenty-six occasions, or 83.87 per cent of the time. He found the females passive on two occasions, or 6.45 per cent of the time, and aggressive one time or 3.23 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 7.89 was large enough to reach significance at the .05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.



"Old Yeller." The experimenter appraised the characters in this script as not being passive. He found males aggressive in nine cases or 69.24 per cent of the time. In addition, he assessed the female characters as aggressive four times or 30.76 per cent of the occasions. Because the  $\chi^2$  value of 3.31 was less than 3.84, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.

"Bon Voyage." It was discovered by the investigator that the male characters in this screenplay were passive in three instances. This was 15.00 per cent of all cases. Further, they were noted to be aggressive on eleven occasions or 56.25 per cent of the time. In contrast to this, the female characters were observed to be passive two times or 12.50 per cent of the time, and aggressive four times or in 20.00 per cent of the instances. The null hypothesis was accepted due to the fact that the  $\chi^2$  value of 1.27 was not significant at the .05 level.

All screenplays. When the frequency counts of all of the screenplays were summed, the researcher found that the male characters were judged as passive in thirteen episodes or 11.30 per cent of the time. They were appraised as aggressive fifty-seven times or in 49.57 per cent of the cases. Female characters, on the other hand, were rated as passive on eleven occurrences or on 9.57 per cent of the occasions. They were

ascertained to be aggressive on thirty-four instances or 29.57 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value 0.56 was smaller than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 7. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Passive-Aggressive Data Germane to the Content Analysis of the Five Screenplays

Screenplay	Sex	Passive	Aggressive
"We Belong Together"	Male		f= 4, %=21.05
	Female		f=15, %=78.95
		$\chi^2=5.26$ (Y)	
"Pollyanna"	Male	f=4, %=15.38	f= 7, %=26.92
	Female	f=5, %=19.23	f=10, %=38.46
		$\chi^2=0.65$ (Y)	
"The Newcomers"	Male	f=2, %=6.45	f=26, %=83.87
	Female	f=2, %=6.45	f= 1, %= 3.23
		$\chi^2=7.89^*$ (Y)	
"Old Yeller"	Male		f= 9, %=69.24
	Female		f= 4, %=20.00
		$\chi^2=3.31$ (Y)	
"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=3, %=15.00	f=11, %=55.00
	Female	f=2, %=10.00	f= 4, %=20.00
		$\chi^2=1.27$ (Y)	
All Screenplays	Male	f=13, %=11.30	f=57, %=49.57
	Female	f=11, %= 9.57	f=34, %=29.57
		$\chi^2=0.56$	

\*Chi-square significant at the 0.05 level.

(Y) Yates correction for continuity applied.

B. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE ELEMENTARY SUBJECTS  
WHO VIEWED THE TWO FILMS

Analysis of Table 8: Passive-  
Aggressive Data for all  
Films Shown

Table 8 displays the frequency and percentage breakdowns and calculated  $\chi^2$  values of the passive-aggressive data collected with the questionnaire administered to the elementary subjects.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary males. The male characters were adjudged to be passive by the male subjects ninety-one times or 30.75 per cent of the time. They appraised the males as aggressive on fifty-seven occasions or 19.26 per cent of the time. Female characters were noted to be passive in fifty-seven instances or in 19.26 per cent of the cases. They were determined to be aggressive on ninety-one occasions or 30.75 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 14.80 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary females. For this film the female subjects decided that the male characters were passive in sixty-two instances, which was 26.27 per cent of the time. They assessed them as aggressive fifty-two times or 23.73 per cent of the cases. At the same time they rated the females as passive fifty-two times or 23.73 per cent of the time and aggressive in sixty-two episodes or 26.27 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 0.73 was smaller than 3.80, the value

required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

"Pollyanna" as seen by all elementary subjects. On 149 occasions the subjects accounted the males as passive. This was 28.01 per cent of the instances. They found the male characters as aggressive on 117 times or 21.99 per cent of the time. The females were adjudged as passive on 117 occurrences or 21.99 per cent of the time, while they appraised them as aggressive in 149 episodes or 28.01 per cent of the time. Because the  $\chi^2$  value of 5.32 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary males. The subjects found the male characters in this film as passive sixty-nine times or on 26.96 per cent of the cases recorded. They found them aggressive fifty-nine times or 23.05 per cent of the time. In addition, they accounted the female characters as passive on fifty-nine occurrences or 23.05 per cent of the time. They rated them as aggressive sixty-nine times or 26.06 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 2.56 was less than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary females. It was reported by the female subjects that the male characters in "Bon Voyage" were passive in sixty-one episodes. This was 26.75 per cent of the time. The males were cited as aggressive

on fifty-three occasions or 23.14 per cent of the time. Comparatively, the female characters were observed to be passive fifty-three times or 23.25 per cent of the time, whereas they were adjudged as aggressive in sixty-one instances or on 26.75 per cent of the occurrences. The null hypothesis was accepted due to the fact that the  $\chi^2$  value 1.12 was not significant at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all subjects. When the frequency counts of all of the subjects were summed it was found that the male characters were judged as passive in 120 episodes or 25.86 per cent of the time. They were appraised as aggressive 112 times or in 24.14 per cent of the cases. Female characters, on the contrary, were observed to be passive on 112 times or on 24.14 per cent of the occasions. They were ascertained to be aggressive on 120 instances or 25.86 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was accepted because the  $\chi^2$  value of 0.42 was smaller than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level.

Both films as seen by elementary males. These subjects recorded 160 instances in which the male characters were passive. This was 28.99 per cent of the cases. They enumerated 116 cases of male character aggression. This was 21.01 per cent of the instances. In contrast to this, the females were judged to be passive on 116 occurrences or 21.01 per cent of the time. Aggressiveness was attributed to them on 160 occasions or 28.99

per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  of 16.56 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by elementary females. Female subjects found the male characters in both films passive 123 times or 26.51 per cent of the time, while they observed them as aggressive 109 times or on 23.49 per cent of the occasions. Passive behavior in female characters was noted 109 times or in 23.49 per cent of the episodes. In 123 instances the females were seen as aggressive. This amounted to 26.51 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 4.64 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by all elementary subjects. An analysis of this data showed that the male characters were rated as passive 269 times or on 27.01 per cent of the occasions. They were accounted as aggressive in 229 episodes or on 23.49 per cent of the occurrences. The data for females revealed that they were appraised as passive 229 times or on 22.99 per cent of the time. Aggressive females were found on 269 occasions or in 27.01 per cent of the cases. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 9.96 was larger than 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 8. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Passive-Aggressive Data Pertaining to the Questionnaire Administered to the Elementary Subjects Viewing the films "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Passive	Aggressive
Males N=74	"Pollyanna"	Male f=91, %=30.75 Female f=57, %=19.26 $\chi^2=14.80^*$	f=57, %=19.26 f=91, %=30.75	
Females N=59	"Pollyanna"	Male f=62, %=26.27 Female f=52, %=23.73 $\chi^2=0.73$	f=52, %=23.73 f=62, %=26.27	
All Subjects N=133	"Pollyanna"	Male f=149, %=28.01 Female f=117, %=21.99 $\chi^2=5.32^*$	f=117, %=21.99 f=149, %=28.01	
Males N=64	"Bon Voyage"	Male f=69, %=26.96 Female f=59, %=23.05 $\chi^2=2.56$	f=59, %=23.05 f=69, %=26.96	
Females N=57	"Bon Voyage"	Male f=61, %=26.75 Female f=53, %=23.25 $\chi^2=1.12$	f=53, %=23.25 f=61, %=26.75	
All Subjects N=121	"Bon Voyage"	Male f=120, %=25.86 Female f=112, %=24.14 $\chi^2=0.42$	f=112, %=24.14 f=120, %=25.86	
Males N=138	Both films	Male f=160, %=28.99 Female f=116, %=21.01 $\chi^2=16.56^*$	f=116, %=21.01 f=160, %=28.99	
Females N=116	Both films	Male f=123, %=26.51 Female f=109, %=23.49 $\chi^2=4.64^*$	f=109, %=23.49 f=123, %=26.51	
All Subjects N=254	Both films	Male f=269, %=27.01 Female f=229, %=22.99 $\chi^2=9.96^*$	f=229, %=22.99 f=269, %=27.01	
*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.				

C. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE COLLEGE SUBJECTS WHO  
VIEWED "BON VOYAGE"

Analysis of Table 9: Passive-  
Aggressive Data for  
"Bon Voyage"

Table 9 presents the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated  $\chi^2$  values for the passive-aggressive data collected with the questionnaire administered to the college subjects.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college males. The male characters were selected as passive by the subjects on fifteen occasions or in 26.79 per cent of the cases. At the same time they assessed the male characters as aggressive thirteen times or 23.22 per cent of the time. However, thirteen times or in 23.22 per cent of the instances, the female characters were adjudged as passive. They were rated as aggressive on fifteen occasions or in 26.79 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 0.27 was smaller than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college females. On twenty-four occurrences these subjects noted the male characters in "Bon Voyage" as passive. This was 33.34 per cent of the episodes. They thought that the males in the film were aggressive twelve times or on 16.67 per cent of the occasions. In addition, the subjects reported the female characters as passive twelve times



or 16.67 per cent of the time. The female characters were seen as aggressive 24 times in the film or 33.34 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected as the  $\chi^2$  value exceeded 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all college subjects. Thirty-two college students saw the male characters as passive in thirty-nine instances or 30.47 per cent of the time. The characters were seen as aggressive twenty-five times or on 19.53 per cent of the occasions. In comparison to this, females were found to be passive on twenty-five occasions or 19.53 per cent of the time. They were aggressive thirty-nine times or in 30.47 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 6.40 surpassed 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 9. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Passive-Aggressive Data Pertinent to the Questionnaire Administered to the College Subjects Viewing the film "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Passive	Aggressive
Males	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=15, %=26.79	f=13, %=23.22
N=14		Female	f=13, %=23.22	f=15, %=26.79
		$\chi^2=0.27$		
Females	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=24, %=33.34	f=12, %=16.67
N=18		Female	f=12, %=16.67	f=24, %=33.34
		$\chi^2=7.92^*$		
Total	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=39, %=30.47	f=25, %=19.53
College		Female	f=25, %=19.53	f=39, %=30.47
Sample		$\chi^2=6.40^*$		
N=32				

\*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.

#### IV. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING WITH THE FEMALE AS DEPENDENT OR INDEPENDENT

##### Null Hypothesis

There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are showed as dependent or independent.

#### A. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING WITH THE CONTENT ANALYSIS OF SCREENPLAYS

##### Analysis of Table 10: Dependence- Independence All Screenplays

An analysis of Table 10 shows the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated chi-square values for the dependence-independence data pertinent to the content analysis of all screenplays studied.

"We Belong Together." The male characters were assessed as neither dependent or independent in this script by the investigator. The female characters, comparatively speaking, were judged as dependent on two occasions or in 100.00 per cent of episodes. They were not found to be independent. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. This rejection was of a highly tentative nature as it was based upon the observation of a limited number of cases. According to William Theimer, the researcher's statistics adviser, no test of significance exists to test a one cell frequency of this type.

"Pollyanna." In this screenplay the experimenter selected the male characters as dependent eight times or 34.78 per cent

of the time. He tallied them as independent six times or in 26.05 per cent of the cases. When focusing on the females, he found them dependent three times or in 13.04 per cent of the instances, and independent in six episodes or 26.09 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 1.12 was not significant at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

"The Newcomers." On five occasions in "The Newcomers" the investigator found the males dependent. This was 16.67 per cent of the cases. He rated the male characters as independent on eleven occurrences or 36.67 per cent of the time. He observed the females dependent on eight occasions or 26.67 per cent of the time, and as independent six times or 20.00 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 1.12 was too small to reach significance at the .05 level since 3.80 was required. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

"Old Yeller." The researcher appraised the male characters in this script as dependent six times or 18.18 per cent of the time, while he found them independent in sixteen cases or on 48.48 per cent of the occasions. In addition, he assessed the female characters as dependent on seven occurrences or 21.21 per cent of the time. He discovered that they were independent four times or 12.12 per cent of the time. Because the  $\chi^2$  value 2.86 was less than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.

"Bon Voyage." The researcher adjudged that the male characters in this screenplay were dependent in one instance, which was 14.29 per cent of the time. They were accounted as independent on three occasions or 42.86 per cent of the time. In comparison, the female characters were cited as dependent one time or 14.29 per cent of the time, and independent two times or in 28.57 per cent of the instances. The null hypothesis was accepted due to the fact that the  $\chi^2$  value of 1.18 was not significant at the .05 level.

All screenplays. When the data for all screenplays were summarized, the investigator noted that the male characters were dependent in twenty episodes or 20.62 per cent of the cases. They were rated as independent thirty-six times or on 37.11 per cent of the occasions. Female characters, on the other hand, were found to be dependent in twenty-one occurrences or on 21.65 per cent of the occasions. They were assessed as independent twenty times or on 20.62 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value 2.91 was smaller than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 10. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Dependent-Independent Data Related to the Content Analysis of the Five Screenplays

Screenplay	Sex	Dependent	Independent
"We Belong Together"	Male	f=0, %= 0.00	
	Female	f=2, %=100.00	
"Pollyanna"	Male	f=8, %=34.78	f=6, %=26.09
	Female	f=3, %=13.04	f=6, %=26.09
		$\chi^2=1.12$ (Y)	
"The Newcomers"	Male	f=5, %=16.67	f=11, %=36.67
	Female	f=8, %=26.67	f= 6, %=20.00
		$\chi^2=1.12$ (Y)	
"Old Yeller"	Male	f=6, %=18.18	f=16, %=48.48
	Female	f=7, %=21.21	f= 4, %=12.12
		$\chi^2=2.68$ (Y)	
"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=1, %=14.29	f= 3, %=42.86
	Female	f=1, %=14.29	f= 2, %=28.57
		$\chi^2=1.18$ (Y)	
All Screenplays	Male	f=20, %=20.62	f=36, %=37.11
	Female	f=21, %=21.65	f=20, %=20.62
		$\chi^2=2.91$	

(Y) Yates correction for continuity applied.

B. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE ELEMENTARY SUBJECTS  
WHO VIEWED THE TWO FILMS

Analysis of Table 11: Dependence-  
Independence Data for all  
Films Shown

Table 11 presents the frequency and percentage breakdowns and calculated  $\chi^2$  values of the dependence-independence data collected with the questionnaire administered to the elementary subjects.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary males. The male characters were assessed as dependent forty-two times or 28.38 per cent of the cases. They were appraised as independent on 106 occasions or 35.81 per cent of the time. Female characters were noted to be dependent 106 times or on 35.81 per cent of the occasions. They were determined to be independent on forty-two occurrences or 28.38 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 53.28 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary females. For this film the female subjects rated the male characters as dependent in thirty-two instances, which was 13.56 per cent of the cases. They assessed them as independent eighty-six times or 36.44 per cent of the instances. Whereas, they rated the female characters as dependent eighty-six times or 36.44 per cent of the time and independent in thirty-two episodes or 13.56 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 49.56 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by all elementary subjects. On seventy-six occasions the subjects found the males dependent.

This was 14.29 per cent of the instances. They reported the male characters as independent 190 times or 35.72 per cent of the time. The females were adjudged as dependent on 190 occurrences or 35.72 per cent of the time, while they were appraised as independent in seventy-six episodes or 14.29 per cent of the time. Because the  $\chi^2$  value 95.76 exceeded 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary males. The subjects found the male characters in this film as dependent thirty-nine times or in 15.24 per cent of the cases recorded. They tallied them as independent eighty-nine times or 34.77 per cent of the time. In addition, they accounted the female characters as dependent on eighty-nine occurrences or 34.77 per cent of the time. They rated them as independent thirty-nine times or 15.24 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value 38.40 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary females. It was reported by the female subjects that the males in "Bon Voyage" were dependent in thirty-nine episodes. This was 16.22 per cent of the time. The males were cited as independent on seventy-five occasions or 32.89 per cent of the time. In comparison, the female characters were observed to be dependent seventy-five times or 32.89 per cent of the time, whereas they were

adjudged as independent in thirty-nine instances or on 16.22 per cent of the occurrences. The null hypothesis was rejected due to the fact that the  $\chi^2$  value 22.80 was significant at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all subjects. When the frequency counts of all of the subjects were summed it was found that the male characters were judged as dependent seventy-eight times or 16.12 per cent of the time. They were appraised as independent 164 times or in 33.89 per cent of the cases. Female characters, on the contrary, were observed to be dependent 164 times or on 33.89 per cent of the occasions. They were ascertained to be independent on seventy-eight instances or 16.12 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected because the  $\chi^2$  value of 62.92 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level.

Both films as seen by elementary males. These subjects recorded eighty-one instances in which the male characters were dependent. This amounted to 14.68 per cent of the cases. They enumerated 195 cases of male character independence. This was 35.33 per cent of the instances. In contrast to this, the females were judged to be dependent on 195 occurrences or 35.33 per cent of the time. Independence was attributed to them on eighty-one occasions or 14.68 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 93.84 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.



Both films as seen by elementary females. Female subjects found the male characters in both films dependent seventy-one times or 15.30 per cent of the time, while they observed them as independent 161 times or on 34.70 per cent of the occasions. Dependent behavior in female characters was noted 161 times or in 34.70 per cent of the episodes. In seventy-one instances the female was seen as independent. This amounted to 15.30 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 69.60 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by all elementary subjects. An analysis of this data showed that the male characters were rated as dependent 154 times or on 15.16 per cent of the occasions. They were accounted as independent in 354 episodes or on 34.85 per cent of the occurrences. The data for females revealed that they were appraised as dependent 354 times or on 34.85 per cent of the time. Independent females were found on 154 occasions or in 15.16 per cent of the cases. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 152.40 was larger than 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 11. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Dependence-Independence Data Germane to the Questionnaire Administered to the Elementary Subjects Viewing the films "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Dependent	Independent
Males N=74	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 42, %=14.19	f=106, %=35.81
		Female	f=106, %=35.81	f= 42, %=14.19
			$\chi^2=53.28^*$	
Females N=59	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 32, %=13.56	f= 86, %=36.44
		Female	f= 86, %=36.44	f= 32, %=13.56
			$\chi^2=49.56^*$	
Total Sample N=133	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 76, %=14.57	f=190, %=35.72
		Female	f=190, %=35.72	f= 76, %=14.57
			$\chi^2=95.76^*$	
Males N=64	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 39, %=15.24	f= 89, %=34.77
		Female	f= 89, %=34.77	f= 39, %=15.24
			$\chi^2=38.40^*$	
Females N=57	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 39, %=16.22	f= 75, %=32.89
		Female	f= 75, %=32.89	f= 39, %=16.22
			$\chi^2=22.80^*$	
Total Sample N=121	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 78, %=16.12	f=164, %=33.89
		Female	f=164, %=33.89	f= 78, %=16.12
			$\chi^2=62.92^*$	
Males N=138	Both films	Male	f= 81, %=14.68	f=195, %=35.33
		Female	f=195, %=35.33	f= 81, %=14.68
			$\chi^2=93.84^*$	
Females N=116	Both films	Male	f= 71, %=15.30	f=161, %=30.39
		Female	f=161, %=30.39	f= 71, %=15.30
			$\chi^2=69.60^*$	
Total Sample N=254	Both films	Male	f=154, %=15.16	f=354, %=34.85
		Female	f=354, %=34.85	f=154, %=15.16
			$\chi^2=152.40^*$	

\*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.

C. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE COLLEGE SUBJECTS WHO  
VIEWED "BON VOYAGE"

Analysis of Table 12: Dependence-  
Independence Data for  
"Bon Voyage"

Table 12 displays the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated  $\chi^2$  values for the dependence-independence data collected with the questionnaire administered to the college subjects.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college males. The male characters were selected as dependent by the subjects on eleven occasions or in 19.65 per cent of the cases. At the same time they rated the male characters as independent seventeen times or 30.36 per cent of the time. Seventeen times the female characters were found to be dependent. This was in 30.36 per cent of the instances. They were also noted to be independent on eleven occasions or in 19.65 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 2.80 was smaller than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college females. On twelve occurrences these subjects rated the male characters in "Bon Voyage" as dependent. This was 16.67 per cent of the episodes. They thought that the males in the film were independent twenty-four times or on 33.34 per cent of the occasions. In addition, the subjects reported the female characters as dependent

twenty-four times or 33.34 per cent of the time. The female characters were seen as independent twelve times in the film or 16.67 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected as the  $\chi^2$  value of 7.92 exceeded 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all college subjects. The subjects saw the male characters as dependent in twenty-two instances or 17.19 per cent of the time. The male characters were adjudged as independent forty-two times or on 32.82 per cent of the occasions. In comparison to this, females were found to be dependent on forty-two occurrences or 32.82 per cent of the time. They were independent twenty-two times or in 17.19 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 12.80 surpassed 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 12. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Dependence-Independence Data Pertinent to the Questionnaire Administered to the College Subjects Viewing the film "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Dependent	Independent
Males	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=11, %=19.65	f=17, %=30.36
N=14		Female	f=17, %=30.36	f=11, %=19.65
		$\chi^2=2.80$		
Females	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=12, %=16.67	f=24, %=33.34
N=18		Female	f=24, %=33.34	f=12, %=16.67
		$\chi^2=7.29^*$		
Total	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=22, %=17.19	f=42, %=32.82
College		Female	f=42, %=32.82	f=22, %=17.19
Sample		$\chi^2=12.80^*$		
N=32				

\*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.

V. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING  
WITH THE FEMALE AS ARTISTIC OR  
NOT ARTISTIC

Null Hypothesis

There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are depicted as artistic.

A. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING  
WITH THE CONTENT ANALYSIS  
OF SCREENPLAYS

Analysis of Table 13: Artistic-  
Not Artistic All Screenplays

Data in Table 13 presents the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated chi-square values for the artistic-not artistic data germane to the content analysis of all screenplays studied.

There was no indication that the characters were artistic or not artistic in the following screenplays: (1) "We Belong Together," (2) "Pollyanna," and (3) "Old Yeller." The null hypothesis was accepted for these screenplays.

"The Newcomers." In this screenplay, the experimenter selected the male characters as artistic one time or 100 per cent of the cases. He tallied them as not artistic zero times. He found no evidence which would indicate that the females were artistic or not artistic. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected. This rejection was highly tentative as it was based upon the observation of a limited number of cases. According to William Theimer, the researcher's statistics adviser, no test

of significance exists to test a one cell frequency of this type.

"Bon Voyage." The male characters were accounted as artistic on one occurrence or 50.00 per cent of the time. There was no indication that they were not artistic in this screenplay. The females were also discovered as artistic in one instance, or 50.00 per cent of the time, whereas like the male characters, there was no sign that they were not artistic. The  $\chi^2$  value of 0.00 was not significant at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis thus, was accepted.

All screenplays. When the data for all screenplays were summarized, the investigator noted that the male characters were artistic in two episodes or 66.67 per cent of the cases. They were not found to be not artistic. Female characters, on the other hand, were rated as artistic once, or 33.33 per cent of the time. As with the males, they were not adjudged as not artistic. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 0.00 was smaller than 3.84, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 13. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-Square Values for the Artistic-Not Artistic Data Related to the Content Analysis of the Five Screenplays

Screenplay	Sex	Artistic		Not Artistic	
"We Belong Together"	Male	f=0,	%=0	f=0,	%=0
	Female	f=0,	%=0	f=0,	%=0
"Pollyanna"	Male	f=0,	%=0	f=0,	%=0
	Female	f=0,	%=0	f=0,	%=0
"The Newcomers"	Male	f=1,	%=100.00	f=0,	%=0
	Female	f=0,	%=0	f=0,	%=0
"Old Yeller"	Male	f=0,	%=0	f=0,	%=0
	Female	f=0,	%=0	f=0,	%=0
"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=1,	%=50.00	f=0,	%=0
	Female	f=1,	%=50.00	f=0,	%=0
	$\chi^2=0.00$ (Y)				
All Screenplays	Male	f=2,	%=66.67		
	Female	f=1,	%=33.33		
	$\chi^2=0.00$ (Y)				

\*Chi-square significant at the 0.05 level.

(Y) Yates correction for continuity applied.

B. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE ELEMENTARY SUBJECTS  
WHO VIEWED THE TWO FILMS

Analysis of Table 14: Artistic-  
Not Artistic Data for all  
Films Shown

Table 14 has data which presents the frequency and percentage breakdowns and calculated  $\chi^2$  values of the artistic-not artistic data collected with the questionnaire administered to the elementary subjects.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary males. The male characters were assessed as artistic thirty-eight times or 12.84 per cent of the cases. The subjects appraised the males as not artistic 110 times or 37.16 per cent of the time. Female characters were noted to be artistic 110 times or 37.16 per cent of the occasions. They were found to be not artistic on thirty-eight occurrences or 12.84 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 71.04 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary females. For this film the female subjects rated the male characters as artistic in forty-three instances, which was 18.22 per cent of the cases. They assessed them as not artistic seventy-five times or 31.78 per cent of the instances. When comparing the female characters they rated them as artistic seventy-five times or 31.78 per cent of the time and not artistic in forty-three episodes or 18.22 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 16.52 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by all elementary subjects. On eighty-three occasions the subjects found the males artistic. This was 15.60 per cent of the instances. They reported the male characters as not artistic 183 times or 34.40 per cent of the time. The females were appraised as artistic on 183 occurrences or 34.40 per cent of the time, while they observed them as not artistic on eighty-three occasions or 15.60 per cent of the time.



Because the  $\chi^2$  value 74.48 exceeded 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary males. The subjects found the male characters in this film to be artistic fifty-nine times or in 23.05 per cent of the cases recorded. They tallied them as not artistic sixty-nine times or 26.96 per cent of the time. In addition, they determined the female characters as artistic sixty-nine times or on 26.96 per cent of the occurrences. They rated them as not artistic fifty-nine times or 23.05 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value 2.56 was less than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary females. It was reported by the female subjects that the males in "Bon Voyage" were artistic in forty-eight episodes. This was 21.05 per cent of the time. The males were cited as not artistic on sixty-six occasions or 28.95 per cent of the time. In comparison, the female characters were observed to be artistic sixty-six times or 28.95 per cent of the time, whereas they were cited as not artistic in forty-eight instances or on 21.05 per cent of the occurrences. The null hypothesis was rejected due to the fact that the  $\chi^2$  value 6.84 was significant at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all subjects. When the frequency counts of all the subjects were summed it was found that the male characters were judged as artistic 107 times or 22.11 per cent of the time. They were appraised as not artistic 135 times or in 27.90 per cent of the cases. Female characters, on the contrary, were observed to be artistic 135 times or on 27.90 per cent of the occasions. ~~They were discovered to be not artistic~~ on 107 instances or 22.11 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected because the  $\chi^2$  value of 4.84 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level.

Both films as seen by elementary males. These subjects recorded ninety-seven instances in which the male characters were artistic. This amounted to 17.57 per cent of the cases. They enumerated 179 cases in which the male characters were not artistic. This was 32.43 per cent of the time. In contrast to this, the females were judged to be artistic on 179 occurrences or 32.43 per cent of the time. Not being artistic was attributed to females on ninety-seven occasions or 17.57 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 49.68 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by elementary females. Female subjects found the male characters in the films artistic ninety-one times or 19.61 per cent of the time, while they observed them as not artistic 141 times or on 30.39 per cent of the occasions.

Artistic behavior was noted in female characters 141 times or in 30.39 per cent of the episodes. In ninety-one instances the female was seen as not artistic. This amounted to 19.61 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 23.45 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by all elementary subjects. An analysis of this data showed that the male characters were rated as artistic 190 times or on 18.70 per cent of the occasions. They were accounted as not artistic in 318 episodes on on 31.30 per cent of the occurrences. The data for females revealed that they were appraised as artistic 318 times or on 31.30 per cent of the time. Females who were not artistic were found on 190 occasions on in 18.70 per cent of the cases. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 60.96 was larger than 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 14. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Artistic-Not Artistic Data Pertinent to the Questionnaire Administered to the Elementary Subjects Viewing the films "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Artistic	Not Artistic
Males N=74	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 38, %=12.84	f=110, %=37.16
		Female	f=110, %=37.16	f= 38, %=12.84
			$\chi^2=71.04^*$	
Females N=59	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 43, %=18.22	f= 75, %=31.78
		Female	f= 75, %=31.78	f= 43, %=18.22
			$\chi^2=16.52^*$	
Total Sample N=133	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 83, %=15.60	f=183, %=34.40
		Female	f=183, %=34.40	f= 83, %=15.60
			$\chi^2=74.48^*$	
Males N=64	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 59, %=23.05	f= 69, %=26.96
		Female	f= 69, %=26.96	f= 59, %=23.05
			$\chi^2=2.56$	
Females N=57	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 48, %=21.05	f= 66, %=28.95
		Female	f= 66, %=28.95	f= 48, %=21.05
			$\chi^2=6.84^*$	
Total Sample N=121	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=107, %=22.11	f=135, %=27.90
		Female	f=135, %=27.90	f=107, %=22.11
			$\chi^2=4.84^*$	
Males N=138	Both films	Male	f= 97, %=17.57	f=179, %=32.43
		Female	f=179, %=32.43	f= 97, %=17.57
			$\chi^2=49.68^*$	
Females N=116	Both films	Male	f= 91, %=19.61	f=141, %=30.39
		Female	f=141, %=30.39	f= 91, %=19.61
			$\chi^2=23.45^*$	
Total Sample N=254	Both films	Male	f=190, %=18.70	f=318, %=31.30
		Female	f=318, %=31.30	f=190, %=18.70
			$\chi^2=60.96^*$	

\*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.

C. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED TO  
THE COLLEGE SUBJECTS WHO  
VIEWED "BON VOYAGE"

Analysis of Table 15: Artistic-  
Not Artistic Data for  
"Bon Voyage"

Table 15 presents the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated  $\chi^2$  values for the artistic-not artistic data collected with the questionnaire administered to the college subjects.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college males. The male characters were selected as artistic by the subjects on fifteen occasions or 27.79 per cent of the cases. At the same time they rated the male characters as not artistic thirteen times or 23.22 per cent of the time. Thirteen times the female characters were found to be artistic. This was 23.22 per cent of the instances. They were noted as not artistic on fifteen occasions or in 27.79 per cent of the cases. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 0.27 was smaller than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college females. On eighteen occurrences these subjects rated the male characters in "Bon Voyage" as artistic. This was 25.00 per cent of the episodes. Also, the college females thought that the males in the film were not artistic on eighteen occasions or in 25.00 per cent of the occurrences. The subjects rated the female characters in exactly the same way. The null hypothesis was accepted as the

$\chi^2$  value of 0.00 was less than 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all college subjects. The subjects saw the male characters as artistic in thirty-five instances or 27.35 per cent of the time. The male characters were adjudged as not artistic twenty-nine times or on 22.66 per cent of the occasions. In comparison to this, females were found to be artistic on twenty-nine occurrences or 22.66 per cent of the time. They were not artistic thirty-five times or in 27.35 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 1.28 did not surpass 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 15. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Artistic-Not Artistic Data Germane to the Questionnaire Administered to the College Subjects Viewing the Film "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Artistic	Not Artistic
Males	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=15, %=27.79	f=13, %=23.22
N=14		Female	f=13, %=23.22	f=15, %=27.79
		$\chi^2=0.27$		
Females	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=18, %=25.00	f=18, %=25.00
N=18		Female	f=18, %=25.00	f=18, %=25.00
		$\chi^2=0.00$		
Total	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=35, %=27.35	f=29, %=22.66
College		Female	f=29, %=22.66	f=35, %=27.35
Sample		$\chi^2=1.28$		
N=32				

VI. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING  
WITH THE FEMALE AS MECHANICAL OR  
NOT MECHANICAL

Null Hypothesis

There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are portrayed in performing mechanical repairs.

A. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING  
WITH THE CONTENT ANALYSIS  
OF SCREENPLAYS

Analysis of Table 16: Mechanical-  
Not Mechanical All Screenplays

Table 16 data displays the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated chi-square values for the mechanical-not mechanical data related to the content analysis of all screenplays studied.

The investigator did not account the characters either mechanical or not mechanical in the following scripts: (1) "Pollyanna," and (2) "Bon Voyage." The null hypothesis was accepted for these scripts.

"We Belong Together." In this script, the researchist judged the male characters as mechanical one time or 100 per cent of the time. He recorded them as not mechanical zero times. He found no indication that the females were either mechanical or not mechanical. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. This rejection was of a highly tentative nature as it was based upon the observation of a limited number of occurrences. According to William Theimer, the researcher's statistics

adviser, no test of significance exists to test a one cell frequency of this type.

"The Newcomers." The researcher rated the male characters as mechanical on five occurrences or 62.50 per cent of the time. They were adjudged as not mechanical on one instance, or 12.50 per cent of the episodes. The females were discovered as mechanical one time or 12.50 per cent of the cases. In addition, they were assessed as not mechanical one time, which was also 12.50 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 0.00 was less than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 per cent level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

"Old Yeller." In this screenplay it was noted that the male characters were mechanical in four episodes or 50.00 per cent of the cases. They were not found lacking in mechanical ability. In a similar fashion, female characters were rated as mechanical four times or 50.00 per cent of the time, and like the males, they were not observed to be without mechanical ability. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 0.00 was less than 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.

All screenplays. When the data for all screenplays were summarized by the investigator, it was noted that the male characters were mechanical in eleven instances or 61.11 per cent of the time. They were rated as not mechanical one time or 5.56 per cent of the time. Female characters, at the same time, were



cited as mechanical five times or on 27.78 per cent of the occasions. As with the males, they were found to be not mechanical one time or on 5.56 per cent of the occurrences. The  $\chi^2$  value 0.14 did not exceed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 16. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Mechanical-Not Mechanical Data Related to the Content Analysis of the Five Screenplays

Screenplay	Sex	Mechanical		Not Mechanical
"We Belong Together"	Male	f=1,	%=100	f=0, %=0.00
	Female	f=0,	%=0	f=0, %=0.00
"Pollyanna"	Male	f=0,	%=0.00	f=0, %=0.00
	Female	f=0,	%=0.00	f=0, %=0.00
"The Newcomers"	Male	f=5,	%=62.50	f=1, %=12.50
	Female	f=1,	%=12.50	f=1, %=12.50
		$\chi^2=0.00$ (Y)		
"Old Yeller"	Male	f=4,	%=50.00	f=0, %=0.00
	Female	f=4,	%=50.00	f=0, %=0.00
		$\chi^2=0.00$ (Y)		
"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=0,	%=0.00	f=0, %=0.00
	Female	f=0,	%=0.00	f=0, %=0.00
All Screenplays	Male	f=11,	%=61.11	f=1, %=5.56
	Female	f=5,	%=27.78	f=1, %=5.56
		$\chi^2=0.14$ (Y)		

(Y) Yates correction for continuity applied.

B. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE ELEMENTARY SUBJECTS  
WHO VIEWED THE TWO FILMS

Analysis of Table 17: Mechanical-  
Not Mechanical Data for all  
Films Shown

Data compiled in Table 17 presents the frequency and percentage breakdowns and calculated  $\chi^2$  values of the mechanical-not mechanical data collected with the questionnaire administered to the elementary subjects.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary males. The male characters were observed to be mechanical 130 times or 43.92 per cent of the cases. The subjects rated the males as not mechanical eighteen times or on 6.08 per cent of the occasions. Female characters were noted as mechanical eighteen times or 6.08 per cent of the occurrences. In addition, they were classified as not mechanical on 130 instances or 43.92 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 171.68 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary females. For this film the female subjects rated the male characters as mechanical in 109 instances, which was 46.19 per cent of the cases. They adjudged them as not mechanical nine times or 3.82 per cent of the instances. On the other hand, they accounted the female characters as mechanical nine times or 3.82 per cent of the time and as not mechanical in 109 episodes or 46.19 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 169.92 exceeded 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by all elementary subjects. On 239 occasions the subjects found the males mechanical. This was 44.93 per cent of the instances. They reported the male

characters as not mechanical twenty-seven times or 5.08 per cent of the time. The females were appraised as mechanical on twenty-seven occurrences or 5.08 per cent of the time, while they observed them as not mechanical on 239 occasions or 44.93 per cent of the time. Because the  $\chi^2$  value 340.48 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary males. The subjects found the male characters in this film to be mechanical 118 times or in 46.10 per cent of the cases recorded. They tallied them as not mechanical ten times or 3.91 per cent of the time. In addition, they accounted the female characters as mechanical ten times or in 3.91 per cent of the occurrences. They found them not mechanical 118 times or 46.10 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value 181.76 was more than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary females. It was reported by the female subjects that the males in "Bon Voyage" were mechanical in 110 episodes. This was 48.25 per cent of the time. The males were cited as not mechanical on four occasions or 1.75 per cent of the time. In comparison, the female characters were observed to be mechanical four times or 1.75 per cent of the time, whereas they were adjudged as not mechanical in 110 instances or on 48.25 per cent of the occurrences. The null hypothesis was rejected due to the fact that the  $\chi^2$  value 196.08 was significant at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all subjects. When the frequency counts of all the subjects were summed it was found by the researcher that the male characters were judged as mechanical 229 times or 47.32 per cent of the time. They were appraised as not mechanical thirteen times or in 2.69 per cent of the cases. Female characters, on the contrary, were observed to be mechanical thirteen times or on 2.69 per cent of the occasions. They were discovered to be not mechanical on 229 instances or 47.32 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected because the  $\chi^2$  value of 382.36 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level.

Both films as seen by elementary males. These subjects recorded 248 instances in which the male characters were mechanical. This amounted to 44.93 per cent of the cases. They enumerated twenty-eight cases in which the male characters were not mechanical. This was 5.07 per cent of the time. In contrast to this, the females were judged to be mechanical on twenty-eight occurrences or 5.07 per cent of the time. Not being mechanical was attributed to females on 248 occasions or 44.93 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 353.28 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by elementary females. An analysis of these data showed that the male characters were rated as mechanical 219 times or on 47.20 per cent of the occasions. They

were accounted as not mechanical in thirteen episodes or on 2.80 per cent of the occurrences. The data for females revealed that they were appraised as mechanical thirteen times or in 2.80 per cent of the cases. Females who were not mechanical were found on 219 occasions or in 47.20 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 366.56 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by all elementary subjects. An analysis of the data showed that the male characters were rated as mechanical 468 times or on 46.07 per cent of the occasions. The subjects observed them as not mechanical forty times or on 3.94 per cent of the episodes. Mechanical behavior was noted in female characters forty times or in 3.94 per cent of the instances. On 468 occurrences the female was seen as not mechanical by the subjects. This amounted to 46.07 per cent of the cases. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 731.52 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 17. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Mechanical-Not Mechanical Data Germane to the Questionnaire Administered to the Elementary Subjects Viewing the Films "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Mechanical	Not Mechanical
Males N=74	"Pollyanna"	Male	f=130, %=43.92	f= 18, %= 6.08
		Female	f= 18, %= 6.08	f=130, %=43.92
			$\chi^2=171.68^*$	
Females N=59	"Pollyanna"	Male	f=109, %=46.19	f= 9, %= 3.82
		Female	f= 9, %= 3.82	f=109, %=46.19
			$\chi^2=169.92^*$	
Total Sample N=133	"Pollyanna"	Male	f=239, %=44.93	f= 27, %= 5.08
		Female	f= 27, %= 5.08	f=239, %=44.93
			$\chi^2=340.48^*$	
Males N=64	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=118, %=46.10	f= 10, %= 3.91
		Female	f= 10, %= 3.91	f=118, %=46.10
			$\chi^2=181.76^*$	
Females N=57	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=110, %=48.25	f= 4, %= 1.75
		Female	f= 4, %= 1.75	f=110, %=48.25
			$\chi^2=51.63^* (Y)$	
Total Sample N=121	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=229, %=47.32	f= 13, %= 2.69
		Female	f= 13, %= 2.69	f=229, %=47.32
			$\chi^2=382.36^*$	
Males N=138	Both films	Male	f=248, %=44.93	f= 28, %= 5.07
		Female	f= 28, %= 5.07	f=248, %=44.93
			$\chi^2=353.28^*$	
Females N=116	Both films	Male	f=219, %=47.20	f= 13, %= 2.80
		Female	f= 13, %= 2.80	f=219, %=47.20
			$\chi^2=366.56^*$	
Total Sample N=254	Both films	Male	f=468, %=46.07	f= 40, %= 3.94
		Female	f= 40, %= 3.94	f=468, %=46.07
			$\chi^2=731.52^*$	

\*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.

C. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED TO  
THE COLLEGE SUBJECTS WHO  
VIEWED "BON VOYAGE"

Analysis of Table 18: Mechanical-  
Not Mechanical Data for  
"Bon Voyage"

Table 18 displays the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated  $\chi^2$  values for the mechanical-not mechanical data collected with the questionnaire administered to the college subjects.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college males. The male characters were selected as mechanical by the subjects on eighteen occasions or 32.15 per cent of the cases. At the same time they rated the male characters as not mechanical ten times or 17.86 per cent of the time. Ten times the female characters were found to be mechanical. This was 17.86 per cent of the instances. They were noted as not mechanical on eighteen occasions or in 32.15 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 5.04 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college females. On thirty occurrences these subjects rated the male characters in "Bon Voyage" as mechanical. This was 41.67 per cent of the time. The male characters were adjudged as not mechanical six times or on 8.34 per cent of the occasions. In comparison to this, females were thought to be mechanical on six occurrences or 8.34 per cent of the time. They were not mechanical thirty

times or in 41.67 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 32.40 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all college subjects. The subjects saw the male characters as mechanical in forty-seven instances or 36.72 per cent of the time. The male characters were adjudged as not mechanical seventeen times or on 13.28 per cent of the occasions. The subjects rated the female characters as mechanical seventeen times or on 13.28 per cent of the occurrences. They were seen as not mechanical on forty-seven occasions. This was 36.72 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected as the  $\chi^2$  value of 28.16 exceeded 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level.

Table 18. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Mechanical-Not Mechanical Data Related to the Questionnaire Administered to the College Subjects Viewing the Film "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Mechanical	Not Mechanical
Males N=14	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=18, %=32.15	f=10, %=17.86
		Female	f=10, %=17.86	f=18, %=32.15
		$\chi^2=5.04^*$		
Females N=18	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=30, %=41.67	f= 6, %=16.67
		Female	f= 6, %=16.67	f=30, %=41.67
		$\chi^2=32.40^*$		
Total College Sample N=32	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=47, %=36.72	f=17, %=13.28
		Female	f=17, %=13.28	f=47, %=36.72
		$\chi^2=28.16^*$		

\*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.



VII. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING  
WITH THE FEMALE AS EXCESSIVELY  
TALKATIVE OR NOT EXCESSIVELY  
TALKATIVE

Null Hypothesis

There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are portrayed as being excessively talkative.

A. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING  
WITH THE CONTENT ANALYSIS  
OF SCREENPLAYS

Analysis of Table 19: Excessively Talkative-  
Not Excessively Talkative

Data in Table 19 provides the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated chi-square values for the excessively talkative-not excessively talkative data related to the content analysis of all screenplays studied.

Neither male nor female characters were found by the researcher to be either excessively talkative or not excessively talkative in the following screenplays: (1) "We Belong Together," (2) "The Newcomers" and (3) "Old Yeller." The null hypothesis was accepted in each case.

"Pollyanna." In this script the researcher adjudged the female characters as excessively talkative three times or 100 per cent of the time. Further, there was no indication that they were not excessively talkative. Further, he found no indication that the male characters were either excessively talkative or not excessively talkative. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected. This rejection was of a highly tentative nature as it

was based upon the observation of a limited number of occurrences. According to William Theimer, the researcher's statistics adviser, no test of significance exists to test a one cell frequency of this type.

"Bon Voyage." On five occasions or 100 per cent of the time, the male characters were rated as excessively talkative.

At the same time, there was no sign that they were not excessively talkative on any instance. In addition to this, the female characters were not discovered to be either excessively talkative or not excessively talkative. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. This rejection was of a highly tentative nature as it was based upon the observation of a limited number of occurrences. According to William Theimer, the researcher's statistics adviser, no test of significance exists to test a one cell frequency of this type.

All screenplays. When the data for all screenplays were summarized, the researcher noted that the male characters were excessively talkative in five instances or 62.50 per cent of the time. They were not accounted as not excessively talkative. Female characters, on the other hand, were cited as excessively talkative three times or on 37.50 per cent of the occasions. As with the males, there was no indication that they were not excessively talkative. The  $\chi^2$  value of 1.24 did not exceed 3.84, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 19. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Excessively Talkative-Not Excessively Talkative Data Pertinent to the Content Analysis of the Five Screenplays

Screenplay	Sex	Excessively Talkative	Not Excessively Talkative
"We Belong Together"	Male	f=0, %=0.00	f=0, %=0.00
	Female	f=0, %=0.00	f=0, %=0.00
"Pollyanna"	Male	f=0, %=0.00	f=0, %=0.00
	Female	f=3, %=100	f=0, %=0.00
"The Newcomers"	Male	f=0, %=0.00	f=0, %=0.00
	Female	f=0, %=0.00	f=0, %=0.00
"Old Yeller"	Male	f=0, %=0.00	f=0, %=0.00
	Female	f=0, %=0.00	f=0, %=0.00
"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=5, %=100	f=0, %=0.00
	Female	f=0, %=0.00	f=0, %=0.00
All Screenplays	Male	f=5, %=62.50	
	Female	f=3, %=37.50	
		$\chi^2=1.24$ (Y)	

\*Chi-square not significant at 0.05 level.

(Y) Yates Correction for continuity applied.

B. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE ELEMENTARY SUBJECTS  
WHO VIEWED THE TWO FILMS

Analysis of Table 20: Excessively Talkative-  
Not Excessively Talkative

Data compiled in Table 20 shows the frequency and percentage breakdowns and calculated  $\chi^2$  values of the excessively talkative-not excessively talkative data collected with the questionnaire administered to the elementary subjects.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary males. The male characters were observed to be excessively talkative thirty-six times or 12.16 per cent of the cases. The subjects rated the males as not excessively talkative 112 times or on 37.84 per cent of the occasions. Female characters were noted as excessively talkative 112 times or 37.84 per cent of the occurrences. They were classified as not excessively talkative on thirty-six instances or 12.16 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 76.96 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary females. For this film, the female subjects rated the male characters as excessively talkative in nineteen instances, which was 8.05 per cent of the cases. They adjudged them as not excessively talkative ninety-nine times or 41.95 per cent of the time. Comparatively they accounted the females as excessively talkative ninety-nine times or 41.95 per cent of the time and as not excessively talkative in nineteen episodes or 8.05 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 108.56 exceeded 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by all elementary subjects. On fifty-eight occasions the subjects found the males to be excessively talkative. This was 10.90 per cent of the instances. They reported the male characters as not excessively talkative

208 occurrences or 39.10 per cent of the time. The females were appraised as excessively talkative on 208 occasions or 39.10 per cent of the time, while they observed them as not excessively talkative on fifty-eight occasions or 10.90 per cent of the time. Because the  $\chi^2$  value 164.92 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

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"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary males. The subjects found the male characters in this film to be excessively talkative sixty-two times or in 24.22 per cent of the cases recorded. They tallied them as not excessively talkative sixty-six times or 25.78 per cent of the time. In addition, they accounted the female characters as excessively talkative sixty-six times or on 25.78 per cent of the occurrences. They found them not excessively talkative sixty-two times or 24.22 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value 0.23 was less than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary females. It was reported by the female subjects that the males in "Bon Voyage" were excessively talkative in sixty-three episodes. This was 27.63 per cent of the time. The males were cited as not excessively talkative on fifty-one occasions or 22.37 per cent of the time. In comparison, the female characters were observed to be excessively talkative fifty-one times or 22.37 per cent of the

time, whereas they were adjudged as not excessively talkative in sixty-three instances or in 27.63 per cent of the occurrences. The null hypothesis was accepted due to the fact that the  $\chi^2$  value 2.28 was less than 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all subjects. When the frequency counts of all the subjects were summed it was found that the male characters were judged as excessively talkative 125 times or 25.83 per cent of the time. They were appraised as not excessively talkative 117 times or in 24.18 per cent of the cases. Female characters, on the contrary, were observed to be excessively talkative 117 times or on 24.18 per cent of the occasions. They were discovered to be not excessively talkative on 125 instances or 25.83 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was accepted because the  $\chi^2$  value of 0.44 was less than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level.

Both films as seen by elementary males. These subjects recorded ninety-eight instances in which the male characters were excessively talkative. This amounted to 17.76 per cent of the cases. They enumerated 178 cases in which the male characters were not excessively talkative. This was 32.25 per cent of the time. In contrast to this the females were judged to be excessively talkative on 178 occurrences or 32.25 per cent of the time. Not being excessively talkative was attributed to females on ninety-eight occasions or 17.76 per cent of the time.

As the  $\chi^2$  value of 44.16 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by elementary females. An analysis of these data showed that the male characters were rated as excessively talkative eighty-two times or during 17.67 per cent of the occasions. They were accounted as not excessively talkative in 150 episodes or on 32.37 per cent of the occurrences. The data for females revealed that they were appraised as excessively talkative 150 times or on 32.33 per cent of the time. Females who were not excessively talkative were found in eighty-two instances or in 17.67 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 37.12 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by all elementary subjects. An analysis of the data showed that the male characters were rated as excessively talkative 183 times or on 18.01 per cent of the occasions. The subjects observed them as not excessively talkative 325 times or on 31.99 per cent of the time. Excessively talkative behavior was noted in the female characters 325 times or in 31.99 per cent of the episodes. On 183 occurrences the females were seen as not excessively talkative. This amounted to 18.01 per cent of the cases. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 81.28 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 20. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Excessively Talkative-Not Excessively Talkative Data Relevant to the Questionnaire Administered to the Elementary Subjects Viewing the Films "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Excessively Talkative	Not Excessively Talkative
Males N=74	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 36, %=12.16	f=112, %=37.84
		Female	f=112, %=37.84	f= 36, %=12.16
			$\chi^2=76.96^*$	
Females N=59	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 19, %= 8.05	f= 99, %=41.95
		Female	f= 99, %=41.95	f= 19, %= 8.05
			$\chi^2=108.56^*$	
Total Sample N=133	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 58, %=10.90	f=208, %=39.10
		Female	f=208, %=39.10	f= 58, %=10.90
			$\chi^2=164.92^*$	
Males N=64	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 62, %=24.22	f= 66, %=25.78
		Female	f= 66, %=25.78	f= 62, %=24.22
			$\chi^2=0.23$	
Females N=57	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 63, %=27.63	f= 51, %=22.37
		Female	f= 51, %=22.37	f= 63, %=27.63
			$\chi^2=2.28$	
Total Sample N=121	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=125, %=25.83	f=117, %=24.18
		Female	f=117, %=24.18	f=125, %=25.83
			$\chi^2=0.44$	
Males N=138	Both films	Male	f= 98, %=17.76	f=178, %=32.25
		Female	f=178, %=32.25	f= 98, %=17.76
			$\chi^2=44.16^*$	
Females N=116	Both films	Male	f= 82, %=17.67	f=150, %=32.33
		Female	f=150, %=32.33	f= 82, %=17.67
			$\chi^2=37.12^*$	
Total Sample N=254	Both films	Male	f=183, %=18.01	f=325, %=31.99
		Female	f=325, %=31.99	f=183, %=18.01
			$\chi^2=81.28^*$	

\*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.



C. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED TO  
THE COLLEGE SUBJECTS WHO  
VIEWED "BON VOYAGE"

Analysis of Table 21: Excessively Talkative-  
Not Excessively Talkative Data  
For "Bon Voyage"

Table 21 presents the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated  $\chi^2$  values for the excessively talkative-not excessively talkative data collected with the questionnaire administered to the college subjects.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college males. The male characters were selected as excessively talkative by the subjects on eleven occasions or 19.65 per cent of the cases. At the same time they rated the male characters not excessively talkative seventeen times or 30.36 per cent of the time. Seventeen times the female characters were found to be excessively talkative. This was 30.36 per cent of the instances. They were noted as not excessively talkative on eleven occasions or in 19.65 per cent of the cases. The resulting  $\chi^2$  of 2.80 was less than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college females. On eleven occurrences these subjects rated the male characters in "Bon Voyage" as excessively talkative. This was 15.28 per cent of the time. The male characters were adjudged as not excessively talkative twenty-five times or on 34.72 per cent of the occasions. In comparison to this, females were thought to be excessively talkative on twenty-five occurrences or 34.72 per cent of the time.

They were not excessively talkative eleven times or 15.28 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 10.80 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all college subjects. The subjects saw the male characters as excessively talkative in twenty-two instances or 17.19 per cent of the time. The male characters were adjudged as not excessively talkative forty-two times or on 32.82 of the occasions. The subjects rated the female characters as excessively talkative forty-two times or on 32.82 per cent of the occurrences. They were seen as not excessively talkative on twenty-two occasions. This was 17.19 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected as the  $\chi^2$  value of 12.80 exceeded 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level.

Table 21. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Excessively Talkative-Not Excessively Talkative Data Germane to the Questionnaire Administered to the College Subjects Viewing the Film "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Excessively Talkative	Not Excessively Talkative
Males	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=11, %=19.65	f=17, %=30.36
N=14		Female	f=17, %=30.36	f=11, %=19.65
			$\chi^2=2.80$	
Females	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=11, %=15.28	f=25, %=34.72
N=18		Female	f=25, %=34.72	f=11, %=15.28
			$\chi^2=10.80^*$	
Total	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=22, %=17.19	f=42, %=32.82
College		Female	f=42, %=32.82	f=22, %=17.19
Sample			$\chi^2=12.80^*$	
N=32				
*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.				

VIII. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING  
WITH THE FEMALE AS A SEX SYMBOL OR  
NOT AS A SEX SYMBOL

Null Hypothesis

There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are pictured as sex symbols.

A. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING  
WITH THE CONTENT ANALYSIS  
OF SCREENPLAYS

Analysis of Table 22: Sex Symbol-  
Not a Sex Symbol

Table 22 data displays the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated chi-square values for the sex symbol-not a sex symbol data pertinent to the content analysis of all screenplays studied.

"We Belong Together." The experimenter accounted the male characters as sex symbols two times or 11.76 per cent of the time. He noted that they were not a sex symbol one time or in 5.88 per cent of the cases. He reported that the female characters in the script were sex symbols on eleven occasions or on 64.71 per cent of the occurrences. They were judged as not a sex symbol three times or on 17.65 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value was 1.42, which was smaller than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.

"Pollyanna." In this screenplay the researchist found no indication that the male characters were either sex symbols or

not sex symbols. The female characters were not appraised as sex symbols but on four occasions, or 100 per cent of the time, they were pictured as not being a sex symbol. Thus the null hypothesis was rejected. This rejection was of a highly tentative nature as it was based upon a limited number of occurrences. According to William Theimer, the researcher's statistics adviser, no test of significance exists to test a one cell frequency of this type.

"The Newcomers." In this script, only one of the criterion categories was enumerated. The males were cited as not a sex symbol on one occasion or 100 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis, therefore, was rejected. This rejection was of a highly tentative nature as it was based upon a limited number of occurrences. According to William Theimer, the researcher's statistics adviser, no test of significance exists to test a one cell frequency of this type.

"Old Yeller." On two occurrences the female characters were adjudged as not a sex symbol. This was 66.67 per cent of the episodes. In the same vein, the males were selected as not a sex symbol on one occasion or in 33.33 per cent of the cases. Neither sex was observed as a sex symbol in this script. The  $\chi^2$  value of 0.00 was not significant. The null hypothesis was accepted.

"Bon Voyage." It was discovered that the male characters in this screenplay were sex symbols on eight occasions or in 29.63 per cent of the cases. They were noted as not a sex

symbol one time or 3.70 per cent of the time. At the same time, the female characters were ascertained to be sex symbols sixteen times or on 59.26 per cent of the occurrences, and as not a sex symbol two times or on 27.55 per cent of the occasions. The null hypothesis was accepted due to the fact that the  $\chi^2$  value of 0.00 was not significant at the 0.05 level.

All screenplays. When the frequency counts of all the scripts were summed, it was found that the male characters were enumerated as a sex symbol ten times or in 19.23 per cent of the episodes. They were appraised as not a sex symbol four times or in 7.69 per cent of the cases. Female characters, it was observed, were sex symbols twenty-seven times or on 51.92 per cent of the occasions. They were ascertained to be not a sex symbol in eleven instances or 21.15 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 1.01 was smaller than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 22. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Sex Symbol-Not a Sex Symbol Data Related to the Content Analysis of the Five Screenplays

Screenplay	Sex	Sex Symbol	Not a Sex Symbol
"We Belong Together"	Male	f= 2, %=11.76	f= 1, %= 5.88
	Female	f=11, %=64.71	f= 3, %=17.65
	$\chi^2=1.42$ (Y)		
"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 0, %= 0.00	f= 0, %= 0.00
	Female	f= 0, %= 0.00	f= 4, %= 100
"The Newcomers"	Male	f= 0, %= 0.00	f= 1, %= 100
	Female	f= 0, %= 0.00	f= 0, %= 0.00
"Old Yeller"	Male		f= 1, %=33.33
	Female		f= 2, %=66.67
	$\chi^2=0.00$ (Y)		
"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 8, %=29.63	f= 1, %= 3.70
	Female	f=16, %=59.26	f= 2, %= 7.41
	$\chi^2=0.00$ (Y)		
All Screenplays	Male	f=10, %=19.23	f= 4, %= 7.69
	Female	f=27, %=51.92	f=11, %=21.15
	$\chi^2=1.01$ (Y)		

\*Chi-square significant at the 0.05 level.

(Y) Yates correction for continuity applied.

B. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE ELEMENTARY SUBJECTS  
WHO VIEWED THE TWO FILMS

Analysis of Table 23: Sex Symbol-  
Not a Sex Symbol Data for All  
Films Shown

Data in Table 23 presents the frequency and percentage breakdowns and calculated  $\chi^2$  values of the sex symbol-not a sex symbol data collected with the questionnaire administered to the elementary subjects.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary males. The male characters were adjudged to be sex symbols by the male subjects ten times or 3.38 per cent of the time. They appraised the males as not sex symbols 138 times or on 46.62 per cent of the occasions. ~~Female characters were noted to be sex symbols in 138 instances~~ or in 46.62 per cent of the cases. They were determined to be not a sex symbol on ten occasions or 3.38 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 219.04 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary females. For this film the female subjects decided that the male characters were sex symbols six instances, which was 2.54 per cent of the time. They assessed them as not a sex symbol 112 times or 47.46 per cent of the time. On the other hand they rated the females as sex symbols 112 times or 47.46 per cent of the time and not sex symbols six times or on 2.24 per cent of the occasions. The  $\chi^2$  value of 191.16 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by all elementary subjects. On seventeen occasions the subjects accounted the males as sex symbols. This was 3.20 per cent of the instances. They found the male characters as not a sex symbol on 249 occurrences or

46.81 per cent of the time. The females were adjudged as sex symbols on 249 occasions or 46.81 per cent of the time, while they appraised them as not a sex symbol in seventeen episodes or 3.20 per cent of the time. Because the  $\chi^2$  value of 404.32 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary males. The subjects pointed to the male characters in this film as a sex symbol eight times or on 3.13 per cent of the cases recorded. They found them not a sex symbol 120 times or 46.88 per cent of the time. In addition, they accounted the female characters as sex symbols on 120 occurrences or 46.88 per cent of the time. They rated them as not a sex symbol on eight occasions or 3.13 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected since the  $\chi^2$  value 197.12 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary females. It was reported by the female subjects that the male characters in "Bon Voyage" were sex symbols in seven episodes. This was 3.22 per cent of the time. The males were cited as not a sex symbol on 107 occasions or 46.93 per cent of the time. On the other hand, the female characters were observed to be sex symbols 107 times or 46.79 per cent of the time, whereas they were adjudged as not a sex symbol in seven instances or 3.22 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected due to the fact that the  $\chi^2$  value 175.56 was significant at the 0.05 level.



"Bon Voyage" as seen by all subjects. When the frequency counts of all the subjects were summed it was found that the male characters were judged as sex symbols in fifteen episodes or 3.10 per cent of the time. They were appraised as not a sex symbol 227 times; 46.90 per cent of the time. Female characters on the contrary were observed to be sex symbols on 227 times or on 46.90 per cent of the occurrences. They were ascertained to be not a sex symbol on fifteen times or in 3.10 per cent of the instances. The null hypothesis was rejected because the  $\chi^2$  value of 372.68 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level.

Both films as seen by elementary males. These subjects recorded eighteen instances in which the male characters were a sex symbol. This was 3.26 per cent of the cases. They enumerated 258 cases of the male as not a sex symbol. This was 46.74 per cent of the instances. In contrast to this, the females were judged to be sex symbols on 46.74 per cent of the time. Not being a sex symbol was attributed to them on 258 occasions or 46.74 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  of 419.16 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by elementary females. Female subjects ascertained the male characters in the films to be sex symbols thirteen times or 2.80 per cent of the time, while they observed them as not a sex symbol 219 times or on 47.20 per cent of the occasions. Sex symbolism was noted in female

characters 219 times or in 47.20 per cent of the episodes.

In thirteen instances the females were seen as not a sex symbol.

This amounted to 2.80 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 366.56 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by all elementary subjects. An analysis of data showed that the male characters were rated as sex symbols thirty-two times or on 2.96 per cent of the occasions. They were discounted as not a sex symbol in 476 episodes or on 47.05 per cent of the occasions. The data for females revealed that they were appraised as sex symbols 476 times or on 47.05 per cent of the occurrences. Females selected as not a sex symbol were found in thirty-two occasions. This was 2.96 per cent of the cases. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 722.16 was larger than 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 23. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Sex Symbol-Not a Sex Symbol Data Germane to the Questionnaire Administered to the Elementary Subjects Viewing the Films "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Sex Symbol	Not a Sex Symbol
Males N=74	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 10, %= 3.38	f=138, %=46.62
		Female	f=138, %=46.62	f= 10, %= 3.38
			$\chi^2=219.04^*$	
Females N=59	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 6, %= 2.54	f=112, %=47.46
		Female	f=112, %=47.46	f= 6, %= 2.54
			$\chi^2=191.16^*$	
All Subjects N=133	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 17, %= 3.20	f=249, %=46.81
		Female	f=249, %=46.81	f= 17, %= 3.20
			$\chi^2=404.32^*$	
Males N=64	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 8, %= 3.13	f=120, %=46.88
		Female	f=120, %=46.88	f= 8, %= 3.13
			$\chi^2=197.12^*$	
Females N=57	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 7, %= 3.22	f=107, %=46.93
		Female	f=107, %=46.93	f= 7, %= 3.22
			$\chi^2=175.56^*$	
All Subjects N=121	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 15, %= 3.10	f=227, %=46.90
		Female	f=227, %=46.90	f= 15, %= 3.10
			$\chi^2=372.68^*$	
Males N=138	Both films	Male	f= 18, %= 3.26	f=258, %=46.74
		Female	f=258, %=46.74	f= 18, %= 3.26
			$\chi^2=419.52^*$	
Females N=116	Both films	Male	f= 13, %= 2.80	f=219, %=47.20
		Female	f=219, %=47.20	f= 13, %= 2.80
			$\chi^2=366.56^*$	
All Subjects N=254	Both films	Male	f= 32, %= 2.96	f=476, %=47.05
		Female	f=476, %=47.05	f= 32, %= 2.96
			$\chi^2=722.16^*$	

\*Chi-square significant at the 0.05 level.

C. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE COLLEGE SUBJECTS WHO  
VIEWED "BON VOYAGE"

Analysis of Table 24: Sex Symbol-  
Not Sex Symbol Data for  
"Bon Voyage"

Table 24 displays the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated  $\chi^2$  values for the sex symbol-not sex symbol data collected with the questionnaire administered to the college students.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college males. On one occurrence these subjects noted the males in "Bon Voyage" as sex symbols. This was 1.79 per cent of the episodes. They thought that the males in the film were not sex symbols in twenty-seven instances or on 48.22 per cent of the occasions. In addition, the subjects reported the female characters as sex symbols twenty-seven times or 48.22 per cent of the time. The female characters were viewed as not a sex symbol one time or 1.79 per cent of the instances. The null hypothesis was rejected as the  $\chi^2$  value exceeded 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college females. The male characters were selected as sex symbols by the subjects on seven occasions or in 9.72 per cent of the cases. At the same time they assessed the male characters as not a sex symbol twenty-nine times or 40.28 per cent of the time. Twenty-nine times the female characters were adjudged as sex symbols. This was 40.28

per cent of the instances. They were rated as not a sex symbol on seven occasions or in 9.72 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 26.64 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all college subjects. Thirty-two college students saw the male characters as sex symbols in eleven instances or 8.60 per cent of the time. The characters were cited as not a sex symbol fifty-three times or on 41.41 per cent of the time. In comparison to this, females were found to be sex symbols on fifty-three occasions or 41.41 per cent of the time. They were not sex symbols eleven times or in 8.60 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 56.32 exceeded 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 24. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Sex Symbol-Not a Sex Symbol Data Pertinent to the Questionnaire Administered to the College Subjects Viewing the film "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Sex Symbol	Not a Sex Symbol
Males	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 1, %= 1.79	f=27, %=48.22
N=14		Female	f=27, %=48.22	f= 1, %= 1.79
		$\chi^2=44.64^* (Y)$		
Females	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 7, %= 9.72	f=29, %=40.28
N=18		Female	f=29, %=40.28	f= 7, %= 9.72
		$\chi^2=26.64^*$		
Total	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=11, %= 8.60	f=53, %=41.41
College		Female	f=53, %=41.41	f=11, %= 8.60
Sample		$\chi^2=56.32^*$		
N=32				

\*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.

(Y) Yates correction for continuity applied.

IX. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING  
WITH THE FEMALE AS SUBORDINATE  
OR SUPERVISOR

Null Hypothesis

There is no difference between males and females in Walt Disney screenplays and films in the frequency in which they are depicted in business and the professions in supervisory and subordinate roles.

A. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA DEALING  
WITH THE CONTENT ANALYSIS  
OF SCREENPLAYS

Analysis of Table 25: Subordinate-  
Supervisor All Screenplays

Data compiled in Table 25 shows the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated chi-square values for the subordinate-supervisor data germane to the content analysis of all screenplays studied.

"We Belong Together." The male characters were accounted as supervisors twice or 11.76 per cent of the time in this script. The investigator judged them as subordinate on six occasions or on 35.29 per cent of the occurrences. The female characters, in a quite similar fashion, were observed to be supervisors twice or 11.75 per cent of the instances and subordinates seven times or in 41.18 per cent of the episodes. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 0.19 was smaller than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.

"Pollyanna." In this screenplay, the experimenter selected the male characters as supervisors nine times or 50.00 per cent of the time. He tallied them as subordinates four times or in 22.22 per cent of the cases. In contrast, he found the females as supervisors two times or in 11.11 per cent of the instances, and subordinate in three episodes or 16.67 per cent of the time. The  $\chi^2$  value of 0.52 was not significant at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

"The Newcomers." On four occasions in "The Newcomers" the investigator determined the males as supervisors. This was 33.33 per cent of the cases. He rated the male characters as subordinate on eight occurrences or 66.67 per cent of the time. He did not find the female characters as either supervisors or subordinates in business and the professions. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected. This rejection was of a highly tentative nature as it was based upon the observation of a limited number of occurrences.. According to William Theimer, the researcher's statistics adviser, no test of significance exists for a one cell frequency of this type.

"Old Yeller." In the script, "Old Yeller," neither the males nor the females were discovered as either supervisors or subordinates. The null hypothesis, therefore, was accepted.

"Bon Voyage." The researcher adjudged that the male characters in this screenplay were supervisors in seven instances, which was 24.14 per cent of the time. They were accounted as subordinates on twenty-two occasions or 75.86 per cent of the

time. The female characters were not observed to be either supervisors or subordinates in the script. The null hypothesis was rejected. This rejection was of a highly tentative nature as it was based upon the observation of a limited number of occurrences. According to William Theimer, the researcher's statistics adviser, no test of significance exists for a one cell frequency of this nature.

All screenplays. When the data for all screenplays were summarized, it was noted that the male characters were supervisors in business and the professions on twenty-two occasions or in 29.73 per cent of the cases. They were rated as subordinate thirty-eight times or on 51.35 per cent of the occasions. Female characters, on the other hand, were found to be supervisors on four occurrences or on 5.41 per cent of the time. They were assessed as subordinate ten times or 13.51 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value 0.067 was smaller than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was accepted.



Table 25. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Supervisor-Subordinate Data Related to the Content Analysis of the Five Screenplays

Screenplay	Sex	Supervisor	Subordinate
"We Belong Together"	Male	f= 2, %=11.76	f= 6, %=35.29
	Female	f= 2, %=11.76	f= 7, %=41.18
	$\chi^2=0.19$ (Y)		
"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 9, %=50.00	f= 4, %=22.22
	Female	f= 2, %=11.11	f= 3, %=16.67
	$\chi^2=0.52$ (Y)		
"The Newcomers"	Male	f= 4, %=33.33	f= 8, %=66.67
"Old Yeller"	Male	f= 0, %= 0.00	f= 0, %= 0.00
	Female	f= 0, %= 0.00	f= 0, %= 0.00
"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=22, %=29.73	f=38, %=51.35
	Female	f= 4, %= 5.41	f=10, %=13.51
	$\chi^2=.067$ (Y)		

\*Chi-square significant at 0.05 level.

(Y) Yates correction for continuity applied.

B. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE ELEMENTARY SUBJECTS  
WHO VIEWED THE TWO FILMS

Analysis of Table 26: Supervisor-  
Subordinate Data for All  
Films Shown

Data in Table 26 presents the frequency and percentage breakdowns and calculated  $\chi^2$  values of the supervisor-subordinate data collected with the questionnaire administered to the elementary subjects.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary males. The male characters were assessed as supervisors eighty-four times or 28.38 per cent of the time. They were appraised as subordinate on sixty-four occasions or 21.62 per cent of the time. Female characters were not seen as supervisors sixty-four times or on 21.62 per cent of the occasions. They were determined to be subordinate on eighty-four occurrences or 28.38 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 5.92 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by elementary females. The female subjects rated the male characters in this film as supervisors in seventy-nine instances, which was 33.48 per cent of the cases. They assessed them as subordinate thirty-nine times or on 16.53 per cent of the occurrences. Focusing on the female character, they rated them as supervisors thirty-nine times or 16.53 per cent of the time and as subordinates in seventy-nine episodes or in 33.48 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 28.32 exceeded 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Pollyanna" as seen by all elementary subjects. On 161 occasions the subjects cited the males as supervisors. This was 30.27 per cent of the instances. They reported the male characters as subordinates 105 times or 19.74 per cent of the time. The females were adjudged as supervisors on 105 occurrences

or 19.74 per cent of the time, while they were appraised as subordinates in 161 episodes or 30.27 per cent of the time. Because the  $\chi^2$  value 21.28 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary males. The subjects found the male characters in this film as supervisors in business and the professions ninety-one times or in 35.55 per cent of the cases recorded. They tallied them as subordinate thirty-seven times or 14.46 per cent of the time. In addition, they accounted the female characters as supervisors on thirty-seven occurrences or 14.46 per cent of the time. They rated them as subordinates ninety-one times or 35.55 per cent of the time. Since the  $\chi^2$  value 46.08 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by elementary females. It was reported by the female subjects that the males in "Bon Voyage" were supervisors in ninety-three episodes. This was 40.79 per cent of the cases. The males were cited as subordinate on twenty-one occasions or 9.21 per cent of the time. In comparison, the female characters were observed to be supervisors twenty-one times or 9.21 per cent of the time, whereas they were adjudged as subordinate in ninety-three instances or on 40.79 per cent of the occurrences. The null hypothesis was

rejected due to the fact that the  $\chi^2$  value 91.20 was significant at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all subjects. When the frequency counts of all the subjects were summed it was found that the male characters were judged as supervisors 181 times or 37.40 per cent of the time. They were appraised as subordinates sixty-one times or in 12.61 per cent of the cases. Female characters, on the contrary, were observed to be supervisors in business and in the professions sixty-one times or on 12.61 per cent of the occasions. They were ascertained to be subordinate on 181 instances or 37.40 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected because the  $\chi^2$  value of 121.00 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level.

Both films as seen by elementary males. These subjects recorded 175 instances in which the male characters were the supervisors in business and the professions. This amounted to 31.71 per cent of the cases. They enumerated 101 cases in which the males were the subordinates. This was 18.30 per cent of the time. In contrast to this, the females were judged to be the supervisors on 101 occurrences or 18.30 per cent of the time. Being subordinate was attributed to them on 175 occasions or 31.71 per cent of the time. As the  $\chi^2$  value of 38.64 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by elementary females. Female subjects found the male characters in both films as supervisors 172 times or 37.07 per cent of the time, while they observed them as subordinate sixty times or on 12.93 per cent of the occasions. Female characters were noted as supervisors sixty times or in 12.93 per cent of the episodes. In 172 instances the female was seen as a subordinate. This amounted to 37.07 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 134.56 surpassed 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Both films as seen by all elementary subjects. An analysis of this data showed that the male characters were rated as supervisors 342 times or on 33.66 per cent of the time. They were accounted as subordinates in 166 episodes or on 16.34 per cent of the occurrences. The data for females revealed that they were appraised as supervisors 166 times or on 16.34 per cent of the time. Subordinate females were found on 342 occasions or in 33.66 per cent of the cases. Since the  $\chi^2$  value of 182.88 was larger than 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 26. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Supervisor-Subordinate Data Related to the Questionnaire Administered to the Elementary Subjects Viewing the Films "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Supervisor	Subordinate
Males N=74	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 84, %=28.38	f= 64, %=21.62
		Female	f= 64, %=21.62	f= 84, %=28.38
			$\chi^2=5.92^*$	
Females N=59	"Pollyanna"	Male	f= 79, %=33.48	f= 39, %=16.53
		Female	f= 39, %=16.53	f= 79, %=33.48
			$\chi^2=28.32^*$	
Total Sample	"Pollyanna"	Male	f=161, %=30.27	f=105, %=19.74
		Female	f=105, %=19.74	f=161, %=30.27
			$\chi^2=21.28^*$	
Males N=64	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 91, %=35.55	f= 37, %=14.46
		Female	f= 37, %=14.46	f= 91, %=35.33
			$\chi^2=46.08^*$	
Females N=57	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f= 93, %=40.79	f= 21, %= 9.21
		Female	f= 21, %= 9.21	f= 93, %= 40.79
			$\chi^2=91.20^*$	
Total Sample N=121	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=181, %=37.40	f= 61, %=12.61
		Female	f= 61, %=12.61	f=181, %=37.40
			$\chi^2=121.00^*$	
Males N=138	Both films	Male	f=175, %=31.71	f=101, %=18.30
		Female	f=101, %=18.30	f=175, %=31.71
			$\chi^2=38.64^*$	
Females N=116	Both films	Male	f=172, %=37.07	f= 60, %=12.93
		Female	f= 60, %=12.93	f=172, %=37.07
			$\chi^2=134.56^*$	
Total Sample N=254	Both films	Male	f=342, %=33.66	f=166, %=16.34
		Female	f=166, %=16.34	f=342, %=33.66
			$\chi^2=182.88^*$	

\*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.

C. CONTINGENCY TABLES OF DATA COLLECTED  
WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED  
TO THE COLLEGE SUBJECTS WHO  
VIEWED "BON VOYAGE"

Analysis of Table 27: Supervisor-  
Subordinate Data for  
"Bon Voyage"

Table 27 presents the frequency and percentage breakdowns and the calculated  $\chi^2$  values for the supervisor-subordinate data collected with the questionnaire administered to the college subjects.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college males. The male characters were selected as supervisors by the subjects on twenty occasions or in 35.72 per cent of the cases. At the same time they rated the male characters as subordinate eight times or 14.29 per cent of the time. Eight times the female characters were found to be supervisors. This was in 14.29 per cent of the cases. They were noted to be subordinates on twenty occasions or in 35.72 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 11.20 was larger than 3.80, the value required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by college females. On thirty occurrences these subjects rated the male characters in "Bon Voyage" as supervisors in business and the professions. This was 41.67 per cent of the episodes. They thought that the males in the film were subordinate six times or on 8.34 per cent of the occasions. In addition, the subjects reported the female characters

as supervisors six times or 8.34 per cent of the time. The female characters were seen as subordinate thirty times in the film or 41.67 per cent of the time. The null hypothesis was rejected as the  $\chi^2$  value of 32.40 exceeded 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level.

"Bon Voyage" as seen by all college subjects. The subjects saw the male characters as supervisors in fifty instances or 39.07 per cent of the time. The male characters were adjudged as subordinate fourteen times or on 10.94 per cent of the occasions. In comparison to this, females were found to be supervisors on fourteen occurrences or 10.94 per cent of the time. They were subordinate fifty times or in 39.07 per cent of the cases. The  $\chi^2$  value of 39.68 surpassed 3.80, the level required for significance at the 0.05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 27. Frequency and Percentage Breakdowns and the Chi-square Values for the Supervisor-Subordinate Data Pertinent to the Questionnaire Administered to the College Subjects Viewing the film "Bon Voyage"

Subjects	Film	Sex	Supervisors	Subordinates
Males	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=20, %=35.72	f= 8, %=14.29
N=14		Female	f= 8, %=14.29	f=20, %=35.72
		$\chi^2=11.20^*$		
Females	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=30, %=41.67	f= 6, %= 8.34
N=18		Female	f= 6, %= 8.34	f=30, %=41.67
		$\chi^2=32.40^*$		
Total	"Bon Voyage"	Male	f=50, %=39.07	f=14, %=10.94
College		Female	f=14, %=10.94	f=50, %=39.07
Sample		$\chi^2=39.68^*$		
N=32				
*Chi-square significant at the .05 level.				



## X. SUMMARY

This chapter presented and analyzed contingency tables dealing with the following data: (1) contingency tables of data related to the screenplay content analysis, (2) contingency tables concerned with the questionnaire administered to the elementary subjects who viewed "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage" and (3) contingency tables of data pertinent to the questionnaire administered to the college subjects who viewed "Bon Voyage." One additional chapter, Chapter V: Summary of the Investigation and Recommendations for Further Study, completes the remainder of the study.

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSIONS BASED UPON THE INVESTIGATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

#### I. INTRODUCTION

The current descriptive study examined five Walt Disney screenplays and two Walt Disney films in order to gather data on the stereotyping of the role of the female. This investigation was organized and conducted by using the design and procedures outlined in Chapter III. The findings reported were based upon the data collected from applying the instruments designed for this study (see Appendices D and F) to the Walt Disney Productions screenplays and films. The statistical evidence from the treated data was reported in the previous chapter of the study. Various conclusions and recommendations were drawn from this study in terms relative to the hypotheses stated in Chapter I of this report. These are discussed and outlined in the two divisions which follow.

#### II. CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE INVESTIGATION

The following conclusions were drawn as a result of this study. They are presented under nine sub-headings: (1) Conclusions Relative to the Hypothesis Dealing with the Female as a Disciplinarian, (2) Conclusions Pertinent to the Hypothesis Dealing with the Female as Passive or Aggressive, (3) Conclusions Germane to the Hypothesis Dealing with the Female as

### Film Cross-Validation

1. That the female characters in the film "Pollyanna" were pictured as the disciplinarians of the children.
2. That the female characters in the film "Bon Voyage" were not depicted as the disciplinarians of the children.
3. That the female characters were portrayed as the disciplinarians of the children when the frequency counts of both films were combined.

### Discussion

In the first place, it can be noted that the cross-validation study using films verified the findings of the content analysis. In other words, in relation to discipline, the elementary and college subjects saw the females in "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage" exactly as the investigator did in his content analysis of these film's screenplays. This means that the content analysis in this case reflects what the subjects saw in the films produced from the screenplays.

Next, the investigator turned to the question of why the female was viewed as a disciplinarian in some screenplays and not in others.

One may ask why these different findings occurred in the scripts of Walt Disney Productions. The researcher believed that there are some similarities and differences between these scripts that lead to a logical explanation.

In the first place, "Old Yeller" and "The Newcomers" both have rural, historical settings. The rural background does not lead to females acting as disciplinarians. This view is supported by Hodges.<sup>426</sup> He holds that families with a rural heritage usually subscribe to the patriarchal value of husband-father dominance and wife-child subservience.

In a like manner, "We Belong Together" and "Pollyanna" have a pronounced similarity. The stories take place in situations in which the children are entrusted to the care of females. Pollyanna is the niece of Aunt Polly and the twins in "We Belong Together" are in a girls' summer camp in which Miss Inch is in charge. Significant males do not appear in either setting. Spiegel aptly describes what occurs when he says, "middle-class children are observed and analyzed by their mothers (in this case mother-substitutes) as though they were hothouse plants."<sup>427</sup>

The sex role of the female as disciplinarian as it is stereotyped by these two scripts is and has been a role which was popularized in our culture. In her classic work, Komarovsky presented a corroborative opinion: "Such data as we have

Such data as we have do not uphold the idea that the mother is generally the indulgent and supportive parent and the father the disciplinarian. For one thing, the noninvolvement of some fathers forces both roles upon the mother.<sup>428</sup>

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<sup>426</sup> Ibid., p. 13.

<sup>427</sup> John Spiegel, "New Perspectives in the Study of the Family," Marriage and Family Living, XVI (February, 1954) p. 12.

<sup>428</sup> Mirra Komarovsky, Blue-Collar Marriage, New York: Random House, 1964, p. 73.

It is the researcher's belief that the significant females in "Pollyanna" and "We Belong Together" are examples of women fulfilling the traditional woman's sex role. On the other hand, the film "Bon Voyage" pictured both father and mother figures in an intact family. It is the investigator's opinion that this film mirrors the change in American society away from the female as the sole disciplinarian of the children. The new directions were the focus of a statement by Rossi:

Child socialization is increasingly a shared enterprise between the parent and teacher, doctors, nurses, club leaders and instructors in an assortment of special skills.<sup>429</sup>

This view certainly described the shipboard scenes of "Bon Voyage" where the children not only interacted with the parents but with a myriad of specialists and peers. The independence of the children in this screenplay appears to be the result of these "new directions." The work of Von Mering substantiates this point:

The mother's role has changed in the direction of more rationality, greater stress of independence and autonomy in the children.<sup>430</sup>

Thus, the investigator concluded that the five screenplays analyzed merely reflected the stereotyped sex role expectations for females in our culture: (1) "Old Yeller" and "The Newcomers" the pattern of discipline in historical rural America, (2) "Pollyanna" and "We Belong Together," in a female dominated home, and (3) "Bon Voyage" in the emerging era of shared responsibility for child rearing.

<sup>429</sup> Alice S. Rossi, "Equality Between the Sexes: An Immodest Proposal," Daedalus, IXC (Spring, 1964), p. 608.

<sup>430</sup> Faye Von Mering, "Professional and NonProfessional Women as Mothers," Journal of Social Psychology, XLII (August, 1955), p. 21.

B. CONCLUSIONS RELATIVE TO THE HYPOTHESIS  
DEALING WITH THE FEMALE AS PASSIVE  
OR AGGRESSIVE

Conclusions Based Upon the Screenplay  
and Film Studies

In relation to his investigation of the hypothesis that Walt Disney films and screenplays picture the females as passive the researcher found:

Screenplay Content Analysis

1. That in the five screenplays analyzed the females were not pictured as passive.
2. That the female characters were not shown as passive when the frequency counts of all the screenplays were combined.

Film Cross-Validation

1. That the females were not depicted as passive in "Pollyanna" or "Bon Voyage."
2. That the female characters were not portrayed as passive when the frequency counts of both films were combined.

Discussion

Once again it may be stated with confidence that the cross-validation study confirmed the findings of the content analysis. Subjects evaluated the passive-aggressive posture of the female in the films "Pollyanna," and "Bon Voyage" exactly as the investigator judged the female characters in the scripts. In neither case did the females prove to be passive.

It appears to be a unique finding that the females in the screenplays investigated were not adjudged more passive than the males. Bardwick has stated that "Psychoanalysis sees

normal female sexuality as based upon passivity."<sup>431</sup> She goes on to qualify this, however: "Girls and women are more passive in that they are less motorically active than boys and men."<sup>432</sup>

Considering the contents of "Old Yeller" and "The Newcomers" it is clear to the investigator why the females in these scripts did not appear passive in relation to the males. These females rode horses, shot guns and drove wagons. They could definitely be described as motorically active. By comparison, the females in "Pollyanna," "We Belong Together," and "Bon Voyage" were aggressive in a different sense. This type of aggression has been described by Rossi as "constructive aggression."<sup>433</sup> She feels that constructive aggression should be cultivated in girls and approved in women so that a female of any age would be similarly free to express these qualities in her social relationships.

This "constructive aggression" was discussed by Feshback:

Girls are not likely to hit, kick, bite and wrestle, which are typical forms of aggression. But girls are likely to get a powerful adult to intervene for them, employ verbal slings and arrows and mark aggression as solicitous caring.<sup>434</sup>

This was the form of aggression practiced by Pollyanna in her transformation of the lives of some of the townspeople.

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<sup>431</sup>Judith M. Bardwick, Psychology of Women, New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1971, p. 7.

<sup>432</sup>Op. cit., p. 13.

<sup>433</sup>Ibid., p. 608.

<sup>434</sup>Norma Feshback, "Little Girls are not as Nice as Boys," Free Press, I (March 3, 1966), p. 39.

"Constructive aggression" is an apt term to describe the ploy of the twins in "We Belong Together" as they change roles and reunite their divorced parents.

This is the form of aggression that Katie used in "Bon Voyage" to rekindle her spouse's dying affections through arousing his jealousy of Rudolph, the "lady killer."

Hence the investigator concluded that females were not portrayed as passive in the screenplays investigated. This is a finding of signal importance. As Rossi would have it, millions of females in their formative years are being exposed to female characters in Disney productions who are modeling "constructive aggression." This may help to encourage these female viewers to feel free to express this quality in their social relationships.

#### C. CONCLUSIONS RELATIVE TO THE HYPOTHESIS DEALING WITH THE FEMALE AS DEPENDENT OR INDEPENDENT

##### Conclusions Based Upon the Screenplay and Film Studies

In relation to his investigation of the hypothesis that Walt Disney screenplays and films show the females as dependent upon others for support, care, help, or direction, the researcher found:

##### Screenplay Content Analysis

1. That none of the five screenplays analyzed showed the female characters as dependent upon others for support, care, help, or direction.



2. That the female characters were not pictured as dependent upon others for support, care, help, or direction when the frequency counts of all the screenplays were combined.

#### Film Cross-Validation

1. That the female characters were shown as dependent upon others for support, care, help, or direction in both "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage."
2. That the female characters were shown as dependent upon others for support, care, help, or direction when the frequency counts of both films were combined.

#### Discussion

The film cross-validation did not substantiate the findings of the content analysis of the screenplays. Film viewing subjects judged the female characters in the films "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage" to be dependent upon the males. In contrast to this, the investigator did not find the female characters in the screenplays for the two films mentioned above to be dependent. When the leading female characters of "Pollyanna" are considered, one encounters anything but dependent females. Aunt Polly is the wealthiest woman in town. She owns the factory upon which most of the townspeople depend. She not only controls the economic destiny of the town, she dominates the political life--the mayor is only a figurehead--people look to her for civic decisions. Furthermore, she holds sway over the religious experience of the townspeople, for the minister takes her suggestions. Her niece, Pollyanna, is so autonomous that she overturns her aunt's control of the town.

The females in "Bon Voyage," Katherine the mother, and Amy the adolescent daughter, are nearly as independent. If anyone in the two films would be judged as dependent, it would be the father in "Bon Voyage." He is the typical absent-minded professor. His escapades include getting lost in the sewers of Paris, and forgetting the boat tickets. These are but a few of the reasons that the females were not rated as dependent in the content analysis of the scripts for these films. This leads the researcher to seek an explanation for the subjects' rating of the female characters from these films as dependent.

One explanation is that the subjects had a particular set attitude for the sex role of the females before they saw the film, and even though what they viewed did not match this expectation, they responded to the questionnaire on the basis of this set attitude. This expectation that the female would be dependent in her social relationships developed from childhood. For instance, Horner contended that females are socialized for dependency.<sup>435</sup> Bardwick corroborated this stand: "Unlike males, females tend to continue in the dependent relationships that are characteristic of all young children."<sup>436</sup>

Finally, Kagan too, insisted that females are patterned for dependency. "Studies show girls to be more dependent than boys and this difference persists as the children grow older."<sup>437</sup>

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<sup>435</sup>Matina Horner, "Fail: Bright Women," Psychology Today, III (November, 1969), p. 36.

<sup>436</sup>Ibid., p. 4.

<sup>437</sup>J. Kagan and H. A. Moss, Birth to Maturity, New York: Wiley, 1962, p.117.

Apparently, there is reason to believe that the subjects expected to see dependent females and independent males. When they did not, why did they respond as if they did? This researcher concludes that the subjects had a particular set which caused them to judge the females as dependent. The attitude change research of Sebald<sup>438</sup> seems to support this theory. He contended that an individual perceives and recalls information only if it reinforces his prior images, and he distorts statements to eliminate dissonant material.

Therefore, in light of the above discussion, no conclusion concerning the stereotyping of the females as dependent-independent in the Walt Disney screenplays reviewed in the content analysis may be drawn.

#### D. CONCLUSIONS RELATIVE TO THE HYPOTHESIS DEALING WITH THE FEMALE AS ARTISTIC OR NOT ARTISTIC

##### Conclusions Based Upon the Screenplay and Film Studies

In relation to his investigation of the hypothesis that Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the females as artistic the researcher found:

##### Screenplay Content Analysis

1. The female characters were not pictured as artistic in any of the five screenplays studied.

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<sup>438</sup>Hans Sebald, "Limitations of Communication: Mechanisms of Image Maintenance in Form of Selective Perception, Selective Memory and Selective Distortion," Journal of Social Psychology, LIV (February, 1961), p. 142.

2. That the female characters were not depicted as artistic when the frequency counts of all the screenplays were combined.

#### Film Cross-Validation

1. That the female characters were seen as artistic in the film "Pollyanna."
2. That the female characters were seen as artistic in the film "Bon Voyage" by the elementary females.
3. That the female characters were not seen as artistic in the film "Bon Voyage" by the elementary males or the college subjects.
4. That female characters were seen as artistic when the frequency counts of both films were combined.

#### Discussion

The inability of the content analysis study to account for any activity not written into a screenplay which may occur in the film version of that screenplay explains most of the variation between the screenplay content analysis and the film cross-validation. "Pollyanna" did picture the sewing products of females. These were not mentioned in the script. Thus, when subjects saw "Pollyanna," they selected the females as artistic, as one would expect.

"Bon Voyage," in comparison, was filmed in Paris. It pictured male and female street artists. Once again, no mention of these background scenes was made in the screenplay, so the difference between the film cross-validation and the content analysis is resolvable.

In addition, a discrepancy between the finding for the female elementary subjects and the male elementary and college subjects may be noted in relation to this film. In this case, the elementary school females reported that the female characters were more artistic than the male characters, but all other subjects found no differences in the film characters in artistic properties.

Goldberg<sup>438</sup> performed a study that may help resolve this problem. In studying the ways in which females rate art products, he discovered that females may overvalue a female accomplishment which is rare. Hence, one might expect elementary girls who may never have seen a female artist to overvalue that experience and thus respond to their questionnaire differently from the male subjects or the more experienced college females.

In view of the discussion above, although the data of the screenplay content analysis pointed to no stereotyping of the females in these Walt Disney scripts as artistic, no conclusion may be drawn. The cross-validation study did not support such a resolution.

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<sup>438</sup>Phillip Goldberg, "Evaluation of the Performance of Women as a Function of Their Sex, Achievement and Personal History," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, XIX (January, 1971), p. 144.

E. CONCLUSIONS RELATIVE TO THE HYPOTHESIS DEALING WITH  
THE FEMALE AS MECHANICAL OR  
NOT MECHANICAL

Conclusions Based Upon the Screenplay  
and Film Studies

In relation to his investigation of the hypothesis that Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the females as being inferior to the males in performing mechanical repairs, the researcher found:

Screenplay Content Analysis

1. That the female characters were not pictured as inferior to the males in performing mechanical repairs by any of the five screenplays studied.
2. That the female characters were not portrayed as inferior to males in performing mechanical repairs when the frequency counts of all the screenplays were combined.

Film Cross-Validation

1. That the female characters were seen to be inferior to the males in performing mechanical repairs in the films "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage."
2. That the female characters were seen to be inferior to the males in performing mechanical repairs when the frequency counts of the two films were combined.

Discussion

To start with, the film cross-validation study did not establish the findings of the screenplay studies. The subjects who viewed the films saw the females as inferior to the males in mechanical traits, whereas, the content analysis yielded no difference between the sexes. Once again, the limitation of the content analysis to the verbal content of the film seems

to be the most adequate explanation of this discrepancy in findings. The films portray background scenes not mentioned in the scripts. There were scenes in both films picturing men performing mechanical repairs. The direction for these incidents was omitted from the scripts. The researcher believes that the picturing of mechanical males in "Bon Voyage" was unplanned in most instances, as the picture was made on location in Paris. Much of that city's normal activity was included as background for the action recorded in the screenplay. As for the film "Pollyanna" there were shots of construction work which appeared in the film that were not mentioned in that film's screenplay.

In spite of the lack of accord between the screenplays and cross-validation films, the investigator believes that the subjects' film impressions (that the females in Walt Disney films were inferior to males in the ability to perform mechanical repairs) reflected the reality of cultural sex role expectations concerning the male and female. This viewpoint was corroborated in a study by Lipinski. When she asked females to list the kinds of things they had done which they considered as accomplishments and achievements, she discovered that the number including mechanical endeavors was insignificant.<sup>439</sup>

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<sup>439</sup> Beatrice Lipinski, Sex Role Conflicts and Achievement Motivation Among Women (unpublished doctor's dissertation, University of Michigan, 1966), pp. 1-246.

In addition to this, when Peterson made a count of female names listed among registered apprentices for skilled occupations, she found fewer than one per cent were women. She attributed this to the fact that the trades excluded females because of the physical strength requirements.<sup>440</sup>

Even though the mechanical endeavors appeared to be a part of the sex-role orientation of the male, Coleman reported a change:

No longer is it considered unfeminine for women to enter fields requiring courage, strength, and objectivity. Women are entering occupations long dominated by males, such as engineering and architecture.<sup>441</sup>

In conclusion, the investigator cannot draw the inference that Disney films are stereotyping the female as inferior to the male in mechanical endeavors due to the results of the findings for the screenplays. Neither can he ignore the fact that the subjects viewing the films did report the finding that matches the sex-role expectation of the female as being inferior to the male in mechanical ability.

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<sup>440</sup> Esther Peterson, "Working Women," Daedalus, XCIII (Spring, 1964), p. 678.

<sup>441</sup> James C. Coleman, Psychology and Effective Behavior, Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1969, p. 344.



F. CONCLUSIONS RELATIVE TO THE HYPOTHESIS  
DEALING WITH THE FEMALE AS EXCESSIVELY  
TALKATIVE OR NOT EXCESSIVELY  
TALKATIVE

Conclusions Based Upon the Screenplay  
and Film Studies

In relation to his investigation of the hypothesis that Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being excessively talkative, the researcher found:

Screenplay Content Analysis

1. That the female characters were not pictured as excessively talkative in any of the five screenplays studied.
2. That the female characters were not portrayed as excessively talkative when the frequency counts of all the screenplays were combined.

Film Cross-Validation

1. That the female characters were depicted as excessively talkative in the film "Pollyanna."
2. That the female characters were not seen as excessively talkative in the film "Bon Voyage" by any of the subjects except the female college students.
3. That the female characters were seen as excessively talkative when the frequency counts of both films were combined.

Discussion

The content analysis was not corroborated by the film cross-validation. The researcher purposes a two-part interpretation of these results. To begin with, the use of the content analysis instrument to record excessive talkative behavior required that a character in the script comment that another character was excessively verbal. This occurred three times in "Pollyanna" and five times in "Bon Voyage." Frequencies of

three and five were insufficient in terms of forming conclusions. Thus, the investigator in attempting to avoid excessive tallying of the talkative characteristic may have restricted his content analysis technique to such an extent that it was impossible to attain a frequency required to be considered significant. This may well explain why the content analysis of the screenplays did not result in a difference between males and females.

The second part of the problem concerned the film cross-validation. In the film study of "Bon Voyage" the college females were the only subjects to rate the females as excessively talkative. This may have been due to the fact that the college females were overly conscious of a sex-role expectation.

Bernard elucidated this expectation when she said, "Studies show that in mixed company men talk more than women."<sup>442</sup> Furthermore, Douvan noted that a female date is expected to be a good listener in conversation and never too aggressive.<sup>443</sup> Katie and Amy, the female leads in "Bon Voyage" could not be described as good listeners who deferred conversation to males in mixed company. Thus, the college age subjects who had learned to conform to societal expectations may have rated the Disney characters as excessively talkative because of this sex role expectation violation and not because the female characters in the film actually talked more than the male characters.

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<sup>442</sup> Jessie Bernard, The Sex Game, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1968, p. 175.

<sup>443</sup> Elizabeth Douvan, New Sources of Conflict in Females at Adolescence and Early Adulthood, Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1970, p. 38.

In light of the above discussion, the investigator cannot conclude whether or not the females in the Walt Disney screenplays studied were being stereotyped as excessively talkative or not.

G. CONCLUSIONS RELATIVE TO THE HYPOTHESIS  
DEALING WITH THE FEMALE AS A SEX  
SYMBOL OR NOT AS A SEX SYMBOL

Conclusions Based Upon the Screenplay  
and Film Studies

In relation to his investigation of the hypothesis that Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as a sex symbol, the researcher found:

Screenplay Content Analysis

1. That the female characters were not pictured as sex symbols in any of the five screenplays studied.
2. That the female characters were not depicted as sex symbols when the frequency counts of all the screenplays were combined.

Film Cross-Validation

1. That the female characters were portrayed as sex symbols in the film "Pollyanna."
2. That the female characters were portrayed as sex symbols in the film "Bon Voyage."
3. That the female characters were seen as sex symbols when the frequency counts of both films were combined.

Discussion

Once more the content analysis of the screenplays was not cross-validated by the film study. The researcher found by using the content analysis method that the females were not pictured in the screenplays as sex symbols. The subjects who

saw the films, in contrast to this, saw the females as sex symbols. The investigator believes that there were two reasons for this disparity. Initially, the investigator believes that he limited the usefulness of the content analysis instrument when he made the qualification that before he would tally a character as a sex symbol, another character in the script had to make a comment which would point to the sex symbolism. In the second place, visual clues to sex symbolism would not appear in a screenplay.

The reaction of the subjects to the females in the two Disney films was in accord with societal expectations for the female. Bardwick describes the sex symbolism aptly:

It is very interesting that in this culture emphasis and rewards are reserved for the cosmetic exterior of the sexual body--as though breasts and hips were created specifically for purposes of seduction.<sup>444</sup>

Although this view of female sexuality is currently a phenomenon, it is culturally derived and changes from time to time.

As Bernard contended:

Because women can be both Dark Ladies and White Maidens, they have been pictured as evil sex-driven temptresses and as pure, sexless madonnas; men have attributed to them sexuality identical to their own, rejecting it with horror at times, welcoming it with joy at others. Partly as a result of these differences, the 'real' nature of female sexuality as compared with male sexuality is not always clear.<sup>445</sup>

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<sup>444</sup>Bardwick, op. cit., p.8.

<sup>445</sup>Bernard, op. cit., p. 55.

Some authors believe that the pendulum is now swinging away from the sex symbolism of the female as the subjects reported it in these Disney films cross-validations. Winick feels there is a convergence of the sex role. This "new look" is described as follows:

A modishly dressed couple might be walking along with the woman in hip-length boots, basic black leather coat, a helmet, and a pants suit or straight line dress of heavy fabric. Her male companion might be wearing a soft pastel slack suit, mauve hat, and a frilled and cuff-linked pink shirt. He could sport a delicate tie and jewelry, exude fragrance, and wear tapered shoes with stacked high heels. Both could have shoulder length hair, and their silhouettes would be quite indistinguishable.<sup>446</sup>

Bardwick agrees with him:

Because Americulture overspecializes its sex-role prescription for adolescents, it is no accident that the youth protest has focused so deliberately on these issues. Girl hippies refuse to wash their hair and seem, rather, intent on washing out all external signs of feminine attractiveness.<sup>447</sup>

In conclusion, the subjects who viewed "Pollyanna" and "Bon Voyage" films made in the 1960's, saw the female as a sex symbol. Even though this finding was consistent with what might be expected, the researcher, on the basis of his content analysis, cannot affirm that the screenplays studied did not stereotype the female characters as sex symbols.

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<sup>446</sup>C. Winick, "The Beige Epoch: Depolarization of Sex Roles in America," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, CCCLXXVI (March, 1968), p. 21.

<sup>447</sup>Bardwick, op. cit., p. 41.

## H. CONCLUSIONS RELATIVE TO THE HYPOTHESIS DEALING WITH THE FEMALE IN BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS AS SUPERVISOR OR SUBORDINATE

### Conclusions Based Upon the Screenplay and Film Studies

In relation to his investigation of the hypothesis that Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the females in business and the professions in subordinate roles, the researcher found:

#### Screenplay Content Analysis

1. That the female characters were not pictured as being in subordinate roles in business and the professions in any of the five screenplays studied.
2. That the female characters were not depicted as being in subordinate roles in business and the professions when the frequency counts of all the screenplays were combined.

#### Film Cross-Validation

1. That the female characters were seen as being in subordinate roles in business and the professions in the film "Pollyanna."
2. That the female characters were portrayed as being in subordinate roles in business and the professions in the film "Bon Voyage."
3. That the female characters were seen as being in subordinate roles in business and the professions when the frequency counts of both films were combined.

### Discussion

Once again the content analysis and film cross-validation results are at odds. The content analysis showed that the female characters in the scripts were not in subordinate positions in business and the professions. The film cross-validations did find the females subordinate to the males in the world of work.

This divergence cannot be attributed to the format of the content analysis instrument. The screenplay made the occupational roles of the characters quite clear. It is possible that the numerous characters who appeared incidentally in the films in background scenes or stand-in parts made the difference. Of course, these characters would not be apparent in a screenplay. ~~Another feasible account is that the subjects'~~ prior image of male supervisors and female subordinates in business and the professions caused them to perceive and recall only the character's status who reinforced this image. This theory of Sebald's has been discussed above.

Whatever the explanation of this disparity may be, it is certain that the female in our society is currently employed in subordinate positions in the business world. In a recent work Smuts reported that over half of all employed women are in jobs such as teaching, nursing, or clerical work.<sup>448</sup> What is surprising is that the position of women in the work world is not improving.

According to Knudsen: "as measured by income, education and occupation, we know women's status (relative to man's) has declined in the last twenty-three years."<sup>449</sup>

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<sup>448</sup>Robert W. Smuts, Women and Work in America, New York: Schocken Company, 1971, p. 221.

<sup>449</sup>Dean Knudsen, "The Declining Status of Women" Social Forces, XL (December, 1969), p. 183.

This view is substantiated by Bardwick who feels that

Since most working women are content with an agreeable job that makes limited demands, and since they are not striving for positions of power, there has not really been a radical reversal of the traditional occupation roles in the United States.<sup>450</sup>

One might ask how with greater educational opportunity and legislative support women continue to remain in subordinate positions to men in business and the professions.

Horner offers one explanation. She comments that

. . .as a whole society has been unable to reconcile personal ambition, accomplishment, and success with femininity. The more successful a woman becomes, the more afraid society is that she has lost her femininity and therefore must be a failure as a wife and mother.<sup>451</sup>

This is why Coleman believes so many women are willing to settle for subordinate jobs and are more accepting of discrimination in pay and promotional opportunities.<sup>452</sup>

Thus, it is apparent that the subjects who viewed the films reported what might be anticipated. But because the cross-validation and content analysis did not agree, the investigator can not present a conclusion that the Walt Disney screenplays studied do or do not stereotype the female as a subordinate in business and the professions.

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<sup>450</sup>Bardwick, op. cit., p. 147.

<sup>451</sup>Matina Horner, Femininity and Successful Achievement: A Basic Inconsistency, Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1970, p. 55.

<sup>452</sup>Coleman, op. cit., p. 345.



## I. CONCLUSIONS OF GENERAL CONCERN

In his investigation, the researcher drew the following conclusions related to the screenplay content analysis and film cross-validation:

1. That the investigator's perceptions of the stereotyping of the female characters as measured by the content analysis procedure, ~~generally differed from the subjects' perceptions of the stereotyping of the female characters in the films, as measured by the questionnaire.~~

This discrepancy between the findings for the screenplays and for the films was noted for six out of eight comparisons made. This phenomenon is consistent with the theory of Fritz.<sup>453</sup> He contended that there is a fundamental difference between the act of reading a written communication--screenplay--and the pictorial experience--viewing a film.

Three possible explanations of the disparity were suggested above: (1) the restrictions placed upon some of the categories, i.e. sex symbol may have limited its use, (2) background scenes in the films may have provided data for film viewers which was not available in the screenplay, and (3) the subjects may have held preconceived images which, if not reinforced in the film, caused them to distort what they actually saw in the film.

This finding may well be the most significant contribution of this study, for it experimentally corroborated the theory that reading a written communication and viewing a filmed presentation of that written communication afford different reactions.

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<sup>453</sup>Fritz, loc. cit.

This is vital to consider in the production and use of films. For, if one expects the outcome of a film viewing to reflect the script or narrative that it is based upon and only affect those attitudes, cognitive learnings, and behaviors anticipated, he is expecting only a vestige of the many eventualities which may materialize when the film is screened.

2. That the male and female subjects who saw the films of the current study did not generally differ in their view of the male and female characters in relation to the hypotheses under examination.

Male and female comparisons were made on the hypotheses a total of forty-eight times in this study. Males and females were in agreement on forty occasions or 83 per cent of the time.

Elementary male and female subjects made decisions on the eight hypotheses relating to the study of the film "Pollyanna." They agreed seven times or in 87 per cent of the instances. On the hypothesis dealing with the female as passive or aggressive, the males saw the females as aggressive. The females saw no difference between the characters on this trait. It may well be that the females accepted the behaviors of the females as "constructive aggression," and did not tally it as such because it was a normal female coping behavior.

Elementary and female subjects made decisions on the eight hypotheses related to the study of the film "Bon Voyage." They agreed seven out of the eight, or in 87 per cent of the instances. They disagreed on the hypothesis related to the female characters as artists. The male characters saw no difference in the characters in this trait. The female characters

were judged by the female subjects as artistic. It may be as explained above, that when the female sees a rare female behavior she may overvalue it and block out other perceptions.

Elementary male and female subject decision comparisons were made for the combined films on eight occurrences. They agreed eight times out of eight. This was 100 per cent of the occasions.

College male and female subjects made decisions on the hypotheses eight times. They were in agreement in six cases, or 75 per cent of the instances. One point of disagreement was in the area of dependence-independence. The males saw no difference between the film characters in this trait. The females observed that the male film characters were more independent. This may have been due to a preconceived image of the male as independent--an image which when not reinforced by the film was nevertheless maintained. The second characteristic that these subjects disagreed about was talkativeness. The males saw no difference in the film characters. The females saw the female characters as more talkative. This is an area in which the females may have judged the female characters because of the mix-company talking theory concerning females, discussed above.

College male and elementary female subjects agreed on the hypotheses six out of eight times. This was 75 per cent of the cases. The first of the two hypotheses these subjects disagreed on was the one concerning dependence-independence. The males saw no differences between the film characters. The females thought that the male characters were more independent.

Like their college counterparts, these elementary females may have had a preconceived image about the male being independent that the film did not reinforce, so they distorted the film material to match their image of the male.

In addition, these subjects disagreed on the female film characters as artistic. The college males saw no sex differences in the film characters. The elementary females did. They reported that the female film characters were more artistic than the males. As in the case with the elementary males, the female subjects may have overvalued a rare occurrence and distorted their view of the film.

College female and elementary male subjects were compared on the hypotheses eight times. They were in accord in six of the eight times, or 75 per cent of the cases. In the first place, the subjects disagreed on the passive-aggressive traits. The college females accounted the female film characters aggressive. The elementary males did not see a difference between the film characters. This may be due to the fact that the college females observed "constructive aggression" on the part of the female film characters. The unsophisticated elementary males may not have recognized this as aggression.

Finally, these subjects did not agree on the talkative-not talkative trait. The elementary males saw no difference between the film characters. The college females indicated that the film females were more talkative than the film males. This may have been due to the mix-company reaction explained above.

In view of the data presented, it appears that the males and females, regardless of age, reacted nearly the same in relation to the hypotheses under study. It appears that sex roles are agreed upon by the sexes and do not vary much from the elementary to the college years. This is an important finding for those involved in occupations serving people. It helps one understand so many facets of human attitude, learning, and behavior, and must be taken into account if any modification of these characteristics is to occur.

#### J. SUMMARY

It was suggested by the researcher that the most significant conclusion of the present study was that the content analysis of the Walt Disney screenplays and the cross-validation study of the two Walt Disney films generally differed. This substantiated a theory posed by Fritz. This conclusion was based upon the following determinations for the individual hypotheses:

In the first place, it was concluded that discipline practices in Walt Disney scripts reflected the female's role as disciplinarian in relation to the setting of the film. The film cross-validation was in agreement with the content analysis.

Furthermore, it was concluded by the investigator on the basis of the content analysis of the screenplays, that the females in Walt Disney scripts were not portrayed as being passive. The film cross-validation verified this hypothesis.

In relation to the remaining hypotheses, it must be emphasized that the content analysis and film cross-validation studies did not agree. Therefore, no firm conclusions could be drawn concerning the stereotyping of the females in the Walt Disney screenplays in relation to: (1) the female as dependent or independent, (2) the female as artistic or not artistic, (3) the female as mechanical or not mechanical, (4) the female as talkative or not talkative, (5) the female as a sex symbol or not a sex symbol, and (6) the female as supervisor or subordinate in business and the professions.

Finally, another conclusion of import was that the male and female subjects who viewed the films as part of the cross-validation study did not generally differ in their view of the male and female characters in relation to the hypotheses under examination.

### III. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The researcher believes that this investigation has indicated the need for additional study in the area of screenplays and films as they relate to the stereotyping of the female role. Since the examination of stereotyping of the role of the female in screenplays and films is relatively an unsearched area, it is hoped that the findings of this study will help to motivate others to conduct analyses in this field. The following specific suggestions are thought by the investigator to be the most important:

1. That descriptive research be performed to examine possible stereotyping of the female in screenplays and films produced by commercial film makes other than the Disney Productions.
2. That the study be replicated, using improved content analysis instruments with more current Disney Productions films and screenplays.
3. That the study be replicated utilizing theater audiences as subjects.
4. That experimental studies be conducted with Walt Disney films to determine their effect in altering viewer attitudes, cognition and social behavior.
5. That descriptive and experimental studies be performed to explore the fundamental difference between the act of reading a screenplay and that of viewing a film.
6. That data be collected on a number of subject variables such as race, academic ability, language facility, interests, attitudes, family and other factors in an effort to confirm any relationships between these variables and the stereotyping of the role of the female in Walt Disney films.
7. That a larger sample of college subjects be utilized in connection with a replication of this study.
8. That a replication of the study be performed employing different hypotheses which are suggested by the literature pertinent to the stereotyping of the female. Areas such as creativity, bravery, perseverance, curiosity, sportsmanship, industry, and self-respect need further exploration.

#### IV. SUMMARY

The current study has answered certain questions about the frequency, and percentage representation of the females as they have been judged as stereotyped in Walt Disney Productions screenplays and films. It is hoped that this

investigation will prove to be valuable to parents, equal rights committee, the general public, employers, film makers, teachers, and social scientists as a means of sharpening their perceptions of the stereotyping of females which has been and is currently being presented to children in the Walt Disney Productions films.

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However, other unanswered questions have been exposed by this investigation which has been restricted to a small portion of the entire field of Walt Disney screenplays and films. The area of the stereotyping of the female in screenplays and films has seen little if any research. Hopefully, this investigation may prove to be only one of numerous other studies dealing in the area of the stereotyping of the female in films.



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APPENDIX A.

WILLIAM DOVER'S LETTER TO THE INVESTIGATOR

DATED SEPTEMBER 16, 1971



# WALT DISNEY PRODUCTIONS

500 SO. BUENA VISTA ST. • BURBANK, CALIFORNIA 91505 • CABLE ADDRESS: DISNEY

September 16, 1971

Mr. Jerry P. Houseman  
School of Education  
University of the Pacific  
Stockton, California

Dear Mr. Houseman:

Ron Miller turned over your letter of September 14 to this office with the request that I do everything to be helpful.

As a matter of policy we do not send our scripts out of the studio, as there have been unfortunate experiences when they fall into the hands of people who use them to their own benefit.

In your case, however, we are sending under separate cover screenplays of five of our successful films, each of which presents a strong woman's role. They are as follows:

POLLYANNA  
OLD YELLER  
BON VOYAGE  
PARENT TRAP ("We Belong Together")  
WILD COUNTRY ("The Newcomers")

We do make one request, however, that these be returned to us as soon as they have served your purpose, as they are required for our files.

Wishing you best of luck with your paper.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "W B Dover".

William B. Dover  
Executive Story Editor

WBD/pw  
Under separate cover: 5 scripts  
cc: Ron Miller

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APPENDIX B.  
FORMS USED BY THE JUDGES IN THE  
DETERMINATION OF THE VALIDITY OF  
THE HYPOTHESES AND CONTENT  
ANALYSIS DEFINITIONS

CONTENT VALIDATION OF THE HYPOTHESES FOR  
A STUDY OF SELECTED  
WALT DISNEY SCREENPLAYS AND FILMS AND THE STEREOTYPING  
OF THE ROLE OF THE FEMALE

DIRECTIONS: Critically examine each hypothesis and make a judgment as to its relevance to the subject of stereotyping of the female.

Hypothesis One

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as the disciplinarian of the children.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female?

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Two

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as passive.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female?

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_



Hypothesis Six

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being excessively talkative.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Seven

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as a sex symbol.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Eight

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female in business and the professions in subordinate roles.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female? Yes ☒ No ☐

Signature G Lewis

Title Asst Prof Soc

Institution COP

Date 15 April 72



CONTENT VALIDATION OF THE HYPOTHESES FOR  
A STUDY OF SELECTED  
WALT DISNEY SCREENPLAYS AND FILMS AND THE STEREOTYPING  
OF THE ROLE OF THE FEMALE

DIRECTIONS: Critically examine each hypothesis and make a judgment as to its relevance to the subject of stereotyping of the female.

Hypothesis One

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as the disciplinarian of the children.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female?

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Two

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as passive.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female?

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Three

Walt Disney screenplays and films show the female as dependent upon others for support, care, help or direction.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female?

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Four

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female as artistic.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Five

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being inferior to the male in performing mechanical repairs.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female?

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Six

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being excessively talkative.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Seven

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as a sex symbol.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Eight

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female in business and the professions in subordinate roles.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female? Yes ☒ No ☐

Signature E. H. Brumbeak

Title Inspector, Social Science Div.

Institution San Joaquin Delta Community College

Date 4 - 15 - 72

CONTENT VALIDATION OF THE HYPOTHESES FOR  
A STUDY OF SELECTED  
WALT DISNEY SCREENPLAYS AND FILMS AND THE STEREOTYPING  
OF THE ROLE OF THE FEMALE

DIRECTIONS: Critically examine each hypothesis and make a judgment as to its relevance to the subject of stereotyping of the female.

Hypothesis One

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as the disciplinarian of the children.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female?

Yes ☒

No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Two

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as passive.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female?

Yes ☒

No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Three

Walt Disney screenplays and films show the female as dependent upon others for support, care, help or direction.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female?

Yes ☒

No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Four

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female as artistic.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Five

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being inferior to the male in performing mechanical repairs.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female?

Yes ☒

No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Six

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being excessively talkative.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Seven

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as a sex symbol.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Eight

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female in business and the professions in subordinate roles.

Is this hypothesis representative of an important factor involved in the stereotyping of the female? Yes ☒ No ☐

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Title \_\_\_\_\_

Institution \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

Signature William L. P. C.  
Title Assistant Professor of Sociology  
Institution Georgia State College  
Date January 23, 1972

VALIDATION OF THE CONTENT ANALYSIS DEFINITIONS FOR  
A STUDY OF SELECTED  
WALT DISNEY SCREENPLAYS AND FILMS AND THE STEREOTYPING OF  
THE ROLE OF THE FEMALE

**DIRECTIONS:** Please critically examine each definition below. Make a judgment as to the definition's content relative to the substance of the hypothesis.

Hypothesis One

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as the disciplinarian of the children.

Content Analysis Definition

Disciplinarian: one who administers discipline or enforces order, who demands and secures a high degree of conformity to rules.

Sex	Disciplinarian	Not a Disciplinarian
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Two

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as passive.

Content Analysis Definition

Aggressive: a tendency to forceful, outgoing action; characterized by taking the initiative, defending vigorously, and losing few opportunities to exhibit the self or that with which the self is identified; the opposite of the tendency to avoid danger or the disagreeable by withdrawal.

Passive: not acting but acted upon; receptive to outside impressions or influences; not active or operating; quiescent; relieving or enduring without resistance.



Sex	Passive	Aggressive
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Three

Walt Disney screenplays and films show the female as dependent upon others for support, care, help or direction.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Dependent: relying on someone or something else for support, care, help or direction.

Independent: absence of reliance on others for support, care, help, or direction; self-reliant.

Sex	Dependent	Independent
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Four

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female as artistic.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Artistic: a person with a combination of traits involving the capacity for judgments of design and form, indicated by special aptitude or talent and acquired skill in creative arts, such as music, drawing, painting, sewing, design or modeling.

Note: this talent should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

VALIDATION OF THE CONTENT ANALYSIS DEFINITIONS FOR  
A STUDY OF SELECTED  
WALT DISNEY SCREENPLAYS AND FILMS AND THE STEREOTYPING OF  
THE ROLE OF THE FEMALE

**DIRECTIONS:** Please critically examine each definition below. Make a judgment as to the definition's content relative to the substance of the hypothesis.

Hypothesis One

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as the disciplinarian of the children.

Content Analysis Definition

Disciplinarian: one who administers discipline or enforces order, who demands and secures a high degree of conformity to rules.

Sex	Disciplinarian	Not a Disciplinarian
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Two

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as passive.

Content Analysis Definition

Aggressive: a tendency to forceful, outgoing action, characterized by taking the initiative, defending vigorously, and losing few opportunities to exhibit the self or that with which the self is identified; the opposite of the tendency to avoid danger or the disagreeable by withdrawal.

Passive: not acting but acted upon; receptive to outside impressions or influences; not active or operating; quiescent; receiving or enduring without resistance.

Sex	Artistic	Not Artistic
Male		
Female		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Five

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being inferior to the male in performing mechanical repairs.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Mechanical: the individual with ability to deal with mechanisms (machines, working parts, tools, instruments, works, equipment), fixing, repairing them and solving mechanical problems.

Sex	Mechanical	Not Mechanical
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Six

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being excessively talkative.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Talkative: given to or filled with talking; one given to talking; unusual talkativeness; an unchecked, rambling, often foolish, sometimes tedious talkativeness.

Note: this trait should be recognized, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Excessively Talkative	Not Excessively Talkative
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Seven

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as a sex symbol.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Sex symbol: a person who is extremely attractive sexually; a person whose appearance and personality are sexy (exciting or intended to excite sexual desire; erotic)

Note: this trait should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by characters or footnotes in the script.

Sex	Sex Symbol	Not a Sex Symbol
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Eight

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female in business and the professions in subordinate roles.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Supervisor: one that supervises a person, group, department, organization, or operation; such a person having authority delegated by an employer to hire, transfer, suspend, recall, promote, assign or discharge another employee or to recommend such action. Examples: executives, doctors, lawyers, scientists, editors, architects, store owners, directors of programs etc.

Subordinate: placed in a lower order job; one supervised; holding a lower or inferior position or rank; lacking and falling under the authority of others. Examples: secretaries, nurses, clerks, service workers, teachers etc.

Sex	Supervisory Role	Subordinate Role
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Signature

E. H. Brimbery

Title

Instruction, Social Science Div.

Institution

San Joaquin Delta Community College

Date

4 - 15 - 72

Sex	Passive	Aggressive
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Three

Walt Disney screenplays and films show the female as dependent upon others for support, care, help or direction.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Dependent: relying on someone or something else for support, care, help or direction.

Independent: absence of reliance on others for support, care, help, or direction; self-reliant.

Sex	Dependent	Independent
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Four

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female as artistic.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Artistic: a person with a combination of traits involving the capacity for judgments of design and form, indicated by special aptitude or talent and acquired skill in creative arts, such as music, drawing, painting, sewing, design or modeling.

Note: this talent should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Artistic	Not Artistic
Male		
Female		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Five

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being inferior to the male in performing mechanical repairs.

### Content Analysis Definition

Mechanical: the individual with ability to deal with mechanisms (machines, working parts, tools, instruments, works, equipment), fixing, repairing them and solving mechanical problems.

Sex	Mechanical	Not Mechanical
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Six

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being excessively talkative.

### Content Analysis Definition

Talkative: given to or filled with talking; one given to talking; unusual talkativeness; an unchecked, rambling, often foolish, sometimes tedious talkativeness.

Note: this trait should be recognized, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Excessively Talkative	Not Excessively Talkative
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

#### Hypothesis Seven

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as a sex symbol.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Sex symbol: a person who is extremely attractive sexually; a person whose appearance and personality are sexy (exciting or intended to excite sexual desire; erotic).

Note: this trait should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by characters or footnotes in the script.

Sex	Sex Symbol	Not a Sex Symbol
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

#### Hypothesis Eight

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female in business and the professions in subordinate roles.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Supervisor: one that supervises a person, group, department, organization, or operation; such a person having authority delegated by an employer to hire, transfer, suspend, recall, promote, assign or discharge another employee or to recommend such action. Examples: executives, doctors, lawyers, scientists, editors, architects, store owners, directors of programs etc.



Subordinate: placed in a lower order job; one supervised; holding a lower or inferior position or rank; lacking and falling under the authority of others. Examples: secretaries, nurses, clerks, service workers, teachers etc.

Sex	Supervisory Role	Subordinate Role
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Signature G Lewis

Title Asst Prof Soc

Institution COP

Date 15 April 72

VALIDATION OF THE CONTENT ANALYSIS DEFINITIONS FOR  
A STUDY OF SELECTED  
WALT DISNEY SCREENPLAYS AND FILMS AND THE STEREOTYPING OF  
THE ROLE OF THE FEMALE

**DIRECTIONS:** Please critically examine each definition below. Make a judgment as to the definition's content relative to the substance of the hypothesis.

Hypothesis One

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as the disciplinarian of the children.

Content Analysis Definition

Disciplinarian: one who administers discipline or enforces order, who demands and secures a high degree of conformity to rules.

Sex	Disciplinarian	Not a Disciplinarian
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis?    Yes ☒    No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Two

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as passive.

Content Analysis Definition

Aggressive: a tendency to forceful, outgoing action, characterized by taking the initiative, defending vigorously, and losing few opportunities to exhibit the self or that with which the self is identified; the opposite of the tendency to avoid danger or the disagreeable by withdrawal.

Passive: not acting but acted upon; receptive to outside impressions or influences; not active or operating; quiescent; receiving or enduring without resistance.

Sex	Passive	Aggressive
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Three

Walt Disney screenplays and films show the female as dependent upon others for support, care, help or direction.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Dependent: relying on someone or something else for support, care, help or direction.

Independent: absence of reliance on others for support, care, help, or direction; self-reliant.

Sex	Dependent	Independent
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Four

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female as artistic.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Artistic: a person with a combination of traits involving the capacity for judgments of design and form, indicated by special aptitude or talent and acquired skill in creative arts, such as music, drawing, painting, sewing, design or modeling.

Note: this talent should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Artistic	Not Artistic
Male		
Female		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

#### Hypothesis Five

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being inferior to the male in performing mechanical repairs.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Mechanical: the individual with ability to deal with mechanisms (machines, working parts, tools, instruments, works, equipment), fixing, repairing them and solving mechanical problems.

Sex	Mechanical	Not Mechanical
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

#### Hypothesis Six

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as being excessively talkative.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Talkative: given to or filled with talking; one given to talking; unusual talkativeness; an unchecked, rambling, often foolish, sometimes tedious talkativeness.

Note: this trait should be recognized, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Excessively Talkative	Not Excessively Talkative
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

#### Hypothesis Seven

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as a sex symbol.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Sex symbol: a person who is extremely attractive sexually; a person whose appearance and personality are sexy (exciting or intended to excite sexual desire; erotic)

Note: this trait should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by characters or footnotes in the script.

Sex	Sex Symbol	Not a Sex Symbol
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

#### Hypothesis Eight

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female in business and the professions in subordinate roles.

#### Content Analysis Definition

Supervisor: one that supervises a person, group, department, organization, or operation; such a person having authority delegated by an employer to hire, transfer, suspend, recall, promote, assign or discharge another employee or to recommend such action. Examples: executives, doctors, lawyers, scientists, editors, architects, store owners, directors of programs etc.

Subordinate: placed in a lower order job; one supervised; holding a lower or inferior position or rank; lacking and falling under the authority of others. Examples: secretaries, nurses, clerks, service workers, teachers etc.

Sex	Supervisory Role	Subordinate Role
Males		
Females		

Is this definition representative of the substance of the hypothesis? Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

Signature

Title

Institution

Date

*William R. York*  
*Asst. Professor of Sociology*  
*Texas State College*  
*April 15, 1972*

## APPENDIX C.

WILLIAM DOVER'S LETTER TO THE INVESTIGATOR

DATED JANUARY 3, 1972



# WALT DISNEY PRODUCTIONS

500 SO. BUENA VISTA ST. • BURBANK, CALIFORNIA 91505 • CABLE ADDRESS: DISNEY

January 3, 1972

Mr. Jerry P. Houseman  
School of Education  
University of the Pacific  
Stockton, California 95204

Dear Mr. Houseman:

In trying to analyze your objective, it seems to me that you are reading into the texture of the Disney product something that just does not exist. Most motion picture companies produce a wide variety of product, most of them with heavy emphasis on the dramatic, the violent, the controversial. Our basic purpose here centers on one word which seems to be the key of our thrust and that is "entertainment." We strive for the upbeat, the warm, the humorous and the broad visual type of comedy. This is done purposely because we recognize that a very broad and large segment of our audience is composed of youngsters from six to thirteen. Whenever we make a film that overlooks this audience, although we no longer make films specifically for them, we are met with a very sudden drop in patronage for that particular picture.

When analyzing the list of our product to date, and the animation subject matter is eliminated, one finds not a great deal of diversification in what appears in the theatres which play our films.

A sampling of the product that we have produced will only verify what I have expressed in the above. I greatly doubt that there does exist the depth in the material you must require if your paper is to avoid a sameness in content.

We have made an effort to dig into what we call our "Morgue", where scripts and papers dealing with past efforts are held, and found that a surprisingly small number of the finished shooting scripts of our films are there.



## WALT DISNEY PRODUCTIONS

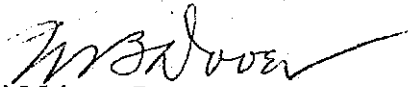
Mr. Jerry P. Houseman

Page 2

January 3, 1972

While I realize that this means a great deal to you, I quite honestly think that your selection of our product does not afford the opportunity you felt existed. Is it not possible for you to consider the product of any one of the major companies who have made every kind of film over a period of the past fifty years? If I can be helpful in assisting in that direction, I would be more than pleased to do so. However, it does not seem that we are going to be able to do much more than what we have already done in making available to you a sampling of some of our scripts for your study and perusal.

Sincerely,

  
William B. Dover  
Executive Story Editor

WBD/pw

---

APPENDIX D.  
CONTENT ANALYSIS INSTRUMENT

# CONTENT ANALYSIS FORM DRAFT

Directions: Use the definitions preceding each criterion category table to judge the major and minor characters in the screenplay. Mark a tally in the appropriate box each time a character exhibits a trait. Judge each character for every criterion category possible.

1. Disciplinarian: one who administers discipline or enforces order, who demands and secures a high degree of conformity to rules. (Judge only adult-child relationships for this trait)

Sex	Disciplinarian	Not a Disciplinarian
Males		
Females		

2. Aggressive: a tendency to forceful, outgoing action, characterized by taking the initiative, defending vigorously, and losing few opportunities to exhibit the self or that with which the self is identified; the opposite of the tendency to avoid danger or the disagreeable by withdrawal.

Passive: not acting but acted upon; receptive to outside impressions or influences; not active or operating; quiescent; receiving or enduring without resistance.

Sex	Passive	Aggressive
Males		
Females		

3. Dependent: relying on someone or something else for support, care, help or direction.

Independent: absence of reliance on others for support, care, help, or direction; self-reliant.

Sex	Dependent	Independent
Males		
Females		

4. Artistic: a person with a combination of traits involving the capacity for judgments of design and form, indicated by special aptitude or talent and acquired skill in creative arts, such as music, drawing, painting, sewing, design or modeling. Note---this talent should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Artistic	Not Artistic
Male		
Female		

5. Mechanical: the individual with ability to deal with mechanisms (machines, working parts, tools, instruments, works, equipment), fixing, repairing them and solving mechanical problems.

Sex	Mechanical	Not Mechanical
Male		
Female		

6. Talkative: given to or filled with talking; one given to talking; unusual talkativeness; an unchecked, rambling, often foolish, sometimes tedious talkativeness.

Note: this trait should be recognized, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Excessively Talkative	Not Excessively Talkative
Male		
Female		

7. Sex symbol: a person who is extremely attractive sexually; a person whose appearance and personality are sexy (exciting or intended to excite sexual desire; erotic) Note---this trait should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Sex Symbol	Not a Sex Symbol
Male		
Female		

8. Supervisor: one that supervises a person, group, department, organization, or operation; such a person having authority delegated by an employer to hire, transfer, suspend, recall, promote, assign or discharge another employee or to recommend such action. i. e. executive, doctor, lawyer, scientist, director, store owner

Subordinate: placed in a lower order job; one supervised; holding a lower or inferior position or rank; lacking and falling under the authority of others. i. e. secretaries, nurses, librarians, teachers, clerks

Note---judge a character only once unless he changes roles.

Sex	Supervisory Position	Subordinate Position
Male		
Female		

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Title \_\_\_\_\_

Institution \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

---

APPENDIX E.  
FORMS USED BY THE JUDGES IN THE  
DETERMINATION OF THE INSTRUMENT  
RELIABILITY

## CONTENT ANALYSIS FORM DRAFT

Directions: Use the definitions preceding each criterion category table to judge the major and minor characters in the screenplay. Mark a tally in the appropriate box each time a character exhibits a trait. Judge each character for every criterion category possible.

1. Disciplinarian: one who administers discipline or enforces order, who demands and secures a high degree of conformity to rules. (Judge only adult-child relationships for this trait)

Sex	Disciplinarian	Not a Disciplinarian
Males	6, 30	
Females	3, 9, 11, 14, 15, 17, 20, 22, 24, 26, 29, 45, 50	

2. Aggressive: a tendency to forceful, outgoing action, characterized by taking the initiative, defending vigorously, and losing few opportunities to exhibit the self or that with which the self is identified; the opposite of the tendency to avoid danger or the disagreeable by withdrawal.

Passive: not acting but acted upon; receptive to outside impressions or influences; not active or operating; quiescent; receiving or enduring without resistance.

Sex	Passive	Aggressive
Males	4, 38, 39, 40, 49	1, 31, 37, 38, 39, 40,
Females	1, 5, 20, 22, 40, 45,	4, 5, 38, 39, 42, 43,

3. Dependent: relying on someone or something else for support, care, help or direction.

Independent: absence of reliance on others for support, care, help, or direction; self-reliant.

Sex	Dependent	Independent
Males	8, 47, 48	47, 48, 49
Females	4, 5, 10, 47	8, 31, 33, 36, 37,

4. Artistic: a person with a combination of traits involving the capacity for judgments of design and form, indicated by special aptitude or talent and acquired skill in creative arts, such as music, drawing, painting, sewing, design or modeling. Note---this talent should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Artistic	Not Artistic
Male		
Female		

5. Mechanical: the individual with ability to deal with mechanisms (machines, working parts, tools, instruments, works, equipment), fixing, repairing them and solving mechanical problems.

Sex	Mechanical	Not Mechanical
Male		
Female		

6. Talkative: given to or filled with talking; one given to talking; unusual talkativeness; an unchecked, rambling, often foolish, sometimes tedious talkativeness.  
Note: this trait should be recognized, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Excessively Talkative	Not Excessively Talkative
Male		
Female		

7. Sex symbol: a person who is extremely attractive sexually; a person whose appearance and personality are sexy (exciting or intended to excite sexual desire; erotic) Note---this trait should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Sex Symbol	Not a Sex Symbol
Male	32,	
Female	37,	45,



# 1

8. Supervisor: one that supervises a person, group, department, organization, or operation; such a person having authority delegated by an employer to hire, transfer, suspend, recall, promote, assign or discharge another employee or to recommend such action. i. e. executive, doctor, lawyer, scientist, director, store owner

Subordinate: placed in a lower order job; one supervised; holding a lower or inferior position or rank; lacking and falling under the authority of others. i. e. secretaries, nurses, librarians, teachers, clerks

Note---judge a character only once unless he changes roles.

Sex	Supervisory Position	Subordinate Position
Male	2, 3, 5, 26, 42	3, 5, 7, 15, 21, 25, 26, 27, 45
Female	7, 18, 20, 21, 41, 43, 45	2, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 18, 20, 21, 25, 26, 27, 37, 40, 42, 49, 50

Signature J. L. Lerman

Title Researcher

Institution U. O. P.

Date 5-23-72

## CONTENT ANALYSIS FORM DRAFT

Directions: Use the definitions preceding each criterion category table to judge the major and minor characters in the screenplay. Mark a tally in the appropriate box each time a character exhibits a trait. Judge each character for every criterion category possible.

1. Disciplinarian: one who administers discipline or enforces order, who demands and secures a high degree of conformity to rules. (Judge only adult-child relationships for this trait)

Sex	Disciplinarian	Not a Disciplinarian
Males	2, 30	
Females	9, 11, 14, 15, 17, 20, 22, 24, 26, 29, 32, 45, 50	

2. Aggressive: a tendency to forceful, outgoing action, characterized by taking the initiative, defending vigorously, and losing few opportunities to exhibit the self or that with which the self is identified; the opposite of the tendency to avoid danger or the disagreeable by withdrawal.

Passive: not acting but acted upon; receptive to outside impressions or influences; not active or operating; quiescent; relieving or enduring without resistance.

Sex	Passive	Aggressive
Males	4, 38, 39, 40, 49	1, 31, 37, 38, 39
Females	1, 5, 20, 21, 40, 45	4, 5, 38, 39, 42, 43

3. Dependent: relying on someone or something else for support, care, help or direction.

Independent: absence of reliance on others for support, care, help, or direction; self-reliant.

Sex	Dependent	Independent
Males	8, 47	37, 47, 48, 49
Females	4, 10, 47	8, 31, 33, 36, 42

4. Artistic: a person with a combination of traits involving the capacity for judgments of design and form, indicated by special aptitude or talent and acquired skill in creative arts, such as music, drawing, painting, sewing, design or modeling. Note---this talent should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Artistic	Not Artistic
Male		
Female		

5. Mechanical: the individual with ability to deal with mechanisms (machines, working parts, tools, instruments, works, equipment), fixing, repairing them and solving mechanical problems.

Sex	Mechanical	Not Mechanical
Male		
Female		

6. Talkative: given to or filled with talking; one given to talking; unusual talkativeness; an unchecked, rambling, often foolish, sometimes tedious talkativeness.

Note: this trait should be recognized, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Excessively Talkative	Not Excessively Talkative
Male		
Female		

7. Sex symbol: a person who is extremely attractive sexually; a person whose appearance and personality are sexy (exciting or intended to excite sexual desire; erotic) Note---this trait should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Sex Symbol	Not a Sex Symbol
Male	5, 32,	
Female	31	42

8. Supervisor: one that supervises a person, group, department, organization, or operation; such a person having authority delegated by an employer to hire, transfer, suspend, recall, promote, assign or discharge another employee or to recommend such action. i. e. executive, doctor, lawyer, scientist, director, store owner

Note---judge a character only once unless he changes roles.

Sex	Supervisory Position	Subordinate Position
Male	2, 3, 5, 26,	2, 5, 7, 15, 25, 26, 27, 45
Female	9, 18, 20, 21, 27, 41, 43	3, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 16, 18, 20, 21, 25, 26, 27, 37, 40, 42, 45, 49,

Signature E. J. Egan

Title Grad. student

Institution *W.C.P.*

Date 5-23-72

## CONTENT ANALYSIS FORM DRAFT

Directions: Use the definitions preceding each criterion category table to judge the major and minor characters in the screenplay. Mark a tally in the appropriate box each time a character exhibits a trait. Judge each character for every criterion category possible.

1. Disciplinarian: one who administers discipline or enforces order, who demands and secures a high degree of conformity to rules. (Judge only adult-child relationships for this trait)

Sex	Disciplinarian	Not a Disciplinarian
Males	2,	
Females	9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 20, 22, 24, 26, 29, 30, 33, 45, 50.	

2. Aggressive: a tendency to forceful, outgoing action, characterized by taking the initiative, defending vigorously, and losing few opportunities to exhibit the self or that with which the self is identified; the opposite of the tendency to avoid danger or the disagreeable by withdrawal.

Passive: not acting but acted upon; receptive to outside impressions or influences; not active or operating; quiescent; receiving or enduring without resistance.

Sex	Passive	Aggressive
Males	4, 38, 39, 40,	1, 31, 37, 38, 39, 40
Females	1, 5, 20, 21, 22, 40, 45,	4, 5, 28, 39, 42, 43,

3. Dependent: relying on someone or something else for support, care, help or direction.

Independent: absence of reliance on others for support, care, help, or direction; self-reliant.

Sex	Dependent	Independent
Males	8, 47	37, 47, 48, 49,
Females	5, 10, 47	8, 31, 33, 36, 42, 47,

4. Artistic: a person with a combination of traits involving the capacity for judgments of design and form, indicated by special aptitude or talent and acquired skill in creative arts, such as music, drawing, painting, sewing, design or modeling. Note---this talent should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Artistic	Not Artistic
Male		
Female		

5. Mechanical: the individual with ability to deal with mechanisms (machines, working parts, tools, instruments, works, equipment), fixing, repairing them and solving mechanical problems.

Sex	Mechanical	Not Mechanical
Male		
Female		

6. Talkative: given to or filled with talking; one given to talking; unusual talkativeness; an unchecked, rambling, often foolish, sometimes tedious talkativeness.

Note: this trait should be recognized, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Excessively Talkative	Not Excessively Talkative
Male		
Female		

7. Sex symbol: a person who is extremely attractive sexually; a person whose appearance and personality are sexy (exciting or intended to excite sexual desire; erotic) Note---this trait should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Sex Symbol	Not a Sex Symbol
Male	32,	
Female	37,	42,

8. Supervisor: one that supervises a person, group, department, organization, or operation; such a person having authority delegated by an employer to hire, transfer, suspend, recall, promote, assign or discharge another employee or to recommend such action. i. e. executive, doctor, lawyer, scientist, director, store owner

Subordinate: placed in a lower order job; one supervised; holding a lower or inferior position or rank; lacking and falling under the authority of others. i. e. secretaries, nurses, librarians, teachers, clerks

Note---judge a character only once unless he changes roles.

Sex	Supervisory Position	Subordinate Position
Male	2, 3, 5, 15, 26, 27, 42.	2, 5, 7, 15, 26, 27, 45,
Female	9, 18, 20, 21, 41, 43, 45,	2, 3, 7, 11, 13, 15, 16, 18, 20, 21,

26, 26, 27, 37, 40, 42  
49,

Signature Robert L. Silvis

Title Graduate Assistant U.C.P. School of Education

Institution University of Pacific

Date 5-23-72

## CONTENT ANALYSIS FORM DRAFT

Directions: Use the definitions preceding each criterion category table to judge the major and minor characters in the screenplay. Mark a tally in the appropriate box each time a character exhibits a trait. Judge each character for every criterion category possible.

1. Disciplinarian: one who administers discipline or enforces order, who demands and secures a high degree of conformity to rules. (Judge only adult-child relationships for this trait)

Sex	Disciplinarian	Not a Disciplinarian
Males	2, 30	
Females	3, 7, 11, 14, 15, 17, 20, 22, 24, 26, 29, 33, 45, 50	

2. Aggressive: a tendency to forceful, outgoing action, characterized by taking the initiative, defending vigorously, and losing few opportunities to exhibit the self or that with which the self is identified; the opposite of the tendency to avoid danger or the disagreeable by withdrawal.

Passive: not acting but acted upon; receptive to outside impressions or influences; not active or operating; quiescent; receiving or enduring without resistance.

Sex	Passive	Aggressive
Males	4, 38, 39, 40, 49	1, 31, 37, 38, 40
Females	1, 5, 20, 22, 40, 45, 49	4, 5, 38, 39, 41, 42, 43

3. Dependent: relying on someone or something else for support, care, help or direction.

Independent: absence of reliance on others for support, care, help, or direction; self-reliant.

Sex	Dependent	Independent
Males	8, 47	47, 48, 49
Females	5, 10, 42, 47	8, 31, 36, 47



4. Artistic: a person with a combination of traits involving the capacity for judgments of design and form, indicated by special aptitude or talent and acquired skill in creative arts, such as music, drawing, painting, sewing, design or modeling. Note---this talent should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Artistic	Not Artistic
Male		
Female		

5. Mechanical: the individual with ability to deal with mechanisms (machines, working parts, tools, instruments, works, equipment), fixing, repairing them and solving mechanical problems.

Sex	Mechanical	Not Mechanical
Male		
Female		

6. Talkative: given to or filled with talking; one given to talking; unusual talkativeness; an unchecked, rambling, often foolish, sometimes tedious talkativeness.  
Note: this trait should be recognized, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Excessively Talkative	Not Excessively Talkative
Male		
Female		

7. Sex symbol: a person who is extremely attractive sexually; a person whose appearance and personality are sexy (exciting or intended to excite sexual desire; erotic) Note---this trait should be recognized, appreciated, or defined as such by some other character in the script.

Sex	Sex Symbol	Not a Sex Symbol
Male	32,	
Female	37,	42,

8. Supervisor: one that supervises a person, group, department, organization, or operation; such a person having authority delegated by an employer to hire, transfer, suspend, recall, promote, assign or discharge another employee or to recommend such action. i. e. executive, doctor, lawyer, scientist, director, store owner

Subordinate: placed in a lower order job; one supervised; holding a lower or inferior position or rank; lacking and falling under the authority of others. i. e. secretaries, nurses, librarians, teachers, clerks

Note---judge a character only once unless he changes roles.

Sex	Supervisory Position	Subordinate Position
Male	2, 3, 5, 42,	2, 5, 7, 15, 25, 26, 27, 45
Female	9, 18, 20, 21, 27, 41, 42, 43, 45,	2, 3, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 18, 20, 21, 26, 27, 37, 40, 49,

Signature Wesley Sharpe

Title graduate student

Institution UOP

Date 5/23/72

## APPENDIX F.

## QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME: \_\_\_\_\_  
                                    last                                    first

SCHOOL:   JUDAH       RANCHO       VILLA       PACIFIC  
                                    (circle your school's name)

TEACHER: \_\_\_\_\_  
                                    (write your teacher's last name)

SEX:       MALE       FEMALE  
                                    (circle one)

DIRECTIONS: This is a short quiz to help me understand how those who see this film feel about some of the actions in it. It has nothing to do with the grades you receive in school. Your teacher will not see the results.

Special Directions for Elementary Children. I will read aloud one question at a time. After I read a question please put an X in front of the one answer you think is best. Do not mark both answers. Be sure to mark one answer for each question.

Special Directions for College Students. Please complete the questionnaire as quickly as you can. Select only one answer for each question. The questions are written on an elementary level. Respond to them at face value. Answer every question.

EXAMPLE: The people in this film who most often wore dresses were the        males   X   females?

1. The people in the film who most often made beautiful things were the \_\_\_females \_\_\_males?
2. The people in the film who were most often able to fix broken things were the \_\_\_females \_\_\_males?
3. In the film the people who most often were not the leaders at work were the \_\_\_females \_\_\_males?
4. The people in the film who most often "talked all the time" were the \_\_\_males \_\_\_females?

---

5. The people in the film who most often were not excited about doing things were the \_\_\_females \_\_\_males?
6. In this film the people who most often were cared for by others were the \_\_\_males \_\_\_females?
7. In the film the children were disciplined most often by the \_\_\_females \_\_\_males?
8. In this film the people who most often had "sexy good looks" were the \_\_\_females \_\_\_males?
9. In the film the persons who most often were the best artists were the \_\_\_males \_\_\_females?
10. In this film the persons who most often were able to make machines work were the \_\_\_males \_\_\_females?
11. In this film the people who most often were not the bosses on the jobs were the \_\_\_males \_\_\_females?
12. In the film the persons who most often were too talkative were the \_\_\_males \_\_\_females?
13. In the film the people who most often were too calm about things were the \_\_\_males \_\_\_females?
14. In the film the people who most often depended on others were the \_\_\_females \_\_\_males?
15. The children in the film were made to obey most often by the \_\_\_males \_\_\_females?
16. In this film the people who most often had "sexy bodies" were the \_\_\_females \_\_\_males?

---

APPENDIX G.  
FORMS USED BY THE JUDGES FOR THE  
CONTENT VALIDATION OF THE  
QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS: Please critically examine each question below and make a judgment concerning its relevance to the hypothesis which it follows.

1. In the film the people who most often acted lifeless were the  
males females?
2. In this film the people who most often were not eager to  
do things were the females males?
3. The people in the film who most often were not excited  
about doing things were the males females?
4. In the film the people who most often were too calm  
about things were the females males?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.  
Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modifications \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Three

Walt Disney screenplays and films show the female as dependent upon others for support, care, help or direction.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Three

1. The people in the film that most often needed help from others were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
2. In this film the people who most often were cared for by others were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?
3. In this film the people who most often depended on others were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
4. The people in the film who most often relied on others were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.  
Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modifications \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Four

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female as artistic.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Four

1. The people in the film who most often made beautiful things were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?
2. In the film the persons who most often were the best artists were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
3. The people most often good at art (sewing, dancing, painting and music) were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?
4. In the film the people who most often decorated things were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.  
Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modifications \_\_\_\_\_



### Hypothesis Five

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the females as being inferior to the male in performing mechanical repairs.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Five

1. The people in the film who most often were the best mechanics were the \_\_\_ males \_\_\_ females?
2. In the film the people who were most often good at repairing things were the \_\_\_ females \_\_\_ males?
3. The people in the film who were most often able to fix broken things were \_\_\_ males \_\_\_ females?
4. In the film the people who were most often able to make machines work were the \_\_\_ females \_\_\_ males?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Six

Walt Disney screenplays and film portray the female as being excessively talkative.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Six

1. The people in the film who most often talked more than they needed to were the \_\_\_ males \_\_\_ females?
2. In the film the persons who were most often too talkative were the \_\_\_ females \_\_\_ males?
3. The people in the film who most often "talked all the time" were the \_\_\_ males \_\_\_ females?
4. In this film the persons who most often talked too much were the \_\_\_ females \_\_\_ males?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modifications \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Seven

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as a sex symbol.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Seven

1. The people in this film who were "sexy" most often were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
2. In this film the people who most often had "sexy good looks" were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?
3. The people in the film who could most often be called "sexy" were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
4. In the film the people who most often had "sexy bodies" were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modifications \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Eight

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female in business and the professions in subordinate roles.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Eight

1. In the film the people who most often were the leaders at work were the \_\_\_\_\_ men \_\_\_\_\_ women? *Not did not*
2. The people in the film who most often made the decisions at work were the \_\_\_\_\_ women \_\_\_\_\_ men?
3. In the film the people who most often were the bosses on the jobs were the \_\_\_\_\_ men \_\_\_\_\_ women? *Not did not*
4. The people in the film who most often gave the orders at work were the \_\_\_\_\_ women \_\_\_\_\_ men?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modifications \_\_\_\_\_

Signature

William L York

Title

Asst. Professor of Sociology

Institution

Truman State College

Date

April 15, 1972

CONTENT VALIDATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR  
A STUDY OF SELECTED  
WALT DISNEY SCREENPLAYS AND FILMS AND THE STEREOTYPING  
OF THE ROLE OF THE FEMALE

DIRECTIONS: Please critically examine each question below and make a judgment concerning its relevance to the hypothesis which it follows.

Hypothesis One

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as the disciplinarian of the children.

Set of Questions for Hypothesis One

1. In the film the children were disciplined most often by the \_\_\_ Men \_\_\_ women?
2. The children in the film were made to obey most often by the \_\_\_ women \_\_\_ men?
3. In the film the children were made to behave most often by the \_\_\_ men \_\_\_ women?
4. The children in the film were corrected most often by the \_\_\_ women \_\_\_ men?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.  
Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modifications \_\_\_\_\_

Hypothesis Two

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as passive.

Set of Questions for Hypothesis Two

1. In the film the people who most often acted lifeless were the \_\_\_ males \_\_\_ females?
2. In this film the people who most often were not eager to do things were the \_\_\_ females \_\_\_ males?
3. The people in the film who most often were not excited about doing things were the \_\_\_ males \_\_\_ females?
4. In the film the people who most often were too calm about things were the \_\_\_ females \_\_\_ males?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

### Suggested modifications

### Hypothesis Three

Walt Disney screenplays and films show the female as dependent upon others for support, care, help or direction.

### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Three

1. The people in the film that most often needed help from others were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
2. In this film the people who most often were cared for by others were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?
3. In this film the people who most often depended on others were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
4. The people in the film who most often relied on others were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

### Suggested modifications

### Hypothesis Four

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female as artistic.

## Set of Questions for Hypothesis Four

1. The people in the film who most often made beautiful things were the        males        females?
2. In the film the persons who most often were the best artists were the        females        males?
3. The people most often good at art (sewing, dancing, painting and music) were the        males        females?
4. In the film the people who most often decorated things were the        males        females?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

### Suggested modifications

### Hypothesis Five

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the females as being inferior to the male in performing mechanical repairs.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Five

1. The people in the film who most often were the best mechanics were the \_\_\_ males \_\_\_ females?
2. In the film the people who were most often good at repairing things were the \_\_\_ females \_\_\_ males?
3. The people in the film who were most often able to fix broken things were \_\_\_ males \_\_\_ females?
4. In the film the people who were most often able to make machines work were the \_\_\_ females \_\_\_ males?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Six

Walt Disney screenplays and film portray the female as being excessively talkative.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Six

1. The people in the film who most often talked more than they needed to were the \_\_\_ males \_\_\_ females?
2. In the film the persons who were most often too talkative were the \_\_\_ females \_\_\_ males?
3. The people in the film who most often "talked all the time" were the \_\_\_ males \_\_\_ females?
4. In this film the persons who most often talked too much were the \_\_\_ females \_\_\_ males?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modifications \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Seven

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as a sex symbol.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Seven

1. The people in this film who were "sexy" most often were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
2. In this film the people who most often had "sexy good looks" were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?
3. The people in the film who could most often be called "sexy" were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
4. In the film the people who most often had "sexy bodies" were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modifications \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Eight

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female in business and the professions in subordinate roles.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Eight

1. In the film the people who most often were <sup>Not</sup> the leaders at work were the \_\_\_\_\_ men \_\_\_\_\_ women?
2. The people in the film who most often <sup>did not</sup> made the decisions at work were the \_\_\_\_\_ women \_\_\_\_\_ men?
3. In the film the people who most often were <sup>not</sup> the bosses on the jobs were the \_\_\_\_\_ men \_\_\_\_\_ women?
4. The people in the film who most often <sup>did not</sup> gave the orders at work were the \_\_\_\_\_ women \_\_\_\_\_ men?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modifications \_\_\_\_\_

Signature E. H. Brimben  
Title Instructor, Social Science Div.  
Institution San Joaquin Delta Community College  
Date 4 - 15 - 72



**DIRECTIONS:** Please critically examine each question below and make a judgment concerning its relevance to the hypothesis which it follows.

Walt Disney screenplays and films portray the female as the disciplinarian of the children.

- 1.. In the film the children were disciplined most often by  
the Men women?
- 2.. The children in the film were made to obey most often by  
the women men?
- 3.. In the film the children were made to behave most often  
by the men women?
- 4.. The children in the film were corrected most often by  
the women men?

Suggested modifications

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as passive.

1. In the film the people who most often acted lifeless were the  
    males females?
2. In this film the people who most often were not eager to  
    do things were the females males?
3. The people in the film who most often were not excited  
    about doing things were the males females?
4. In the film the people who most often were too calm  
    about things were the females males?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.  
Yes \_\_\_\_\_ ✓ No \_\_\_\_\_

Suggested modifications "too calm?" might this be  
tapping a "cool, calm & collected" demeanor, instead?

### Hypothesis Three

Walt Disney screenplays and films show the female as dependent upon others for support, care, help or direction.

### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Three

1. The people in the film that most often needed help from others were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
2. In this film the people who most often were cared for by others were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?
3. In this film the people who most often depended on others were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
4. The people in the film who most often relied on others were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.  
Yes \_\_\_\_\_ ✓ No \_\_\_\_\_

Suggested modifications you are asking a number of things. If you  
feel "support" and "care", for example, are synonymous, O.K. If not,  
then some modification might be in order

### Hypothesis Four

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female as artistic.

### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Four

1. The people in the film who most often made beautiful things were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?
2. In the film the persons who most often were the best artists were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
3. The people most often good at art (sewing, dancing, painting and music) were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?
4. In the film the people who most often decorated things were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.  
Yes \_\_\_\_\_ ✓ No \_\_\_\_\_

Suggested modifications \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Five

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the females as being inferior to the male in performing mechanical repairs.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Five

1. The people in the film who most often were the best mechanics were the \_\_\_males\_\_\_ females?
2. In the film the people who were most often good at repairing things were the \_\_\_females\_\_\_ males?
3. The people in the film who were most often able to fix broken things were \_\_\_males\_\_\_ females?
4. In the film the people who were most often able to make machines work were the \_\_\_females\_\_\_ males?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modification \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Six

Walt Disney screenplays and film portray the female as being excessively talkative.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Six

1. The people in the film who most often talked more than they needed to were the \_\_\_males\_\_\_ females?
2. In the film the persons who were most often too talkative were the \_\_\_females\_\_\_ males?
3. The people in the film who most often "talked all the time" were the \_\_\_males\_\_\_ females?
4. In this film the persons who most often talked too much were the \_\_\_females\_\_\_ males?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes ☒ No ☐

Suggested modifications \_\_\_\_\_

### Hypothesis Seven

Walt Disney screenplays and films picture the female as a sex symbol.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Seven

1. The people in this film who were "sexy" most often were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
2. In this film the people who most often had "sexy good looks" were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?
3. The people in the film who could most often be called "sexy" were the \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_ males?
4. In the film the people who most often had "sexy bodies" were the \_\_\_\_\_ males \_\_\_\_\_ females?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ ✓ No \_\_\_\_\_

Suggested modifications Will the kids feel these are redundant?

---

### Hypothesis Eight

Walt Disney screenplays and films depict the female in business and the professions in subordinate roles.

#### Set of Questions for Hypothesis Eight

1. In the film the people who most often were <sup>not</sup> the leaders at work were the \_\_\_\_\_ men \_\_\_\_\_ women? <sup>did not</sup>
2. The people in the film who most often <sup>not</sup> make the decisions at work were the \_\_\_\_\_ women \_\_\_\_\_ men?
3. In the film the people who most often were <sup>not</sup> the bosses on the jobs were the \_\_\_\_\_ men \_\_\_\_\_ women? <sup>did not</sup>
4. The people in the film who most often gave the orders at work were the \_\_\_\_\_ women \_\_\_\_\_ men?

The entire set of questions is relevant to the hypothesis.

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_ ✓

Suggested modifications Your questions ask if females are in responsible positions, not if they are in subordinate ones - perhaps change h to read "not in positions of resp. or authority"---

Signature G Lewis

Title Asst Prof: Soc

Institution Cof

Date 15 April 72