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Television as a medium to college students' predispositions: Portrayals of professors and their profession

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TELEVISION AS A MEDIUM TO COLLEGE STUDENTS'
PREDISPOSITIONS: PORTRAYALS OF PROFESSORS
AND THEIR PROFESSION

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
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Predispositions: Portrayals of Professors

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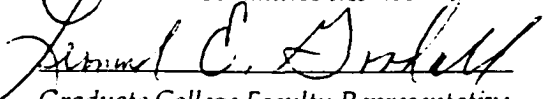
Doctor of Education


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ABSTRACT

Television as a Medium to College Students' Predispositions: Portrayals of Professors and Their Profession

by

Mona M. Lauber

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Students bring preconceived beliefs and attitudes to their initial college experience. These predispositions influence their communication and interaction with faculty and others in the higher education environment. Previous research identified family, school, and peers as sources that contribute to the formation of students' predispositions. This study was designed to explore television as a fourth medium to college students' predispositions.

Drawing from the perspectives of social cognitive theory and cultivation theory, portrayals of professors were analyzed in 15 episodes across three television programs. The content analysis employed both quantitative and qualitative techniques. Personality categories for the quantitative portion were adapted from the Syracuse Activity Index. The qualitative ethnographic questions were formulated from items on the Syracuse Organizational Climate Index. Both indexes were constructed from modifications of Murray's (1938) personality typology, which ensured compatibility of findings when combining quantitative and qualitative techniques.

The transcription process yielded 561 lines of text from episodes of "Boy Meets World," 817 lines from "3rd Rock from the Sun," and 406 lines from "Two of a Kind." The results showed that much of the work performed by real-life college instructors was omitted from the television representations. Of the 1,784 lines of text coded, only 136 lines reflected teaching, 70 advising, 28 research and 72 service. Attributes of media portrayed professors were highly associated with aggressive, dominant, emotional, and sexually oriented behaviors. Repeated themes emerged in the qualitative analysis. (1) Professors were upset by the success of their peers. (2) Professors were not consistent in their academic relationships with students. (3) Professors spent more time pursuing personal relationships and socializing than in academic endeavors. (4) Professors depended on students for advice in their personal (significant-other) relationships. (5) Students, especially those overwhelmed in their first year of college, criticized professors.

With the focus of this dissertation on portrayals of college instructors on television, the research adds to the current body of literature describing inaccuracies of television teachers at the elementary, middle school, and high school levels. The purpose of this study was to investigate and describe the media depictions of professionals in higher education. Results of this study suggest that television portrayals of professors are not worthy models for students to use in their interactions with counterparts in the real world.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Universities and colleges are increasingly pressured to be accountable for student learning and for meeting the needs of the larger society. Negative media attention contributes to the erosion of public trust in higher education (Rice, 1995). Faculty members are viewed "as caught up in their own private pursuits to the neglect of their students and the larger society" (Rice, 1995, p. 5). Nelson (1995) wrote that the taxpaying public view "professors as a pampered class with lifetime security [and] an aversion for teaching. They see research as unconnected to society's concerns and largely an activity that scholars do to please each other" (as cited in Arneson & Arnett, 1998, p. 44). In fact, specialists and laymen agree that no matter how hard faculty work, they are vulnerable to charges of not doing what society expects of them (Lovett, 1993).

Although mediated to some extent by teachers' positions and their institutions' goals, the typical roles and responsibilities of faculty would include: research, publishing, grant proposal preparation, expert witness, institutional service, consulting, professional development, community service, and student instruction and advising. A recent survey of full-time college professors showed that the foremost professional issue that interfered with their academic work was "students' lack of preparation and commitment" (Leatherman, 2000, p. A19).

Students bring with them certain predispositions to their upcoming college experience. Students' first impressions of instructors are crucial to the teacher/student relationship (Cooper, 1988; DeVito, 1986; as found in Haleta, 1996), and students' predispositions influence their communication and interaction with faculty (Newcomb, 1943). Over a half century ago, Newcomb (1943) established three mediums that cultivate college students' predispositions: family, school, and peers. In the last fifty years, however, "the mass media has constituted another voice heard by the young" (Kubey, 1994, pp. 62-63). "Gerbner argues that all media carry a 'hidden curriculum' of values and explanations about how things happen" (Parenti, 1992, p. 1). As a fourth medium to college students' predispositions, "television has become the common symbolic environment that interacts with most of the things we think and do" (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1994, p. 37). Therefore this newer medium needs to be studied to better understand its impact on student perceptions.

With this in mind, this study was designed to explore television as a medium to college students' predispositions. Specifically, it describes the portrayals of college instructors in television programming.

Conceptual Framework

Aspects of television content continue to be studied to determine if the audience learns from media portrayals and if viewers' predispositions are influenced by what they learn. DeFleur (1964) determined that entertainment television is a source of incidental learning and his research led him to conclude, "As a learning source, then, television content that deals with occupational roles can be characterized as selective, unreal, stereotypical, and misleading" (p.74). Studies of television's portrayal of educators have

revealed mediated misconceptions, such as those identified by DeFleur. Kaplan (1990) pointed out that television "teachers do not spend much time at their real jobs" (p. K7). Swetnam's (1992) content analysis of television teachers revealed a myriad of stereotypical behaviors and misconceptions when media portrayals were compared to real-world teacher demographics. Swetnam suggested that students' perceptions of appropriate communication could be influenced by media student/teacher interactions: "Communication between media teachers and students is often a give-and-take exchange that in many real classrooms would be taken for back talk" (p. 31). Media effects theory and research, which has shown television to be a source of viewers' learning (Bandura, 1994; DeFleur, 1964; DeFleur & DeFleur, 1967) and a source in the formation of viewers' predispositions (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1994), suggest that college students would be predisposed to interact with their instructors in ways that they had learned from television content.

According to social cognitive theory of mass communication (Bandura, 1994), people learn from the modeling of others. With their capacity for symbolic modeling, television viewers generalize the learned behaviors of media characters to similar situations and behaviors. Potts, Doppler, and Hernandez (1994) studied television content and its influence on children's potential for risk-taking. The researchers designed a study from Bandura's (1986) primary functions of observational learning: "Observers can learn new behaviors from observing models perform such behaviors" and "Modeled behavior and its context can serve as a signal or cue for the observer to perform a behavior that is already in his/her repertoire" (Potts et al., p. 322). The purpose of their study was to "examine the effects of risk-taking TV models on children's motivations to take physical risks themselves" (Potts et al., p. 322). The results of their experimental

research indicated, "television content, even relatively innocuous and humorous animated cartoons, may represent a previously unidentified influence on childhood injury via observational learning processes" (Potts et al., p. 328).

Skill and Wallace (1990) endorsed television behavior models as an alternative to studying phenomenon in a real-world setting: "The primary reason for this absence of empirical work [on power processes in families] is methodological constraints. It has been difficult to gain access to the use of power in natural settings" (p. 243). Thus, Skill and Wallace employed a descriptive content analysis of "assertive power as it is portrayed across family roles in prime-time television" (p. 243). The researchers found that television families offer reasonable models of positive power strategies in their communicative behavior, as in decision-making, problem solving and conflict resolution.

The vicarious capability of television portrayals influences people's perceptions of social reality, and from the perspective of television as a socializing agent, Larson (1989) examined sibling behaviors in the "Cosby Show," "Family Ties," and "Growing Pains." Larson alleged, "What television teaches one about how to be a sibling has the potential to influence one's interpersonal relationships both within and outside of the family" (p. 306). Overall the results of Larson's study showed more positive behaviors (58.1%) than negative (41.9%). But the siblings in "Growing Pains" modeled a higher number of negative behaviors (56.5%) than positive (43.5%), and viewers of this program "might well develop a perception of sibling relationships as especially unpleasant" (pp. 312-313).

Through symbolic modeling, viewers can learn behaviors, learn communicative strategies, and develop perceptions of social reality. However, of the determinants to learning addressed in social cognitive theory, direct experience is seen as having the greatest influence on people's perceptions. Bram's (1997) study supported this

characteristic of social cognitive theory. In Bram's study of the public's perception of psychotherapists, a regression analysis of variables measuring direct experience to predicted perceptions of therapy and therapists showed that attitudes formed from direct experience have a stronger predictive value than those of indirect or vicarious experience. Bram said that this was consistent with the findings of others, such as Fazio and Zanna, 1978 and McDonel and Sherman, 1982.

Still, Bandura (1994) maintained that "without direct experiential correctives" (p. 66), people learn about social reality through media's symbolic modeling, which has been shown to offer a variety of stereotypical images (DeFleur, 1964; McLaughlin, 1975; Swetnam, 1992). Therefore, social cognitive theory of mass communication would predict that television's symbolic portrayals of professors would have the greatest influence on students entering college when there is a lack of direct experience with real-world models from which to compare and evaluate.

Parenti (1992) described priming as the imitative responses of television viewers. In 1981, Bower published his findings on the influence of emotions on memory and thinking; he proposed an associative network theory. Through hypnotic suggestion, happy or sad moods were induced in the subjects of his experiments. The results of this study showed emotion to "powerfully influence such cognitive processes as free associations, imaginative fantasies, social perceptions, and snap judgments about others' personalities" (p. 129). Berkowitz and Rogers (1986) connected priming effects with the cognitive process of activated thought elements. Lang (1979) suggested that expressive behavior and responses are connected to the associative and semantic link between memory, thought, and feeling nodes (as found in Berkowitz & Rogers, 1986). Jo and Berkowitz (1994) discussed associative networks in the context of violent media content

and its influence on viewers' aggressive behavior. From their review of over three decades of research on priming effects, they surmised, "There is both direct and indirect evidence that the observation of aggression evokes aggression-related ideas in viewers" (p. 48). In applying priming effect theory to the current study, a prospective college student would cognitively link emotional or other associative networks to media depictions of college instructors, and under the right circumstances and for a short period of time, have tendencies to act-out similar scenes in real-life situations with their instructors.

While priming explains short-term behavior tendencies from cognitively processing and linking associative networks of media content, persuasion theory explains the lasting change in attitude that media depictions can have on viewers. Building on McQuire's (1968, 1989) matrix of the input (context and message) and output (cognitive processes) variables involved in media persuasion, Petty and Cacioppo (1981, 1986) proposed that the recipient of a message must have a personal motivation and be able to process the message in order to formulate favorable or unfavorable thoughts (as found in Petty & Priester, 1994). In persuasion theory, favorable or unfavorable refers to thought processing (e.g., favorable would generate careful reflection of a message), and the condition of favorable or unfavorable is determined by the amount of merit the recipient gives to the message source. Therefore, in the elaboration likelihood model of persuasion, favorable thought processing of the message (whether positive or negative) increases the likelihood that the recipient of a message will have a lasting change in attitude (Petty & Priester, 1994). The elaboration of persuasion theory presented by Petty and Priester suggests that potential college students, personally motivated to understand all aspects of their upcoming college experience, may develop beliefs about their real-life

instructors through favorable processing of repeated negative or positive messages of media portrayed college instructors.

Gerbner, Gross, Morgan and Signorielli (1994) asserted that television is a daily ritual in which society is informed through the "continual repetition of patterns (myths, ideologies, 'facts,' relationships, etc.) that serve to define the world" (p. 18). Television cultivates common perspectives, and this process is an important concept in cultivation theory; it is referred to as mainstreaming. In contrast to priming and persuasion theory, predispositions are not seen as intervening variables in cultivation theory, rather "television plays a role in the formation of those very 'predispositions' that later intervene (and often resist) other influences and attempts at persuasion" (Gerbner et al., p. 37).

In numerous studies of various aspects of television social reality, researchers have found evidence of cultivation effects. Weaver and Wakshlag (1986) studied television viewers' perceived vulnerability to crime. Respondents to their survey who did not have direct or indirect crime experience and who relied only on television's depictions were found to be concerned about personal safety in hypothetical situations. Weaver and Wakshlag asserted that their data supported Gerbner and Gross' (1976) explanation of the cultivation perspective. Weaver and Wakshlag maintained, "the data for this group of viewers (respondents without direct or indirect experience) is consistent with the 'cultivation' effect" (p. 153). Wright et al. (1995) concentrated on determining if television was a likely source for children's initial construction of schemata for occupational roles. This research group ascertained that "children form separate schemata for social information acquired from TV and from real-world experience, but those who perceive television as socially realistic are apt to incorporate TV messages in their schemata and their aspirations" (Wright et al., p. 1706). Signorielli (1982)

determined that television's depiction of marital status produced "rather stereotypical and traditional portrayals of women and marriage" (p. 594). Signorielli suggested that these portrayals seemed to cultivate conflicting attitudes on starting a family versus career aspirations.

Gerbner and his colleagues began studying television content in the 1960s. In 1980, Krippendorff wrote that Gerbner and his colleagues had accumulated enough data on television violence "to make extrapolations of interest to policy makers" (p. 38). Cultivation theory would predict that college students would bring media developed, mainstream orientations with them to their up-coming higher education experience. And in so doing, students would employ preconceived television realities to guide their relationships with real-life instructors.

The current study of media portrayed college instructors draws from the perspective of learning through the symbolic models presented on television (Bandura, 1994) and from the role television plays in the formation of students' predispositions to higher education and its professionals (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1994).

Purpose of the Study

The current emphasis on accountability in higher education dictates that colleges and universities assume responsibility for student achievement. Students' perceptions of their instructors influence the student-teacher relationship. The television images of higher education instructors may or may not accurately portray these professionals.

Research on television portrayals of professionals has shown that there are inaccuracies in television programming that may effect career selection and continuation in nursing (Duncan, 1992); undermine public confidence in physicians, (Pfau, Mullen &

Garrow, 1995); hinder the efforts of the social work profession to sell "its services to the general public and to powerful political and economic supporters" (Andrews, 1987, p. 484); and prevent mentally disturbed individuals from seeking psychiatric help (Bram, 1997).

The purpose of this study was to investigate and describe the media depictions of the attributes of professionals in higher education. It was intended to raise the level of awareness of the higher education teaching profession and to contribute to the knowledge of policy makers and those in a position to make decisions about the college environment.

Problem Statement

Utilizing content analysis, which allows for combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies, this study categorized the television behaviors of college educators, and it described the television portrayals of higher education's instructors in terms of whether the images enhance or detract from the representation of the profession.

Research Questions

1. How does the media portray the interactions of college instructors with their administrators, peers, students, and others in the higher education environment?
2. Do the attributes of college instructors portrayed on television reflect a positive or negative image of higher education teachers?
3. Does the media portrayal of college instructors accurately depict this profession's roles?

Significance of the Study

Recent research and journal discussion reflect that the media influences how elementary, middle school, and high school students view their educational experience and how they perceive their teachers. Education as an institution has frequently been presented as dysfunctional in the media (Skill, 1994). Kaplan (1990) reviewed the portrayal of teachers on television since the 1950s and found that viewers can formulate peculiar visions of educators based on their consumption of the social interaction of teachers as presented on television. Swetnam (1992) compared demographic characteristics of real-life teachers to those of teachers in the media and found that major misrepresentations are present in the media portrayals.

To this date, a review of current research literature on the portrayals of college instructors in television programming has not revealed a single study at that educational level. To address this void in the research, this study focused on the portrayal of college instructors on television. It provided descriptions of college instructors' behaviors found in a highly selective number of popular situation comedies that are very likely to have been widely viewed. It determined the extent to which these portrayals were accurate and worthy models for college students to use in their interactions with real-life college instructors.

Methodology

Content analysis is the accepted methodology for communication studies. Content analysis is "a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication" (Berelson, 1952; as cited in Krippendorff, 1980, p. 21; Stempel III, 1981, p. 120). Since quantitative and qualitative

techniques are not mutually exclusive in content analysis (Stempel, 1981), they were employed together in the present study. Teacher personality emerged from the literature review as an important attribute to students' first impressions and as a major concept that describes behavior. Therefore, personality categories were developed and coded from a modified version of the Activity Index and the Environmental Indexes (as discussed by Stern, 1970), which were based on the work of Murray (1938). These were then used as a major focus of the content analysis, which formed the core of inquiry of this study.

Assumptions

One major assumption of this study was that students have viewed education professionals on television prior to attending college. "By the time a child graduates from high school, she or he will have spent some 20,000 hours watching television" (Parenti, 1992, p. 163). The programs selected for this study are those that are aired during prime-time. In addition, two of the three programs selected for this study have been on television for more than five years, which substantiates viewer popularity. The third program premiered on the Friday night prime-time line-up; however, it aired between two well-established, popular programs. This technique is used by the television industry to encourage viewers to stay on their station. Currently all three programs are in syndication and reruns are aired almost every day of the week.

This study further assumed that the programs selected were a representative sample of portrayals of college instructors in the media. The main characters in "3rd Rock from the Sun" play the parts of university professors. "Boy Meets World" features a character in the role of a college instructor. "Two of a Kind" characterizes a single-parent college professor in a major role.

An important assumption of this study was that college students develop beliefs about college instructors from processing television portrayals. From the perspectives of cultivation theory and social cognitive theory, portrayals of college teachers' behaviors on television have the potential to influence viewers' perceptions about real-life college teachers' roles and relationships with students.

Limitations

The content analysis was not intended to show what college students actually perceive from viewing television; however, this descriptive study did reflect repeated themes and messages that have been presented over long periods of time and thus ones that students were highly likely to have been exposed to on a repeated basis.

The content analysis was also not designed to establish a cause-effect relationship between students viewing symbolic models of college teachers on television and students' learning and behavior. However, this descriptive study was intended to provide insight into the roles of college teachers and their relationships with students and others as portrayed on prime-time television.

Summary

As early as the 1940's, college students' predispositions were shown to have an influence on students in their relationships with their professors (Newcomb, 1943). Aspects of television content continue to be studied to determine if the audience learns from media portrayals and if viewers' predispositions are influenced by what they learn. As a medium to college students' predispositions, interactions and the environment in television situation comedies could influence students' relationships with their instructors.

The purpose of the current study was to investigate and describe the behaviors of college instructors as they are presented in television situation comedies.

Definition of Terms

<u>Attitude</u>	"An attitude is a disposition in the sense that it is a learned tendency to think about some object, person, or issue in a particular way" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991, p. 31).
<u>Favorable</u>	"Different types of positive attitude" (Murray, 1938, p. 113).
<u>Mainstreaming</u>	A process that "represents the theoretical elaboration and empirical verification of television's cultivation of common perspectives" (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, & Signorielli, 1994, p. 28).
<u>Personality</u>	"A temporal integrate of mutually dependent processes (variables) developing in time" (Murray, 1938, p. ix).
<u>Predispositions</u>	Motives, with reference to attitude change/development -- attitude change and development are adaptations "made by an organism with a specific history <u>predisposing</u> it toward certain sorts of activity and away from others" (Newcomb, 1943, p. 9).
<u>Sitcoms</u>	Abbreviated term for situation comedy; television programs with the purpose of entertaining.
<u>Unfavorable</u>	"Different types of negative attitude" (Murray, 1938, p. 113).
<u>Vicarious</u>	How people learn through the modeling of others (Bandura, 1994, p. 67).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

A review of the literature on media influence theory set the parameters for understanding and structuring this study. Theory, concepts, and philosophical perspectives of television's influence on viewers were examined. Included in the review of media influence theory, preponderate conditions contributing to attitude formation and subsequent behavior were traced from the earliest beliefs of researchers to the current models created from in-depth study. Philosophical perspectives crossed several academic disciplines: Psychology, Cognition, Sociology, Political Science, Journalism, Culture, and Education. Many of these philosophical perspectives utilized concepts of learning from television, which contributed to this study. The concepts most emphasized to describe the influence of mass communication were symbolic modeling, priming, persuasion, theme repetition, message repetition, patterns, and mainstreaming. Studies of television occupational portrayals and the portrayal of educators in mass communication (television, poetry, film, and novels) were reviewed. This extensive review provided initial category selection and contributed to the methodology of the research. Finally, a literature review pertaining to college students' attitudes and college instructors' roles was conducted. From these "real-world" facts, the concept of Personality emerged as an attribute which influences students' impressions of college instructors and the higher

education environment. Thus, personality categories were selected for content analysis.

Television Influence Theory

Persuasion

Researchers of the 1920s and 1930s (Lasswell, 1927; Lippmann, 1922; Doob, 1935) assumed that the media transmitted information and this information had a direct effect on the attitudes and behavior of the audience (Petty & Priester, 1994). Lasswell (1948) designed the following model of persuasion:

Who (communicator) Says what (message) In which channel (medium) To whom (receiver) With what effect (effect; as found in Winett, 1986, p. 13).

Lasswell's model was obviously linear and assumed a direct effect on the receiver of a message (Winett, 1986). The direct effects approach was challenged by Carl Hovland and his colleagues (1949) who found that the power to change the attitudes and behavior of soldiers through military training films was dependent on moderating variables. Hovland began the research of "systematic analysis of the idea that persuasion involves a series of steps or processes" (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991, p. 135). From a learning theory approach, Hovland and his colleagues identified three mental steps to persuasion: attention, comprehension, and attitude change. Thus, Hovland proposed the limited effects concept of media influence; the power to change the attitudes and behavior of viewers is dependent on moderating variables (Petty & Priester, 1994). Winett (1986) credits Lasswell's model as the foundation for future models of persuasion. Winett explained this research: "It [Lasswell's model] can be made more contemporary by indicating the potential for feedback between steps (e.g., DeFleur, 1966); by differentiating steps such as Shannon and Weaver's (1949) early focus on the message,

and by more focus on the cognitive processes involved by the receiver in perceiving, comprehending, and using (decoding processes) the message (e.g., Bettman, 1979)" (p. 14).

McGuire (1968, 1989) elaborated the psychological framework of mass media persuasion effects of Hovland and his colleagues, constructing the communication/persuasion matrix model. The matrix depicted the input and output variables of media persuasion. Input variables included source, message, recipient, channel and context. Out-put variables were exposure, attention, interest, comprehension, acquisition, yielding, memory, retrieval, decision, action, reinforcement and consolidation (as found in Petty & Priester, 1994). Cognitive response theory (Greenwald, 1968; Petty, Ostrom, & Brock, 1981) established that the steps in the matrix could be independent and not just sequential (as found in Petty & Priester, 1994). While Hovland's research was based on the concepts of learning, cognitive response theory held "that the extent of yielding is related to the idiosyncratic cognitive responses (pro and counter arguments) generated to the message rather than learning of the message, and persistence of persuasion is related to memory for these cognitive responses rather than the message content per se" (Petty & Priester, 1994, p. 98).

Petty and Cacioppo (1981, 1986) further delineated the yielding process of cognitive response theory by introducing the central and peripheral routes to persuasion. In the elaboration likelihood model, the recipient of a persuasive message must have a personal motivation to the message and must be able to process the message to formulate favorable or unfavorable thoughts. A favorable thought produces a positive attitude change brought about by the message. An unfavorable thought process brings about a negative attitude change. In either case, if the message flows through this central route,

the new attitude is seen as lasting and predictive of behavior. However, if the message is resisted at any one of the steps in the central route, such as the recipient not having the ability to process the message, the message is detoured to the peripheral route of persuasion. The peripheral route explains short-term attitude change, which is not predictive of behavior (as found in Petty & Priester, 1994). This model of persuasion stipulates "that as the likelihood of elaboration is increased (as determined by factors such as the personal relevance of the message and number of times it is repeated), the perceived quality of the issue-relevant arguments presented becomes a more important determinant of persuasion" (Petty & Priester, 1994, p. 106).

An experiment that confirmed central processing to lead to "greater scrutiny of issue-related content" was conducted by Engelberg (1998). Health messages (alcohol) in the situation comedy "Roseanne" were compared for their influence on viewers' processing of entertainment goals versus persuasion processing goals. Engelberg found that "a persuasion processing goal generated more critical message processing and promoted greater personal issue relevance" (Dissertation Abstract). Engelberg also found that viewers noticed the health issue more often in other media content as well as in real-life situations in the community. The persuasion-processing goal intensified thought and viewers sought out information related to the issue of alcohol.

Priming

Priming describes the imitative responses of television viewers. Parenti (1992) labeled these responses as "copycat" or "trigger" effects and provided the following examples:

1. The rash of self-killings following the news that Marilyn Monroe had taken her life.

2. After *The Deer Hunter* began playing in theaters in 1979, at least twenty-five viewers around the country reenacted the movie's Russian roulette scene and blew their brains out.
3. A woman in Boston's Roxbury district was doused with gasoline and burned to death shortly after the telecasting of the film *Fuzz*, which portrayed a similar act.
4. NBC showed the film *The Doomsday Flight*, about a man who tries to extract a ransom from an airline after planting a bomb on one of its planes. Within a week, a dozen bomb threats were reported by the major airlines, a dramatic increase over the previous month (p. 7).

Of the contemporary cognitive media influence theories, priming effect most resembles the direct effects model proposed by Lasswell in 1948.

Using the cognitive concept of spreading activation (Collins & Loftus, 1975) as a foundation, Berkowitz and Rogers (1986) described a priming effect as an activated thought element in which "the activation radiates out from this particular node along the associative pathways to other nodes" (pp. 58-59). Once activated and for a period of time afterward, "there is an increased probability that it and associated thought elements will come to mind again" (Berkowitz & Rogers, p.59).

Bower (1981), Clark and Isen (1982), Lang (1979) and Leventhal (1980) proposed that emotions activate and link associative networks (as found in Berkowitz & Rogers, 1986). For example, Lang's (1979) research led to the conclusion that there is both an associative and semantic link between memory, thought and feeling nodes. Further, the connection "related to other concepts in memory and to the expressive behaviors and autonomic responses" (as cited in Berkowitz & Rogers, 1986, p. 60).

Bower (1981) investigated the influence of emotion on memory and thinking. Among his other findings, Bower postulated, "Emotions powerfully influenced such cognitive processes as free association, imaginative fantasies, social perceptions, and snap judgments about others' personalities" (p. 129).

Jo and Berkowitz (1994) discussed associative networks in the context of violent media content and its influence on viewers' aggressive behavior. From their review of over three decades of research on priming effects, they surmised, "there is both direct and indirect evidence that the observation of aggression evokes aggression-related ideas in viewers" (p. 48). Geen (1994) supported Jo and Berkowitz's (1994) postulation. Geen's review of research and theory on violent television content and its relationship to viewers' aggression pointed to "evidence from four types of study – laboratory experiments, field experiments, longitudinal studies, and archival studies" (p. 160) that violence on television facilitates aggression in children, adolescents and young adults, which produce "a wide range of constrained and unconstrained behaviors" (p. 160).

Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura (1994) approached media influence theory from the sociocognitive perspective. He proposed that psychosocial functioning is a process of interacting determinates. The external environment, the internal events (cognitive/biological) which affect perceptions, and behavior each influence one another in the form of triadic reciprocal causation. Bandura explained that humans have the capacity to process "generative symbolization, forethought, evaluative self-regulation, reflective self consciousness, and symbolic communication" (p. 62). In extending social cognitive theory to mass communication, Bandura contended that a concept central to sociocognitive development is the capacity for symbolic modeling. Tan (1986) explained

that with the capacity for symbolic modeling, the viewer "generalizes from a specific televised behavior he or she has learned to other similar behaviors and situations" (p. 49). "Modeling affects the adoption of new practices and behavior patterns in several ways. It instructs people about new ways of thinking and behaving by informative demonstration or description...and models also display preferences and evaluative reactions, which can alter observers' values and standards" (Bandura, 1994, p. 79). A commonality of influence studies is the cognitive ability of the message recipient. Bandura stated, "A number of factors influence the exploration and construal of what is modeled in the social and symbolic environment. Some of these determinants concern the cognitive skills, preconceptions, and value preferences of the observers" (p. 68).

"Social cognitive theory devotes much attention to the social origins of thought and mechanisms through which social factors exert their influence on cognitive functioning" (Bandura, 1994, p. 63). According to Bandura, there are four capabilities which govern an individual's thought process: symbolizing, self-regulation, self-reflection, and vicarious. Vicarious capability explains how people learn through the modeling of others. "The more peoples images of reality depend on the media's symbolic environment, the greater is its social impact" (Ball-Rokeach & DeFleur, 1976; as cited in Bandura, 1994, p. 67). Further, researchers (Buerkel-Rothfuss & Mayes, 1981; McGhee & Frueh, 1980; Tan, 1979) suggested that televised symbolic modeling of stereotypes harbors some misconceptions about various aspects of life, such as occupational explorations, minority and ethnic populations, social positions, gender roles, and the elderly (as found in Bandura, 1994).

Potts, Doppler, and Hernandez (1994) studied television content and its influence on children's potential for risk-taking. The researchers designed a study from Bandura's

(1986) primary functions of observational learning: "Observers can learn new behaviors from observing models perform such behaviors" and "Modeled behavior and its context can serve as a signal or cue for the observer to perform a behavior that is already in his/her repertoire" (Potts, Doppler & Hernandez, 1994, p. 322). The purpose of their study was to "examine the effects of risk-taking TV models on children's motivations to take physical risks themselves" (Potts et al., p. 322). The results of their experimental research indicated, "Television content, even relatively innocuous and humorous animated cartoons, may represent a previously unidentified influence on childhood injury via observational learning processes" (Potts et al., p. 328).

Skill and Wallace (1990) endorsed television behavior models as an alternative to studying phenomenon in a real-world setting. Skill and Wallace asserted, "The primary reason for this absence of empirical work (on power processes in families) is methodological constraints. It has been difficult to gain access to the use of power in natural settings" (p. 243). Thus, Skill and Wallace employed a descriptive content analysis of "assertive power as it is portrayed across family roles in prime-time television" (p. 243). From 63 episodes of 25 different programs, the researchers categorized ten programs with intact family units, nine non-intact family units, and six mixed-family units; they randomly selected five hours of programming from each category and noted that this allowed for "the analysis of communication patterns across family units that are structurally distinct from each other" (Skill & Wallace, p. 250). The communicative behavior acts of family members were first coded as assertive, conforming, rejecting, or neutral. Then, French and Raven's (1959) assertive acts of power strategies (reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert power) were adapted and used for the researchers' coding scheme. The total number of communicative acts

analyzed in this study was 2,058. Skill and Wallace's methodology allowed for the analysis of assertive power, conformity, and rejection acts across family types; in relation to this part of the study, the results were

1. Intact families are the most harmonious. Members of these families were least likely to engage in both power acts and rejection acts and most likely to exhibit conformity behaviors.
2. Mixed family units were least harmonious. This family configuration was more likely to exhibit rejection behaviors and less likely to demonstrate conformity behaviors.
3. Non-intact families were more harmonious than mixed families, but less so than the intact family configuration (p. 259).

Skill and Wallace contended, "Of primary concern to researchers studying the family from a social learning perspective is what models and strategies are made available by families portrayed on television to an audience which may be interested in adopting such strategies for its own use" (p. 259). Overall, this study found that television families offer viewers a variety of reasonable models of positive power strategies in their communicative behavior, as in decision-making, problem solving, and conflict resolution.

The vicarious capability of television portrayals influences people's perceptions of social reality, and from the perspective of television as a socializing agent, Larson (1989) examined sibling behaviors in the "Cosby Show," "Family Ties," and "Growing Pains." Larson alleged, "What television teaches one about how to be a sibling has the potential to influence one's interpersonal relationships both within and outside of the family" (p. 306). Overall the results of Larson's study showed more positive behaviors (58.1%) than

negative (41.9%). But the siblings in "Growing Pains" modeled a higher number of negative behaviors (56.5%) than positive (43.5%), and viewers of this program "might well develop a perception of sibling relationships as especially unpleasant" (Larson, pp. 312-313).

Cultivation Theory

Gerbner and his colleagues have studied the dramatic content in television since 1967. In 1974 they began to explore the "consequences of growing up and living with television" (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1994, p. 17). From their work they have developed cultivation analysis. Cultivation theory compliments other media effects approaches, yet it differs from the traditional because it focuses on stability rather than change. "Neither the 'before and after exposure' model, nor the notion of 'predispositions' as intervening variables, so important in traditional effects studies, apply in the context of cultivation analysis...Television plays a role in the formation of those very 'predispositions' that later intervene (and often resist) other influences and attempts at persuasion" (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1994, p. 37).

The researchers asserted that television is a daily ritual in which society is informed through the "continual repetition of patterns (myths, ideologies, 'facts,' relationships, etc.) that serve to define the world" (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1994, p. 18). The method focuses on the analysis of messages that are repeated and form patterns in a wide variety of television content.

The cultural indicators approach has been used to determine the "extent to which television viewing contributes to audience conceptions and actions" (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1994, p. 21). Responses to surveys of sample populations (adults, adolescents, or children) measure views of social reality against television's social reality.

Television is never mentioned in the questions on the survey, and respondents are categorized as "light," "medium," or "heavy" viewers. "The 'cultivation differential' is the margin of difference in conceptions of reality between light and heavy viewers in the same demographic subgroups" (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1994, p. 23).

Mainstreaming is an important concept in cultivation theory. It is seen as a process that "represents the theoretical elaboration and empirical verification of television's cultivation of common perspectives" (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1994, p. 28). The fundamental assumption of cultivation theory is "that only repetitive, long-range, and consistent exposure to patterns common to most programming, such as casting, social typing, and the 'fate' of different social types, can be expected to cultivate stable and widely shared images of life and society" (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1994, p. 25).

In 1980 Krippendorff wrote, Gerbner's research group had accumulated enough data on television violence "to make extrapolations of interest to policy makers" (p. 38). Convincingly, numerous studies of various aspects of television social reality have found evidence of cultivation effects. Weaver and Wakshlag (1986) studied television viewers' perceived vulnerability to crime. The researchers found that respondents who did not have direct or indirect crime experience and who relied only on television's depictions were concerned about personal safety in hypothetical situations. Weaver and Wakshlag suggested, "The data for this group of viewers (those that relied on television's depictions) is consistent with the 'cultivation' effect" (p. 153). Wright et al. (1995) concentrated on determining if television was a likely source for children's initial construction of schemata for occupational roles. These researchers ascertained, "Children form separate schemata for social information acquired from TV and from

real-world experience, but those who perceive television as socially realistic are apt to incorporate TV messages in their schemata and their aspirations" (Wright et al., p. 1706). Signorielli (1982) determined that television's depiction of marital status produced "rather stereotypical and traditional portrayals of women and marriage" (p. 594). Signorielli suggested that these portrayals seemed to cultivate conflicting attitudes on starting a family versus career aspirations.

Bryant and Rockwell (1994) studied the effects on adolescents' moral judgments based on their exposure to massive sexually oriented prime-time television. The researchers selected programs that had a great deal of sexual content for their subjects to view. Fifteen hours of each of three categories – sexual relationship and gender, sexual relations between married partners, and extra or non-marital sex were shown to thirteen and fourteen year old girls and boys. For five consecutive nights, the adolescents watched three hours of programming. They were then asked to complete an assessment of moral judgment questionnaire. The researchers had theorized that there was a potential for shifts in moral judgment that may come from watching television. Bryant and Rockwell's findings supported their hypothesis: "For young teenagers, who are one of the most vulnerable groups of family members, heavy exposure to prime-time television programming featuring sexual intimacy between unmarried persons can clearly result in altered *moral judgment*" (p. 194).

Ping (1998) studied the United States and Chinese cultural perspectives on materialism and its relationship to happiness. Surveys analyzed with a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques showed that happiness was the central goal of materialists in both countries. However, Ping's research revealed a difference in the cognitive processing of goals. Materialists in the United States demonstrated a more

complex schema for processing goals, whereas non-materialists in China demonstrated a more complex schema for goal processing. The goals for happiness were the same for both countries, including self-esteem, family income, and collectivism. Cultural influences (e.g., television viewing motives, individualism, viewing specific television programs) were found to be powerful in shaping materialistic attitudes. In relation to the cultivation perspective, Ping found that "specific television program viewing is more important than a global television measure in studying cultivation effects" (Dissertation Abstract).

Education and Educators in Mass Communication

In a Phi Delta Kappan Special Report titled, TV's Version of Education and What to Do About It, Kaplan (1990) reviewed the portrayal of teachers on television since the 1950s. He wrote, "If TV's situation comedies are to be believed, our teachers since the 1950s have been manipulative, man-crazy zanies ("Our Miss Brooks"), amiable nerds ("Mr. Peepers"), charismatic former major league athletes ("The White Shadow" and "Lucas Tanner"), or bemused custodians of Diogenes' lamp ("Head of the Class")" (Kaplan, p. K6). Kaplan surmised that situation comedies have been "frivolous, unrepresentative depictions of the school experience" (p. K6).

Consistent with Duncan's (1992) research that compared the actual work of nurses with television depictions and found inaccuracies mostly in terms of omission of much of the work nurses perform, Kaplan (1990) stated that television "teachers do not spend much time at their real jobs" (p. K7). Kaplan described the caricatures of television's teachers as being mostly do-it-your-own-way males who consistently ignore their principals. The principals compliment these teachers' roles because they are portrayed as

less than wise and incapable of worthy decisions. Television "teachers and administrators live in a state of ceaseless conflict" (Kaplan, p. K7). Kaplan mentioned that there have been exceptions to these teacher portrayals, such as the highly talented teachers featured in "Fame" and the intelligent history teacher featured in "Room 222." Kaplan wrote that for the most part, "the entire K-12 enterprise (especially the secondary schools) comes through as less professional and less attractive than comparable endeavors" (p. K7).

According to Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup polls "Most Americans do not buy the caricature of public education that commercial TV drama has tried to flash into our living rooms" (Kaplan, 1990, p. K6). However, Kaplan (1990) suggested that viewers can formulate peculiar visions of educators based on their consumption of media portrayed social interactions.

Swetnam (1992) pointed out, "Without personal knowledge about schools and teachers, people form their attitudes based on fictional media representations" (p. 30). Swetnam's content analysis of teachers on television and in films showed major misrepresentations of teachers in the media compared to demographic characteristics of real-life teachers. Some misrepresentations were in the form of subliminal messages, such as (a) Anybody can teach (Kindergarten Cops and "The White Shadow"), (b) Learning should always be easy and fun ("Davis Rules"), and (c) All teachers have an antagonistic relationship with their principal ("Head of the Class" and "Welcome Back Kotter"). Stereotypical images of teachers emerged from Swetnam's content analysis. Media teachers were portrayed with serious attitude and behavioral problems or lacking good values or teaching skills (Summer School and "The Wonder Years").

Swetnam (1992) proposed that unrealistic positive portrayals, such as the perfect teacher who solves all social and academic problems ("The White Shadow") cause "frustration and burnout in teachers when they can not live up to these social expectations" (p. 32), and that students' perceptions of appropriate communication could be influenced by media's student/teacher interactions: "Communication between media teachers and students is often a give-and-take exchange that in many real classrooms would be taken for back talk" (p. 31). Further, Swetnam wrote that negative portrayals of teachers, stereotypical images, and misrepresentations of the professional and the profession shape "the perceptions of average citizens-taxpayers, voters, and parents" (p. 30).

Television and film portrayals of principals were analyzed by Glanz (1997). Using a cultural studies approach he found that these "culturally shared cognitive models" not only influenced teachers, students, and parents, but also influenced how principals understand themselves in their professional roles. A comparative content analysis revealed three views of principals in the repeated themes of authoritarian, bureaucratic, and numskull. Glanz suggested that real-life principals could temper the authoritarian and bureaucratic media portrayals by communicating an opposition to such practices to teachers, students and parents. As for the "numskull" mediated message, Glanz recommended that principals reveal their sense of humor to others in order to counteract the negative influence of principals portrayed in this fashion.

McCarthy (1997) selected poetry as a form of mass communication that would reveal images of and insights into the culture of higher education. McCarthy related, "Poetry provides a medium that allows the scholar to incorporate into the existing body of knowledge the affective domain: the realm of emotions, beliefs and values"

Dissertation Abstract). The researcher's sample included 350 contemporary poems, mostly written by poets who teach. Some of the patterns and themes that emerged from McCarthy's research were

1. Poetry about the academic career reveals uncertainties related to earning a degree, finding a position, achieving tenure, vying for promotion, and retiring.
2. Professors are portrayed as pedants, scholars, paupers, and as comic and tragic figures.
3. Teachers display contrasting qualities of commitment, care, and cynicism.
4. Poems describe memorable students, problem students, student survivors, and nontraditional students.
5. Administrators are portrayed primarily as bureaucrats.
6. Higher education institutions are seen as sanctuaries that assist in the passage to adulthood and, conversely, as places of fear and confusion (Dissertation Abstract).

In comparing these findings with other documentation of fictional higher education, McCarthy found that "the attitudes, beliefs and values that emerge in the poetry correspond with many of the core values identified in the research literature" (Dissertation Abstract).

Osborn (1990) researched American films to find patterns and trends relating to adult college students. This study of the higher education environment and college students was intended to see if portrayals have changed through the years. Seventeen

films released from 1935 to 1988 made up the sample; all but two of the films were viewed and annotated. Osborn's qualitative approach included analyzing the notes of each film and creating a database for study. The researcher concluded that films

1. May be interpreted as expressions of the continuing historical debate over the value of higher education.
2. Present a mixed representation of the social reality of adult college students.
3. Portray adult learning reasonably accurately and celebrate the adult potential for learning, developing, and achieving.
4. Contain reasonably accurate representations of the necessity for adult college students to reconcile their experiential learning with academic knowledge.
5. Portray access to higher education as restricted to traditional, residential, daytime programs.
6. May be interpreted as examinations of the issue of appropriate gender roles (Dissertation Abstract).

Hinton (1991) studied higher education in feature films because they "possess enormous ability to mold, shape, and direct popular beliefs and attitudes" (Dissertation Abstract). Hinton also wrote that films "serve as living sociological documents, pieces of frozen time that preserve the concerns of the past" (Dissertation Abstract). The films that Hinton studied through contextual, textual, and thematic analysis were those that were significant in their commercial distribution from the 1960s through the 1990s. Hinton found that movies prior to the 1960s created a social construct that contributed to viewers' belief in higher education as a desired goal for success. After this era, movies

depicted a negative view of higher education (the counterculture and student revolt), and they contributed to the change in educational values. Positive aspects of higher education, such as student demographics and depictions of the community college, were not found in the movies. Hinton concluded, "Each student enters college with media-fed expectations that often prepare them for an experience different from what they encounter. Administrators and professors can benefit from being attuned to the images that students bring with them from the movies" (Dissertation Abstract).

The purpose of Smith's (1999) study was to describe how the public views administrators in popular culture: "In this paper, I examine representations of educational administrators in recent school genre films, attending particularly to the messages they contain about appropriate and inappropriate behaviors" (p. 51). Twenty-eight films that featured education leaders were reviewed; thirteen films that represented trends in the larger sample were selected for analysis. Scripts relating to educational leaders were coded to determine trends and similarities in plot. Representations of department chairs, assistant principals, principals, and central office personnel became the focus of the study. Six categories emerged: "the savior; the supportive father; the dupe; the clueless; the opportunist; and the pimp" (p. 52). Women in positions of power fell into two categories, politically motivated shrew and benign mothers. Smith remarked, "That there was a blatant sexual (sexist) text in these cinematic messages came as no surprise" (p. 52). An additional category, helpmates, completed the identification of categories.

Smith (1999) determined inconsistencies in the messages sent to viewers. The films endorsed authoritarian institutions; criticized institutional leaders, and confirmed that educational problems were other than systemic, implying that those who operated the system were at fault. Smith wrote, "It is as though we have two discussions taking place,

spoken in different languages, about the same activities" (p. 64). There is the film version of education, and there is scholarship, which stimulates effective educational leadership in "community building, culture tending, communication, and collaboration" (p. 64). Smith, who prepares administrators based on educational research, cautioned, "If expectations and judgments are based on what appears on videotape, my graduates might find their practice shaped by cultural expectations in ways that perpetuate, rather than trouble, the status quo" (p. 64).

Novels have been the source of many studies of higher education and its professionals. For example, Finn (1979) investigated the image of college teaching in American novels of the 1960s and found that depictions of classroom teaching were lacking, but the content of novels of the 1960s did contain discussion of college teachers and instruction. Hamm, (1997) claimed that fictionalized colleges and universities could shape higher education administration teaching practices. Hamm concluded, "Some authors may have intended that their work be construed as a teaching tool because they employed satire to achieve this purpose" (Dissertation Abstract). Hedeman (1993) questioned whether novels of the 1980s were reliable sources for the public to learn about higher education. Hedeman found

1. Colleges and universities portrayed in the novels represent a narrow range of institutions which are primarily expensive, exclusive, private, and prestigious.
2. Higher education for African Americans, Asian Americans, and Native Americans is alien to their social and cultural experiences, and its effects damage the individuals involved – students and professors.

3. College serves most fictional characters as a means of escape – from home, from stalled careers and failed marriages, or from relative deprivation. The escapes are rarely productive.
4. The fictional college experience divides families.
5. Higher education's sexism limits opportunities for women (Dissertation Abstract).

Occupational Portrayals on Television

A major concern in children's socialization is the influence of television career choices. Researchers have sought answers to whether or not career decisions have been made by older viewers because of beliefs and attitudes that had been fostered through the prolonged watching of entertainment television. Recognizing that children spend most of their free time watching television, DeFleur (1964) identified this form of entertainment as a way of incidental learning and as an agency to socialization. With this awareness, he performed a systematic analysis of television's occupational content. DeFleur wanted "to describe the way in which the world of work appears on television through the portrayal of occupational roles within programs presented as entertainment" (p. 60). Through content analysis, 436 common occupational categories were classified. The type of occupation, background settings, interaction patterns (power), and characteristics of the portrayed workers were studied. By comparing the televised labor force with then current census data, DeFleur showed television programs to over represent managerial and professional roles and under represent less prestigious jobs. DeFleur's method for describing the settings for each work role consisted of only three categories (glamorous, ordinary, humble) that accounted for each of the 35 occupations. DeFleur recognized this

limitation to his design; however, he maintained that "if the characteristics of places of work form a meaningful variable that could influence the occupational perceptions of young viewers in a simple way, then such jobs as butler, theatrical agent, and bartender (all shown in glamorous settings) should appear as more desirable to children than judge, clergyman, or educator" (p. 66).

The value of power as an attraction to certain occupations by children was computed for each category. The results showed that occupations that the ordinary child would be least likely to enter commanded the most power. Misconceptions pervaded characterizations of workers and stereotyped beliefs about occupational roles were also observed in programs. DeFleur (1964) said of his analysis, "As a learning source, then, television content that deals with occupational roles can be characterized as selective, unreal, stereotyped, and misleading" (p.74).

Similar findings emerged in McGregor's (1992) content analysis of occupational roles on television. Shows from television's 1989-1990 seasons were randomly selected from PBS daytime, network prime time and Saturday morning, resulting in a sample of 90 children and family programs. Nine hundred and seventy role models were coded for "sex, age, occupational classification, explicitness of occupational portrayal, and reinforcement of role model's work-related performance" (Dissertation Abstract). As with DeFleur's (1964) study, McGregor found that white-collar occupations were the most prominent in television programs. Gender misrepresentations were also evident. McGregor related, "On daytime children's and prime-time family programming males outnumbered females by 2 to 1 while on Saturday morning children's programming males outnumbered females by 3 to 1" (Dissertation Abstract). In regard to the role model's reinforcement of work-related performance, most television characters were not

rewarded. McGregor concluded, "Children and family programs do not accurately represent the real world of work in their portrayal of occupations" (Dissertation Abstract).

A limitation of DeFleur's (1964) study was that the content analysis did not allow for the measurement of "the incidental learning that may result from such portrayals" (p. 60). In 1967 DeFleur, M. and DeFleur, L. B. published the results of a study in which 237 children ages 6 through 13 and their parents participated. The researchers identified three specific objectives for their research:

First, it is a study of the level of knowledge attained by young children... concerning the duties and other characteristics of eighteen selected occupational roles. Second, it is an attempt to probe the relationships which exist between such knowledge and membership in selected social categories. Third, the study inquires into the relative contribution of three somewhat distinct sources of information from which children can learn about occupational roles and their social ranking (DeFleur & DeFleur, p. 778).

The analysis of the data supported the researchers' first hypothesis that "role knowledge would increase linearly with age" (DeFleur & DeFleur, p. 781). Among other findings in relation to gender and social status, the second hypothesis "as children become older, they will tend to rank occupations more and more consistently" (DeFleur & DeFleur, p. 781) was also supported.

For the third hypothesis, three learning sources were included in the extensive interviews with the subjects; personal contact (minister, teacher, owner of small grocery, mailman, supermarket clerk and school janitor); television (judge, lawyer, reporter, head waiter, butler and bell hop); and the general culture (bank president, electrical engineer,

general accountant, skilled printer, shipping clerk, and hospital orderly). DeFleur and DeFleur hypothesized, "Personal contact occupations (Set I) would be best understood, television contact roles (Set II) next best, and general culture occupations (Set III) least well understood" (p. 785). The data supported this hypothesis and in doing so distinguished television as an important learning source. The occupational roles of television were significantly better understood than those of the general culture. The research showed that heavy viewing by children enhanced their knowledge of television occupations. In addition, stereotypical portrayals resulted in a substantial "homogenization effect."

Subsequent studies have supported the findings of DeFleur (1964) and DeFleur and DeFleur (1967). One of the most recent was a study conducted by Wright et al. (1995). Wright et al. concentrated on determining if television is a likely source for children's initial construction of schemata for social roles and social scripts. The subjects of the study were 97 second and 80 fifth graders. The researchers were looking for the children's perceived social realism and perceived factuality of occupations (nurses/police officers). A questionnaire of 18 items was designed to measure the factuality of television. The methodology also included structured interviews and the completion of a television viewing frequency checklist. The findings of this study showed that children formulate schema elements that are different for television occupations versus real-life occupations. Although children form separate schema for real-world occupations and television portrayals, the researchers indicated, "Television is clearly implicated in these data as an influence on children's beliefs and aspirations" (Wright et al., p. 1716). The cultivation perspective was supported by findings from this study. Children who were heavy viewers and believed the television reality were interested in other occupations

regularly seen on television. "This finding supports a more general 'cultivation' hypothesis suggesting that frequent exposure and acceptance of television as realistic cultivates not only beliefs about television's reality but also motivation to attain the goals most often portrayed" (Wright et al., p. 1716).

In 1976 Leifer and Lesser offered the following assumptions about television's influence on children's stereotypic attitudes and subsequent career decisions:

Young children do develop concepts about careers very early in thier [sic] lives, but because their information and experience are fragmentary, their concepts are narrow and stereotypic. Once early stereotypes are formed, and no concerted effort is made to counter them, they persist into adolescence and young adulthood with only superficial improvements and expansions based on a child's personal experiences with employed persons (as cited in Janis, 1980, p. 168).

Through their research, Wright et al. (1995) substantiated Leifer and Lesser's suppositions. "Children aspire to occupations about which they have positive schemata, and both aspirations and schemata are influenced by the child's perceptions that television content is 'true to life' or realistic" (Wright et al., p. 1716).

Thus far the literature review on television occupations has emphasized children's formulation of misconceptions and atypical (dramatic) as well as stereotypical beliefs; these beliefs were shown to have been formulated through incidental learning and the cultivation process. The continuation of the literature review will address the focus of the current study by answering the following question, "What images have been presented on television of specific professionals that could influence viewers' beliefs and interactions with counterparts in the real world?"

According to Gerbner, Morgan and Signorelli (1982), "Professionals play a disproportionately large role in the world of television" (p. 293). The data gathered through the researchers' long-range project, cultivation indicators, revealed that "doctors probably fair best of all occupations on television" (Gerbner, Morgan & Signorelli, p. 294). Media portrayed doctors were shown as good, successful, peaceful, fair, sociable and warm. In fact, only 4% of doctors in major roles were seen as evil.

"The Doctor Shows," an article describing McLaughlin's (1975) research on television portrayed doctors substantiated the findings of the on-going cultural indicators project. Data from McLaughlin's sample of 15 prime-time network doctor shows revealed knowledge, power, and authority as characteristics of television doctors. In 95% of doctor/patient relationships, the doctor solved problems by bringing people closer, working out treatment conflict, or helping patients accept situations that were inevitable. Those in the medical profession were depicted in media portrayals as admirable in appearance, demeanor, and personality...ethical, kind, responsive to the requests of their patients, honest and courageous. McLaughlin summarized the unrealistic and stereotypic portrayals of television doctors of the 1970s and early 1980s: "The role of the medical doctor on television is therefore that of a powerful, almost omnipotent, healer who performs his duties above and beyond normally expected capacities" (p. 154). Misrepresentations of the medical profession on television during this time frame were documented by Warner's (1979) study of doctors on television, which showed "few female doctors on prime time television" and female doctors "are shown as more emotional and less professional than their male counterparts" (as cited in Gerbner, Morgan & Signorielli, 1982, p. 294).

Interestingly, a study of the medical profession in the 1990s revealed that television depictions included "more females" than in real life. The purpose of Pfau, Mullen and Garrow's (1995) study was to see if current depictions have changed from those of the depictions of the 1950s through 1970s. In addition, the researchers wanted to test the cultural indicators approach in an area where most adults have had direct experience. Pfau et al. stated, "We maintain that television images contribute to secondary socialization about professional roles even in the face of direct experience" (p. 443). To answer these research questions, they structured their methodology into three parts: (a) conducting a content analysis of network prime time programming to analyze the television depiction of physicians, (b) designing and administering a survey to practicing physicians in a Midwestern state to provide the link to the real world that the cultural indicators approach specifies, and (c) surveying a random sample of households for information pertaining to demographics, television viewing habits, and public perceptions of physicians. The data were analyzed through MANOVAs, univariate tests, planned comparisons, and correlation matrixes.

Pfau, Mullen and Garrow (1995) said of their study, "What has changed is that contemporary prime-time television depictions of physicians feature both front and back regions" (p. 444). The portrayed physician's back regions present uncertainties and mistakes made by these professionals. Also, the back regions reveal personal traits that are unfavorable, such as "adultery, arrogance, and avarice" (Pfau et al., p. 444). All three of the researchers' hypotheses were supported in their analyses:

1. Network prime-time television depictions of physicians positively skew the public's perceptions of such personal traits of physicians as interpersonal style and physical attractiveness. Physicians are

thus seen as more interpersonally effective (e.g., as more caring, warm, friendly, poised, relaxed, and calm) and physically alluring (e.g., more attractive, stylish, and sexy) compared to the reality check.

2. Television depictions negatively distort the public's perceptions of physician's personal traits of power and character. Physicians are viewed as more powerful (e.g., as more wealthy, strong, and high status) and of lower character (e.g., as less moral, right, proper, unselfish, good, and honest) in comparison with physicians' perceptions of members of their profession.
3. Television depictions of physicians skews public perceptions of the medical profession. The profession is seen as including more females and people less than 37 years of age than reality (Pfau et al., p. 452).

Nursing and Allied Healthweek requested opinions on television medicine from their professional healthcare readers. Federwisch (1996) reported the findings of this survey in the article "Health professionals respond to TV Portrayals." While some procedural errors made by television healthcare staff were amusing to those who practice in the real world, misconceptions and unrealistic ideas elicited responses that called for more realistic portrayals that would increase the understanding and awareness of viewers about the medical profession.

Respondents were concerned with the viewing public not seeking services because of misrepresented procedures. For example, Leslie Everett, Registered Nurse (RN) wrote that an episode of "ER" misrepresented the roles of healthcare staff in

suspected child abuse. In this episode, the nurse grabbed the child and never returned. Everett said, hopefully caregivers "won't get the wrong idea from this show and refuse to bring them (children) in to the ED (Emergency Department)" (Online, 1996, ¶ 21; as cited in Federwisch). In reality, Everett explained, suspected child abuse is handled in a documented, coordinated, caring effort by physicians, Child Protective Services, police and hospital security, and social services.

Federwisch (1996) reported that a number of respondents were concerned about the viewing public's perceptions of unrealistic medical occurrences, such as miraculous recoveries from paraplegia or coma. Linda Yamamoto, Physical Therapist, wrote: "In a way, it can make our jobs more difficult because people may not comprehend that things don't always turn out that well" (Online, 1996, ¶ 23; as cited in Federwisch).

In relation to the roles and responsibilities of nurses, Susan White, RN, recounted an episode of "Chicago Hope" that "set nurses back to the 1800s, when we were little more than slaves to physicians" (Online, 1996, ¶ 19; as cited in Federwisch). In this episode, a nurse refused to administer the doctor prescribed dosage of medication to a patient because the dosage was incorrect for the patient's body weight. The television doctor reported the incident, and the nurse was given a reprimand by a review panel. Susan White, RN contended, "Scenes like that invalidate nursing education, the nurse as patient advocate, nursing judgments, the nurse as a professional, and the nurse as part of the multidisciplinary medical team" (Online, 1996, ¶ 19; as cited in Federwisch).

The author noted that there are occasional accurate television portrayals of the medical profession ("Trauma 1"); however, the respondents from this survey concurred, "the few good examples do not compensate for the misconceptions that television shows foster" (Federwisch, 1996, Online, ¶ 28).

Duncan (1992) studied media portrayals of the nursing profession. The researcher interviewed 34 nurses to describe the actual work entailed in this profession and compared these findings with a literature review that described the image of nursing portrayed by mass communications. Through Duncan's (1992) qualitative study, categories, themes and patterns describing the nursing profession emerged: the nature of the work, nurse-nurse relationships, nurse-physician relationships, educational pursuits, scholarship, and patterns of media exposure and response. Duncan concluded, "The comparison of media portrayals to the actual work found inaccuracies between the two, mostly in terms of omission of much of the work of nursing from media portrayals" and "For most categories the media depictions were superficial by comparison" (Dissertation Abstract).

Other health care professionals have been concerned with how their television image might influence the viewing public. Bram (1997) used the framework of Gabbard and Gabbard (1987) to investigate the public's common perceptions of psychotherapists and their profession. The Gabbards (1987) held that portrayals of psychotherapists in the movies contributed to the formation of stereotypical beliefs by viewers. In particular, viewers were apt to believe that complex problems could be solved quickly through therapy, and therapists would act on counter-transference aggressive wishes and romantic-sexual desires (as found in Bram, 1997). In his investigation of the public's perception of psychotherapists, Bram extended the idea of cinema portrayals. His study compared the influence of personal therapy experience (PTE), vicarious (family and friend) experience, and the mass media (movies, television, radio, and print) on public perceptions.

The subjects in this study were 265 undergraduate students. The students participated by completing a six point rating scale relating to psychotherapy and psychotherapists. Some of the characteristics that served as items on the scale were the purpose and nature of therapy, gender similarities/differences, common myths, role, training, and ethics (Bram, 1997). The subjects also answered open-ended questions pertaining to their beliefs about the profession and professionals; for example, the students were asked to give the percentage of therapists they believed to have been involved in romantic relationships with clients. Sentence-completion items were constructed and presented to the subjects to substantiate their beliefs about these professionals handle counter-transference: "If a client expresses sexual interest in the therapist, and the therapist has similar feelings toward the client, the therapist is likely to..." (Bram, 1997, p. 171).

One of Bram's (1997) research conclusions was that "despite generally positive impressions and some understanding of therapy and therapists, ...responses to the open-ended items unique to this study suggest the coexistence of a disconcertingly pervasive view of therapists as prone to act on counter transference sexual-romantic and aggressive impulses" (p. 174).

Bram's (1997) regression analysis of variables measuring direct experience to predicted perceptions of therapy and therapists showed that attitudes formed from direct experience have a stronger predictive value than those of indirect or vicarious experience. According to Bram, this was consistent with the findings of other researchers, such as Fazio and Zanna, 1978; Fazio, Chen, McDonel, and Sherman, 1982; and Regan and Fazio, 1977. The results of Bram's study "suggest that although the media has some influence, it is not preeminent" (p. 175). However, the results of surveying 265 college

students led Bram to recommend that the producers of mass entertainment should be persuaded to counteract inaccuracies and misconceptions by portraying therapists ethically, depicting appropriate recourse against unethical therapists, showing clear client/therapist boundaries, modeling the consulting with other professionals, and revealing that these professionals understand their clients rather than act according to their emotions.

Belotti's (1982) study of businessmen, doctors, and law enforcers in entertainment television supported Gerbner, Morgan and Signorelli's (1982) finding that "doctors probably fair best of all occupations on television" (p. 294). Belotti's (1982) sample included 200 programs airing in the 1979-80 television season. Categories were coded using a content analysis methodology. Occupational groups were illustrated and compared using standard statistical and descriptive techniques. The hypothesis of the study, which was corroborated by the findings, was that television entertainment presents businessmen in a negative light, while doctors and law officers are portrayed more positively, and that representatives of the establishment (those in positions of power) are presented in the worst possible light, benefiting at the expense of others. "The findings from this study suggest that liberal themes may be a staple of television fare" (Dissertation Abstract).

Does television influence adolescents' knowledge of law enforcement? Slater and Elliott (1980) hypothesized, "As viewing level increased, the ability of a subject to discern fact from fiction would decrease" (Abstract). Three hundred and thirteen high school students participated in the research project. Of the 313 subjects, 160 were involved positively with law enforcement, as shown through their enrollment in courses taught by police officers, and 84 of the teenagers in the sample had negative interactions

with police officers, as evidenced by records of law violation or delinquency. The subjects completed a questionnaire that identified them as light, moderate, or heavy viewers of law enforcement television programming. Additionally, the instrument included questions to test the subjects' knowledge of law enforcement. The questions could be answered with a "real world" knowledge answer or a "television" knowledge response. The researchers' hypothesis was only partially supported; however, there was evidence to support that the "influence of television's repetitious portrayal of certain police methods and behaviors might have an impact on adolescents' perceptions of social reality" (Slater & Elliott, Abstract).

Tituana (1988) studied Hispanic character's portrayals and interactions in occupational settings on television. The researcher used data from 33 Spanish language television programs to see if an association existed "between the ranked importance of occupational roles and the amount of televised exposure time given to those roles" or "between the ranked importance of occupational roles and the frequency of nonverbal interactions observed in those roles" (Dissertation Abstract). Tituana's statistical analysis revealed

1. Male characters portrayed in higher status occupational roles had greater televised exposure time than did female characters by almost a 4 to 1 ratio.
2. Televised characters portrayed in higher status occupational roles most often touched those characters portrayed in less status roles.
3. Male portrayals dominated the professional occupational category reflecting a wide variety of roles considered as having more prestige; whereas, female portrayals were found mostly in the

Clerical and Service categories reflecting roles having lesser prestige.

4. Male characters touched other male characters more often than any other male/female combination regardless of occupational status (Dissertation Abstract).

Tituana concluded that Spanish language television reinforces stereotypes: "Spanish language television continues to reinforce the notion of male dominance in the work environment" (Dissertation Abstract).

Real-World Instructors

"A balanced workload, long philosophical discussions, adoring students hanging on your every word, and an enriching work environment now only exist in old movies and faculty fantasies" (Bianco-Mathis & Chalofsky, 1999, p. viii). According to Rice (1995) "faculty members still struggle with balancing their various roles and with assuring the quality with which each of these roles is performed" (p. 3). Lovett (1993) described many college environments to be "hectic, fragmented, and 'production-oriented'" (p. 27). Even though "the pace and responsibilities of today's faculty member are quite expansive" (Bianco-Mathis & Chalofsky, 1999, p. viii), the American Faculty Poll, which surveyed 1,511 full-time faculty members, found that over one third (37.4%) of the respondents "agreed strongly" that there is pressure to increase faculty workload (Leatherman, 2000, p. A19).

Bianco-Mathis and Chalofsky (1999) presented four areas describing the professional world of faculty and some responsibilities that may correspond to each:

1. The program where one coordinates teaching schedules, attends meetings, discusses students, and works (possibly collaborates) on research and publishing efforts.
2. The discipline where one teaches, advises, conferences, belongs to at least one if not several professional associations, and holds an office or serves on a committee at national or local level.
3. The college or university where one hears presentations, attends sports events, utilizes the gym, dines at the faculty club, and reviews books at the library.
4. The society where one is expected to provide service to the community and professional associations, as well as be a model of "good citizenship" to the students.

"The depth and breadth of work across these areas will be influenced by personal preferences, expertise and interests, university expectations and career development, stage and goals" (Bianco-Mathis & Chalofsky, 1999, p. xiii).

Academics

Customarily, faculty are responsible for all areas of academics, which have been identified by the American Association of University Professors in the *Policy Documents and Reports* (Kreiser, 1995) as "curriculum, admission criteria, program completion, standards, faculty hiring, performance evaluation, promotion, and tenure and student activities as related to these academic areas" (as cited in Carney & Long, 1999, pp. 11-12). Student activities include, but are not limited to teaching and advising.

Teaching

Since "teaching is fundamentally an interaction between the teacher and the learner" (Eble, 1982; as cited in Fletcher & Patrick, 1999, p. 17), "personal qualities and demeanor play an important role in the teaching experience" (Fletcher & Patrick, 1999, p. 23). Haleta (1996) proposed, "What and how a teacher communicates during the first class period affects students' impression formations in either positive or negative ways, which, in turn, influence the climate of the classroom, behavior of the students, and instructional effectiveness of the teacher" (p. 16). From a review of the research in the area of first impressions and research extending from uncertainty reduction theory, Haleta (1996) formed the following hypotheses:

1. Teachers using a powerless language style will create less favorable impressions with their students than teachers using a powerful language style.
2. Teachers who use a powerless style will generate higher student uncertainty than teachers who use a powerful style (p. 19).

Haleta's (1996) research included constructing eight audiotapes representing either powerful (free of hesitation) or powerless (hesitations) language of male and female instructors on the first day of a course, which were listened to by 320 communication students. Uncertainty and impression formation instruments were completed by one half of the subjects (randomly selected). The other 160 students answered open-ended questions. Statistical analysis of the data showed the importance of language in the development of students' impressions of a teacher's credibility, status, and dynamism. Teachers whose language contained multiple hesitations were rated less favorably. Professors, who through their language behavior appeared to be lacking in

control, unsure, or unorganized, were most adversely affected. Male teachers were rated higher in status than female teachers; however, there was no difference found for either dynamism or credibility. In the students' responses to open-ended questions, concerns about the teachers organization skills, ability to track the class, and preparation were expressed when the teacher used powerless language.

Currently, a body of research supports the premise that students' attitudes are an important variable in their learning. It describes the development of students' feelings and beliefs about their instructors based on students' first impressions. Cooper (1988) and Devito (1986) affirmed students' first impressions as crucial to the teacher-student relationship; Brooks (1985) surmised that a successful school term is dependent on the success of the classes on the first day; and Friedrich and Cooper (1990) identified course coverage, course mechanics, and teacher personality as sources students use to predict their upcoming experiences in a new course (as discussed in Haleta, 1996).

"Ideal" college teachers are identified by the following characteristics: "subject mastery, enthusiasm, flexibility, preparation and clarity, appropriateness of vocabulary, ability to motivate, rapport, fairness, and trustworthiness" (McLaughlin & Erickson, 1981, p. 393). To be effective, an instructor would be responsible for displaying these characteristics starting with the first day of a new course. "Exemplary teachers spend considerable time determining the most effective means of presenting the subject matter" (Fletcher & Patrick, 1999, p. 22). Objectives of the course are identified and developed. Lesson plans are constructed that take into consideration students' current knowledge before introducing new information and concepts. To be successful, learning experiences consist of assignments that model and reinforce the instructor's goals. Teachers utilize various techniques to stimulate students in the learning process: lecture, discussion,

group, case studies, role-playing, and peer teaching to name a few. Teachers are also responsible for constructing a syllabus, assessing student work, grading assignments, constructing exams, and assessing the course and their teaching (Fletcher & Patrick, 1999).

"Internship experience is one of the greatest opportunities for students' growth and development. The internship experience can be an opportunity for students to learn the skills necessary to succeed in their future professional lives" (Bosler & Levin, 1999, p.78). Faculty who assume the role of academic supervisor have the responsibilities of assisting students in the preparation of resumes; training the students for interviews (usually through role-play); attaining all necessary signed contracts between themselves, students, and employers; encouraging interns to develop workplace skills; and staying in contact with the employment mentor or supervisor. Also, the academic supervisor would encourage interns to apply the theories learned in the classroom to situations in the workplace (Bosler & Levin, 1999).

Chance (2000) found that students preparing to become school administrators in a principal mentoring program were not consistent in applying the theories learned in the classroom to situations in the schools. The qualitative study, which consisted of surveys and interviews, revealed the strengths and weaknesses of the program. In discussing the strengths of the program Chance wrote, "From both students' and mentors' perspectives, the mentor-protégé relationship clearly resulted in pre-service administrators gaining insight into and deeper understanding of the principal's job and unquestionably had a positive influence on protégés' self-confidence to fulfill an administrative role" (p. 9). However, finding a gap in applying concepts and theory to leadership practice resulted in a re-examination of the program to "redesign mentor training and establish new

communication tools to promote effective practices and reflection in the mentoring process" (Chance, p. 11). This study showed that faculty, in their academic supervisor roles, have the further responsibility of evaluating and making improvements to internship programs.

Advising

Winston and Miller (1991) defined academic advising as "a systematic process based on a close student-adviser relationship intended to aid students in achieving educational, career, and personal goals through the utilization of the full range of institutional and community resources" (as cited in Bosler & Levin, 1999, pp. 69-70).

One of the main responsibilities of advisers is making themselves available to students. "Faculty should provide students with multiple ways to reach them by supplying their telephone numbers, fax numbers, e-mail addresses, office location, and office hours" (Bosler & Levin, 1999, p. 75). Students seek advice and faculty need to know responses to such issues as course registration dates, drop-add dates, withdrawal dates, and graduation deadlines. Policies, such as fees for late registration, tuition refund policies, unpaid fines and their effect on grades and graduation, minimum credit requirements for maintaining financial aid. In addition, the adviser should assist the student in declaring a major, which entails asking the student questions about his/her interests, career goals, skills, and other relevant characteristics (Bosler & Levin, 1999).

Advisers provide support for students when they are facing personal or emotional problems; therefore, in the adviser role, faculty must be aware of the university's student services in order to make appropriate referrals to counseling or health centers. Faculty advisers often assume the role of advocate for advisees, making the system work for the student. Extra effort might have to be expended for learning impaired students, students

with limited physical abilities, students with a first language other than English, and foreign students (Bosler & Levin, 1999).

Mentoring stands above other models for advising thesis or dissertation students (Bosler & Levin, 1999). Anderson and Shannon (1988) defined mentoring as a process "in which a more skilled or more experienced person, serving as a role model, nurtures, befriends, teaches, sponsors, encourages and counsels a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's profession and personal development" (as cited in Bosler & Levin, 1999, p. 89). In order to work effectively with thesis and dissertation students, advisers should know students' learning styles, such as top-down or bottom-up. "Top-down learners like to gain an overall perspective of the subject; bottom-up learners like to have a solid foundation of the subject before they proceed to information that is more general" (Bosler & Levin, 1999, p. 89).

Research

Smaller colleges might value scholarship and professional activity as a joint function. Some "institutions distinguish research and publication from service to the profession, with the expectation that faculty members have an additional obligation to maintain a high level of professional competence and to remain current in their field" (Fechter, 1999, p. 99). These institutions would expect publications to be consistent and in quality journals. If the mission of the university emphasizes research, the expectation would be to publish books and numerous scholarly articles. "For many, this takes the form of highly specialized investigation into a particular area of intellectual inquiry" (Fechter, 1999, p. 110). In addition, faculty would be active in professional organizations. Membership in professional organizations include one or more of the following activities:

1. Appointment in a scholarly capacity to a regional, state, or national position in a professional organization (e.g., service on committees or editorial boards)
2. Holding a leadership or executive position in a professional organization
3. General participation in professional organizations (e.g., attendance at annual meetings)
4. Presenting papers at professional conferences
5. Service in your professional discipline as a consultant
6. Reviews of others' creative or scholarly work (Fechter, 1999, p. 99).

If the mission of the college or university emphasizes teaching, research expectations may be reduced. Teaching institutions may offer the opportunity to have research that closely links teaching to scholarship. For example, research could be in applied scholarship related to teachers' roles. Whether the mission of a university emphasizes research or not, the literature suggests that research expectations are increasing everywhere (Fechter, 1999).

Research activities require faculty to be responsible for securing funding for projects, studies, and attendance at national or international conferences to share information. This means that a faculty member may work with university support personnel in the grant search and proposal writing process. If the university does not have support, a faculty member would have to search the "numerous publications [that] exist regarding funding sources, and publications of most professional organizations [that] regularly announce discipline-specific funding opportunities" (Fechter, 1999, p. 106) and complete the proposal writing process.

Service

Public roles, whether performed by educating young students for citizenship, by making useful knowledge available to fellow citizens, or by contributing to great national causes, are an important part of our heritage and the source of support for the scholarly work we love to do. Let us find strength in that heritage of public roles and public accountability (Lovett, 1993, p. 37).

Medsker (1999) defined professional service as "service (primarily unpaid) to professional societies, government at all levels, schools, other nonprofit agencies, or the public" (p. 130). Governance activities would include: serving on a board of directors, being an officer in a local chapter, serving on the board of a local chapter, helping to create or revise the constitution and bylaws, serving on or chairing a standing committee, and being a national or international officer (Medsker, 1999). Some institutional activities include: organize or sponsor a student chapter on your campus, seek out and publicize opportunities for student involvement, start an internet discussion group on a hot topic, and participate or lead an assessment of member needs (Medsker, 1999).

Public service can best be described through recent faculty involvement. Some examples of actual public service are as follows.

In the mid 1990s, the University of Chicago, Illinois adopted its Great Cities Program. By 1999, 40 faculty and 70 students were participating collaboratively with more than 50 community partners in projects ranging from career development for high school students to family counseling (Mayfield, Hellwig, & Banks, 1999).

Kreutziger, Ager, Harrell and Wright (1999) recounted the success of Tulane University and Xavier University in implementing the Campus Affiliates Program (CAP). As of 1999, the project had recruited over 150 faculty members from a variety of

disciplines and more than 500 students. The goal of the program was to develop impoverished communities in adjacent urban neighborhoods. Aside from participating in redevelopment efforts, faculty were involved in intervention programs, such as tutoring children, group counseling in the areas of family violence and sex education, soliciting job opportunities and training community members for employment, and providing community access to support services, such as law and health.

Faculty members at the University of Michigan facilitate a graduate and undergraduate program that helps students to understand their community. Working closely with public school faculty and community members, the students participate in community service in the areas of housing reform, health care, environmental change, and neighborhood revitalization (Reed & Davis, 1999). Reed and Davis (1999) wrote that a benefit of this program is that "students strengthen their commitment to social responsibility and values and become more active community participants in later life" (p. 4).

Thus, faculty share their knowledge and influence the lives of those in the community by participating in redevelopment, offering educational opportunities to those who might otherwise be denied, forming cooperative programs with industry, sharing cultural experiences, and using research to assist in meeting the demands of society (Klotsche, 1966).

Although consulting refers to work completed outside of the university for pay, there are times when this work overlaps with professional service. Offering significantly reduced rates to charitable organizations for professional knowledge is "seen as partly professional service, and honoraria may be paid for speaking or review activities not primarily done for financial compensation" (Medsker, 1999, p. 130).

Another responsibility of faculty members is to document and provide evidence of service activities, such as self-report of activities, written evaluations, published citations or acknowledgments of contributions (Fechter, 1999).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Background

Newcomb's (1943) study of Bennington college students established that students' predispositions influence their relationships with "people of intelligence," such as upper class students and college instructors. Newcomb identified parents, peers, and school as being mediums to students' predispositions. Theory and research in the last half century have confirmed television to be a fourth medium to people's predispositions (Bandura, 1994; Berkowitz & Rogers, 1986; Bryant & Rockwell, 1994; Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1994; Janis, 1980; Jo & Berkowitz, 1994; Parenti, 1992; Pfau, Mullen & Garrow, 1995; Signorielli, 1982; and Winett, 1986).

Chapter 2 reviewed the research, both historical and current, on the influence of television. The review showed that media studies extend across several disciplines including psychology, culture, journalism, political science, and education. Within these disciplines a variety of phenomena (aggression, attitudes, social/family interactions, occupational portrayals, professional relationships, and more) were associated with television viewing. The minimum that can be said from this extensive review is that viewers learn from television. "Modeling influences serve diverse functions - as tutors, inhibitors, disinhibitors, social prompters, emotion arouasers, and shapers of values and conceptions of reality" (Bandura, 1994, p. 77). Also, viewers with heavy exposure to

television form ideas and beliefs based on television reality:

Television is a centralized system of storytelling. Its drama, commercials, news, and other programs bring a relatively coherent system of images and messages into every home. That system cultivates from infancy the predispositions and preferences that used to be acquired from other 'primary' sources (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, & Signorielli, 1994, p. 18).

With this in mind, this study investigated television as a fourth medium for college students' predispositions. Specifically, it described the television portrayals of college instructors and analyzed their potential impact on prospective students.

Problem Statement

Utilizing content analysis, which allows for combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies, this study categorized the television behaviors of college educators, and it described the television portrayals of higher education's instructors in terms of whether the images enhance or detract from their representation of the profession.

Purpose of the study

The current emphasis on accountability in higher education dictates colleges and universities to be responsible for student achievement. Students' perceptions of their instructors influence the student/teacher relationship and ultimately the performance of the student. The television images of higher education instructors may or may not accurately portray these professionals.

Research on television portrayals of professionals has indicated that there are inaccuracies in television programming. DeFleur's (1964) content analysis of television occupations revealed unrealistic (over representation of prestigious positions), stereotypical (positive attributes to managerial, negative attributes to lesser roles), and deviant (a-typical, dramatic) portrayals.

In comparing media portrayals to the actual work of nurses, Duncan (1992) accounted for inaccuracies "mostly in terms of omission of much of the work of nursing from media portrayals" (Dissertation Abstract).

Although Bram's (1997) study of the perceptions of psychotherapists revealed only a "modicum of support for the role of exposure to media portrayals" (p. 175), the results of surveying 265 college students led him to conclude that the producers of mass entertainment should be persuaded to counteract inaccuracies and misconceptions by portraying therapists ethically, depicting appropriate recourse against unethical therapists, showing clear client/therapist boundaries, modeling the consulting with other professionals, and revealing that these professionals understand their clients rather than act according to their emotions.

In contrast to Bram's (1997) findings, Pfau, Mullen, and Garrow (1995) asserted that their statistical research revealed "depictions of physicians positively skew the public's perceptions of such personal traits of physicians as interpersonal style and physical attractiveness; negatively distort the public's perceptions of physicians personal traits of power and character;" and by showing more female physicians and more physicians under the age of 37 than in real life, "television depictions of physicians skew public perceptions of the medical profession" (p. 452).

The purpose of the current study was to investigate and describe media depictions of the attributes of professionals in higher education. It was intended to raise the level of awareness of the higher education teaching profession and contribute to the knowledge of policy makers and those in a position to make decisions that affect the college environment.

Research Questions

1. How does the media portray the interactions of college instructors with their administrators, peers, students, and others in the higher education environment?
2. Do the attributes of college instructors portrayed on television reflect a positive or negative image of higher education teachers?
3. Does the media portrayal of college instructors accurately depict this profession's roles?

Sample

Criteria for selecting appropriate programs emerged from the literature review in Chapter 2.

1. The portrayals must be relevant to the study.
2. The programs should air during prime-time.
3. The television show should be popular with viewers.

The situation comedies selected for content analysis are relevant because they feature college instructors in major or supporting roles. The characters interact with administrators, colleagues, students, and others in the higher education environment.

Each of the three programs aired during prime-time. Through longevity and syndication, two of the shows had established a status of popularity with viewers. The third program was selected despite not having an established status of popularity (it premiered during initial video taping). Networks position new programs such as this in a time slot between two popular shows to encourage viewers to remain on their station. Using this technique, networks anticipate capturing a large viewing audience, which becomes attached to the characters and plot of a pilot series.

Programs Selected for Content Analysis

The Emmy-winning "3rd Rock from the Sun" premiered in 1993. It is "a half-hour comedy series about human existence as seen through the eyes of four aliens, whose mission is to observe life on earth. They assume human form and attempt to lead human lives as the 'Solomon family', while successfully hiding their alien identity. The High Commander, aka Dick Solomon, takes a job teaching physics at a university and becomes infatuated with his colleague, Dr. Mary Albright" (3rd Rock home page, [www](http://www.3rdrock.com)). Dr. Solomon's position as professor of physics allows for numerous interactions with colleagues, students, administrators, visiting professors and others in academia. The university is a frequent setting in this situation comedy.

On September 24, 1993, "Boy Meets World" premiered on ABC "as part of their TGIF Friday night lineup. The series is about a boy, Cory, and his friends, Shawn and Topanga" (PAZSAZ Entertainment, [www](http://www.pazsaz.com)). When the show premiered, the main characters were portrayed as junior high school students. Episodes in 1998 and 1999 brought the characters to their first year of college. Mr. Feeney, a supporting character of the series, originally portrayed a junior high school teacher/principal. Mr. Feeney's character assumed the role of a college instructor in the 1998-1999 season. His close

relationship with the main characters provides opportunities for student interaction. The college setting allows for interactions between Mr. Feeney and those in the higher education environment.

"Two of a Kind" premiered on ABC's TGIF Friday night lineup in 1998. The program features a university professor. The professor is a single parent and his two daughters are cared for by one of his students. Classroom scenes and instructor/student interactions permeate throughout episodes.

The three television programs were selected for content analysis because the content provided answers to the research questions. Most importantly, the shows selected for content analysis offered information required for the purpose of the study.

Research Design and Methodology

According to Westley and Stempel III (1981), the sample survey, the controlled experiment, and content analysis are the three most frequently used methodologies in mass communication research. Since "content analysis is a formal system for...drawing conclusions from observation of content" (Stempel, 1981, p. 119), it is the appropriate mode of inquiry for the current study of television portrayals of college instructors.

Over a quarter of a century ago, Berelson defined content analysis as "a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication" (as cited in Krippendorff, 1980, p. 21; Stempel, 1981, p. 120). Berelson's definition of content analysis has been the basis for the construction of other definitions by scholars. For example, Krippendorff (1980) found that certain aspects of Berelson's definition were too restrictive:

1. Berelson chose the attribute 'manifest' merely to assure that the coding of the data in content analysis be intersubjectively verifiable and reliable. His definition has led many scholars to believe that latent contents are excluded from the analysis.
2. Although quantification is important in many scientific endeavors, qualitative methods have proven successful in extracting intelligence from propaganda, in psychotherapy, and oddly enough in computer analysis...(pp. 21-22).

The definition of content analysis offered by Krippendorff eliminated Berelson's restrictions and emphasized "making inferences" as the purpose of content analysis: "Content analysis is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context" (p. 21).

In Stempel's discussion of Berelson's definition of content analysis, he agreed with Krippendorff inasmuch as the attribute 'quantitative' is too restrictive. "There has been the recurring suggestion that content analysis should be qualitative rather than quantitative. This suggestion has incorrectly assumed that these were mutually exclusive" (Stempel, 1981, p. 121). Stroman and Jones (1998) reviewed studies where qualitative and quantitative techniques were combined in content analysis and concluded, "Both qualitative and quantitative techniques can be used and blended together" (p. 277) and "We view qualitative and quantitative analyses as complementing each other" (p. 282). Miles and Huberman (1994) expressed

The careful measurement, generalizable samples, and statistical tools of good quantitative studies are precious assets. When they are combined with the up-close, deep credible understanding of complex real-world

contexts that characterize good qualitative studies, we have a very powerful mix (as cited in Stroman & Jones, 1998, p. 281).

Stempel (1981) acknowledged that Berelson's concept of manifest content is a point of contention among scholars; however, he questioned "whether objectivity can be maintained if manifest content is abandoned" (p. 121). Stroman and Jones (1998) contended that by linking quantitative and qualitative techniques "researchers can analyze both the manifest and latent content" (p. 277).

Both the manifest and latent content in the television programs selected for the current study were analyzed by combining quantitative and qualitative techniques.

Rossmann and Wilson (1991) list the following reasons for combining the two approaches:

1. to enable confirmation or corroboration of each via triangulation;
2. to elaborate or develop analysis providing richer detail;
3. to initiate new lines of thinking through attention to surprises or paradoxes, providing fresh insight (as cited in Stroman & Jones, p. 278).

The textual data of the current study described television instructors' behaviors utilizing descriptive statistical techniques. This quantitative analysis "reduce(d) the data to meaningful proportions" (Stroman & Jones, 1998, p. 281). "Qualitative methodologies refer to research procedures which produce descriptive data: people's own written or spoken words and observable behavior" (Bogden & Taylor, 1975, p. 4). The qualitative research of the current study focused on the context. Contextualization brought "out all of the distinctive elements of the case being studied" (Christians & Carey, 1981, p. 350). Researchers who have combined the two approaches have employed qualitative techniques "to better understand what they were studying" (Stroman & Jones, 1998, p. 281).

A variety of strategies are associated with qualitative research. Bogdan and Taylor (1975) selected participant observation and personal documents (e.g., unstructured interviews) as the mainstay for this mode of inquiry. In his book, Participant Observation, Spradley (1980) defined the scope of involvement the researcher takes while conducting ethnographic studies. Complete, active, and moderate participation typify a high degree of involvement with the observed members. Passive participation typifies a low degree of involvement. A fifth type of involvement, no involvement, equates with nonparticipation on the part of the researcher in the members' environment (Spradley, 1980). Bean's (1976) study of television soap operas, an example of nonparticipation, focused on identifying cultural themes; the researcher concluded, "Soap operas contain a coherent expression of the principles on which the American family is based" (as cited in Spradley, 1980, p. 59). Spradley suggested that television research offers nonparticipation ethnographers opportunities to study cultural phenomena.

As demonstrated by Bean and endorsed by Spradley, nonparticipation ethnography holds possibilities and opportunities for research. Thus, techniques associated with nonparticipation ethnography were selected for analyzing the content of television's depictions of college instructors.

In order to meet Berelson's criteria for content analysis to be objective and systematic in describing manifest content, Stempel (1981) cautioned the content analyst about four methodological problems that must be overcome in a research design:

1. Selection of the unit of analysis
2. Category construction
3. Sampling of content
4. Reliability of coding

Selection of the Unit of Analysis

In the selection of the unit of analysis, systematic (Berelson's criteria) refers to the requirement that "the analyses are designed to secure data relevant to a research question or hypothesis" (Stempel, 1981, p. 120). According to Stempel (1981), "The decision about the unit of analysis depends primarily on what information is required for the purposes of the study" (p. 122). The purpose of the current study was to investigate and describe the behaviors of college teachers as they are presented in television situation comedies. Therefore, the unit of analysis was the interaction of professors as observed in this media. Verbal interactions between college instructors and those in the higher education environment were the focus of the quantitative analysis, and the context and the environment were analyzed in the qualitative portion. Verbal interactions included all text between higher education professionals, regardless of the setting (university, residence, public). Verbal interactions did not include conversations with family and friends unless (a) The communication was related to education or roles of educators, or (b) The communication related to another higher education professional or students. Conversations between family and friends that were not education specific were beyond the scope of the current research.

Category Construction

Maintaining objectivity is another of Berleson's criteria for content analysis. "Objectivity is achieved by having the categories of analysis defined so precisely that different persons can apply them to the same content and get the same results" (Stempel, 1981, p. 120). For a study to meet Berleson's criteria of systematic as it applies to

category construction, Stempel (1981) explained, "Categories are set up so that all relevant content is analyzed" (p. 120).

The first requirement to meet Berelson's criteria in category construction is "Categories must be pertinent to the objectives of your study" (Stempel, 1981, p. 123). To determine if the categories are pertinent, the analyst aligns the information the categories will yield to the research questions of the study (Stempel, 1981). The research questions for the current study were concerned with the interactions, attributes, and roles of television portrayals of college instructors. The objective of the current research was to identify and describe the behaviors of these characterizations. From the literature review in chapter 2, teacher personality emerged as a major determinant to students' predispositions and ultimate performance in the college environment. In addition, behavior can be described through personality variables.

Personality's Relationship to Behavior

Murray (1938) termed the investigation into personality types and people's individual differences 'personology,' and he asserted that the distinctive task of personology conceptualization is to describe the general course of behavior. The concepts used to describe the reactions of individuals are those that exist on a molar (gross) level. For example, the concept of 'need' is a molar concept. A need "is a momentary process which may operate *but once* in a man's life... an internal process with a subjective correlate which may or may not manifest itself directly or overtly" (Murray, 1938, p. 713). The research goal of Murray and his associates was to agree on behavior units. Murray explained, "I refer to the classification of needs. Some sort of classification seemed necessary... We merely wanted to distinguish and name commonly observed general trends (needs, desires, goals)" (Murray, 1938, p. 716).

The method employed by Murray in the classification of needs was "to start with concrete phenomena (objective and subjective) and attempt to distinguish separable variables and then give each defined uniformity a suitable name" (Murray, 1938, p. 712). In classifying personality variables, the researchers were especially concerned with correlating the objective -- facts pertaining to effects of actions (verbal and motor) with the subjective -- reports of intention (desire, impulsion, purpose). Murray's work yielded forty-four personality variables: "Twenty of these were manifested needs, eight were latent needs, four referred to certain inner states, and twelve were general traits" (Murray, 1938, p. 144).

Regarding his final classification, Murray (1938) wrote, "Some psychologists may prefer to regard each variable as a mere label to denote a category into which a great number of behavioural [sic] patterns have been arbitrarily placed" (p. 144). However, Murray stipulated that if he and his associates had been successful "in putting together what belongs together" (p. 144), then the classifications would be useful in future research.

Selection of Categories

Stempel (1981) suggested utilizing categories developed by other researchers, "You may be able to find a category system that has been used in a study similar to the one you have in mind" (p. 123). There are two advantages to using categories from previous research: "You will know that it is a workable system." and "Validity and reliability will be lesser concerns" (Stempel, 1981, p. 123). Following Stempel's suggestion, the current study adopted categories constructed by Murray and revised by Stern and Associates (1970).

Murray's taxonomy was modified and refined for the construction of the Syracuse Indexes: Activities Index (AI), College Characteristics Index (CCI), High School Characteristics Index (HSCI), Evening College Characteristics Index (ECCI), and Organizational Climate Index (OCI) (as discussed in Stern, 1970). The indexes are "tools for describing the characteristics of students and college environments in terms of comparable psychological dimensions" (Stern, 1970, p. 168). The personality dimensions relate "to a wide variety of behavioral states for the purpose of developing" (Stern, 1970, p. 186) probability statements. The indexes describe events in academic settings, such as teaching, classroom activities, students' interests, campus services and facilities, and relationships among students, faculty, and administrators (Stern, 1970). "The Activities Index and the Environmental Indexes are self-administered questionnaires...The basic format for all of the Syracuse Indexes is the same, each of them consisting of 300 items distributed among 30 scales of 10 items each" (Stern, 1970, p. 15).

The current study drew on Murray's categories as modified through the research of Stern and Associates, which resulted in thirty personality variables. Stern (1970) referred to the thirty constructs in the Syracuse studies as being purely hypothetical "defined only by the items assigned to each of them" (p. 16). However, the comprehensive classifying by Murray and Associates together with the results of the studies conducted with the Syracuse Indexes, which described behavior in college environments, lends to the confidence this researcher has in the categories meeting Berelson's criteria for objectivity; categories must be "defined so precisely that different persons can apply them to the same content and get the same results" (Stempel, 1981, p.

120). This determination by the researcher was manifested through the reliability of coding process and refinements were made to category definitions when warranted.

The content analysis procedure in the current study ensured that Berelson's criteria for systematic were met. If a behavior could not be classified, a category was added. If a behavior could be coded in more than one category, the categories were revised. Thus, all relevant content was analyzed.

The large number of variables, thirty, was in conflict with Stempel's second requirement for category construction, "The system of categories must be manageable" (Stempel, 1981, pp. 123-124). Krippendorff (1980) suggested that grouping large numbers of variables would increase coding efficiency. Therefore, categories for the current study were grouped using an adaptation of Stern and Associates' further research, which included a factor analysis of data from student responses to the questions on the Activity Index. The factor analysis yielded fifteen personality factors and three second-order dimensions. Corresponding personality variables, from the 30 discussed above, were then identified for each of the personality factors. The grouping of variables to meet Stempel's second requirement for category construction developed into a three-tiered design for the current study:

- I. Second-Order Dimension
- II. Personality Factor
- III. Personality Variable

However, since a personality variable could be associated with more than one personality factor, the personality categories for the current study doubled. The example below shows the variable "Nurturance" with second-order dimensions and personality factors:

- I. Dependency Needs (Second-Order Dimension)

- II. Submissiveness (Personality Factor)
- III. "Nurturance" (Personality Variable - helping others by belittling self)
- I. Dependency Needs (Second-Order Dimension)
- II. Closeness (Personality Factor)
- III. "Nurturance" (Personality Variable - helping others to meet one's own needs)
- I. Emotional Expression (Second-Order Dimension)
- II. Closeness (Personality Factor)
- III. "Nurturance" (Personality Variable – helping others by showing support)

A chart depicting categories in the three-tiered design, as well as corresponding personality variables' meanings, can be found in Appendix I.

In addition to the personality variables, demographic categories relevant to the current research included: Gender, Status (professor, administrator, student, office staff, other education, and other), Setting (university office, classroom, university other, residence, and public), Role (teaching, advising, research, service, other education, other), and Role message (teaching, advising, research, service, other education and non-education).

Developing categories that are mutually exclusive, exhaustive and reliable is as important in qualitative content analysis as it is in quantitative content analysis (Stroman & Jones, 1998). Although "qualitative data emerge strictly from perceptions/ observations of the researchers" (Stroman & Jones, 1998, p. 276), meaningful categories, those that "explain large domains of social experience" (Christians & Carey, 1981, p. 350) need to be established. Since "qualitative data are not readily observable or immediately measurable by researchers" (Stroman & Jones, 1998, p. 278), exploiting

proven strategies for category construction is critical. The current study adopted strategies from Spradley's (1980) Developmental Research Sequence (D.R.S.). This method was based on a cyclical pattern of investigation (Spradley, 1980). In the D.R.S. method, a category is seen as "an array of different objects that are treated as if they were equivalent" (Spradley, 1980, p. 88). The process of category construction begins with asking broad descriptive questions. Broad descriptive questions "could easily add new categories or clarify (domain) relationships" (Spradley, 1980, p. 124).

The last requirement in the construction of categories is "Categories should be functional" (Stempel, 1981, p. 123). "In suggesting that categories are functional, we are assuming that a content study intends to say something about a media process and the decision making within that process" (Stempel, 1981, p. 123). The current study was purely descriptive and did not make inferences about media personnel or the viewing audience's reactions. Therefore, this requirement does not apply to this research.

Sampling of Content

The third methodological problem of concern to a content analyst is the sampling of content, which must represent "the population it is intended to represent" (Stempel, 1981, p. 124). Methods for sample selection vary according to the type of mass communication being studied; however, "each unit in the population must have the same chance of being represented in the sample" (Stempel, 1981, p. 124). The method best suited for the identification and classification of television characters' behaviors is videotaping and transcription. The three programs selected for content analysis were randomly video taped during the networks' fall season, 1998 and 1999. Verbal

interactions were transcribed and observations constituted the ethnographic record used to build "a bridge between observation and analysis" (Spradley, 1980, p. 33).

Reliability of Coding

The final methodological problem that the researcher must overcome in the research design is reliability of coding (Stempel, 1981). In the current quantitative study, reliability meant consistency in the numerical recording of the frequencies of occurrence. "We must achieve some level of agreement or our study is not systematic or objective" (Stempel, 1981, p. 127). Berelson's criteria for manifest content dictated that content must be coded as it appears. A precise definition of categories was employed to facilitate this process and strengthen the reliability of the present study (see Appendix I).

Percentage of agreement between and among coders is an acceptable way of reporting reliability (Stempel, 1981). One statistical approach is to correlate frequency distributions of two or more coders, however this approach will not account for random fluctuation. Item analysis is a more precise approach and also shows when coders are agreeing (or disagreeing) on the coding of individual categories. An alternative approach used for single coders is to have them recode the data after an appropriate period of time and compare the results with initial coding (Stempel, 1981). The reliability of the current study was determined by utilizing this strategy. As with most modes of inquiry, content analysis requires that a reliability estimate be calculated. Scott (1955) proposed the following formula to "deal with whether or not the extent of agreement exceeds chance."

$$\pi = \frac{Po - Pe}{1 - Pe}$$

Po = Observed percent of agreement

Pe = Percent of agreement expected by chance (as cited in Stempel, 1981, p. 143).

Scott (1955) explained, "The percentage agreement which could be expected by chance depends not only on the number of categories in the dimension but also on the frequency with which each of them is used by coders" (p. 323). In applying Scott's formula, the sum of the squared proportions over all categories equals the expected percent agreement. This researcher based the estimate of reliability on several samples of content from the study as suggested by Stempel (1981).

In order for the results of the study to be meaningful, a minimal acceptable level of reliability has to be placed at 90% (Stempel, 1981). The current study accepted this premise and placed the level of reliability at 90%.

Data Analysis

"Numerous analyses focus on a special entity, person, idea, or event and attempt to find out how it is depicted or conceptualized, what its symbolic image is" (Krippendorff, 1980, p. 112), such as the image of the teacher, or the portrayal of women in films made by women. So it was with the present study. Content analysts use one or a combination of the following analysis approaches for representation of data: attributes, frequency profiles, distributional properties, and associations. The two most commonly used approaches are frequencies and relations among variables. Frequencies primarily serve the summarizing function of analysis, while "relations may be seen in a cross-tabulation of the frequencies of co-occurrence of the values of one variable and of the values of another" (Krippendorff, 1980, p. 111). The current quantitative study was concerned with the frequencies of behaviors of college instructors and with relationships of these personality variables to the demographic variables.

As previously discussed, the ethnographic approach taken in the current study was a cyclical process, which began by asking broad descriptive questions. Asking broad descriptive questions provided the basis for formulating structural and contrast questions (Spradley, 1980). Structural questions were repeated in the process of identifying and clarifying various phenomena because they "lead to focused observations" (Spradley, 1980, p. 109). Contrast questions lead to selective observations. Asking structural and contrast questions are part of the inductive process used in the identification of patterns and themes and in the development of content categories (Spradley, 1980).

Categorization can also be a deductive process in qualitative research (Stroman & Jones, 1998). Combining quantitative and qualitative research poses the problem of compatibility of findings (Stroman & Jones, 1998). The current research combined Spradley's inductive process with a deductive questioning process modified from the items on the Environmental Indexes to avoid this potential problem. Stern (1970) pointed out, "There is a high degree of item homogeneity for each scale (personality variable), this is indicative only of the fact that they are strongly saturated measures of whatever it is that each block of items has tapped" (p. 16). Converting items on the OCI (Stern & Steinhoff, 1970) to ethnographic questions ensured compatibility between the findings of the quantitative and qualitative research. Items on the OCI were selected for the current study because this environmental index applied to "the analysis of all formal administrative structures...for use in all school situations. It has been used in studies of the Syracuse public school system, Peace Corps training programs, and in industry" (Stern, 1970, p. 15). The questions selected described the interactions and determined the context (environment) within which interactions between college instructors and others in higher education take place. The interactions and the environment were then analyzed

for repeated themes and patterns to determine how the media portrays the interactions of college instructors, to determine if the portrayals of college instructors reflect a positive or negative image of higher education teachers, and to determine if the media portrayals represented an accurate depiction of this profession's roles. Larson (1991) said that the "context of an activity needs to be examined before labeling it morally unacceptable; therefore, storyline should be examined as well as demographic characteristics" (as cited in Stroman & Jones, 1998, p. 281). Following is an example of how the index items were rephrased into ethnographic questions.

Personality variable:	Aggression
Definition:	Hostility
Item:	People often joke about or criticize others.
Structured question:	What are all of the ways people criticize others?
Contrast question:	Are there different levels of intensity in these aggressive actions?

Significance of the Study

Recent research and journal discussion reflect that the media influences how elementary, middle school, and high school students perceive their educational experience and how they perceive their teachers. Education as an institution has frequently been presented as dysfunctional in the media (Skill, 1994, p. 48). Kaplan (1990) reviewed the portrayal of teachers on television since the 1950s and found that viewers can formulate peculiar visions of educators based on their consumption of the social interaction of teachers as presented on television. Examples of questions that have served as the focus for mass communication studies of education and educators include

the following: How do the demographics of real-life teachers compare to the demographics of teachers portrayed in the media (Swetnam, 1992)? What views of higher education do the films of 1960-1990 present (Hinton, 1991)? Has the film depiction of college students and the higher education environment changed in films since 1935 (Osborn, 1990)?

To this date, a review of current research literature on the portrayals of college instructors in television programming has not revealed a single study at the higher education level. To address this void in the research, this study focused on the portrayal of college instructors on television. It provided descriptions of college instructors' behaviors found in a highly selective number of popular situation comedies that are very likely to have been widely viewed. It determined if these portrayals were accurate and worthy models for college students to use in their interactions with real-life college instructors.

Limitations

The content analysis was not intended to show what college students actually perceive from viewing television; however, this descriptive study did reflect repeated themes and messages that have been presented over long periods of time and thus ones that students were highly likely to have been exposed to on a continuous basis.

The content analysis was also not designed to establish a cause-effect relationship between students viewing symbolic models of college teachers on television and students' learning and behavior. However, this descriptive study was intended to provide insight into the roles of college teachers and their relationships with students and others as portrayed on prime time television.

Summary

The methodological design for the current study was supported by previous research. Westley and Stempel (1981) endorsed content analysis as the appropriate mode of inquiry for mass communication research. Berelson's definition of content analysis placed strict criteria on its use, and Stempel produced guidelines for meeting these criteria. Chapter 3 explained how these criteria and guidelines for conducting content analysis were met in the present study in order for the results to be reliable and verifiable. Stempel cautioned the content analyst about four methodological problems that must be overcome in the research design: Selection of the unit of analysis, Category construction, Sampling of content, and Reliability of coding. To overcome the first two methodological problems, they were aligned with the purpose of the current study and the research questions, respectively. The unit of analysis selected was the interaction of professors as observed in this media. Teacher personality was selected for analysis and categories were modified from those constructed in previous research. To overcome the problem of sampling of content, television shows featuring college instructors were randomly video taped and transcribed. Scott (1955) proposed a formula to "deal with whether or not the extent of agreement exceeds chance." This formula was employed to show reliability of coding.

In addition, previous research supported utilizing quantitative and qualitative techniques together in content analysis. The present study combined these techniques to study both the manifest (data is verifiable and reliable) and latent (credible understanding of the real world context) content.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

Introduction

Content analysis was found to be the appropriate mode of inquiry for mass communication research. Chapter 3 discussed the advantages of using both quantitative and qualitative techniques in analyzing the content of television programs. One problem associated with combining quantitative and qualitative techniques is compatibility of findings. For the present study, this problem was resolved by using Murray's (1938) personality categories, which were modified for the Syracuse Indexes. Murray's personality categories were modified through factor analysis and used for items in the Activity Index (Stern & Associates, 1970). These were adapted in the current research to study the frequencies of identified personality traits of higher education professionals in television situation comedies. In the current study's qualitative research, items on the Organizational Climate Index (Stern & Steinhoff, 1970) were converted to ethnographic structural and contrast questions (Spradley, 1980). Since both indexes were modified from Murray's personality categories, compatibility was ensured.

Demographic categories were also coded. Cross tabulations of the demographic categories with the personality variables provided further information to answer the research questions.

Methodology

The methodology selected for the current study was content analysis. Content analysis allows for drawing conclusions from observation of content and is, therefore, the most appropriate mode of inquiry for the study of television portrayals. Television programs featuring college instructors constituted the sample for the current research. Descriptions of television programs in T. V. guides and random viewing of situation comedies led to the selection of three programs to be included in the study: "3rd Rock from the Sun," "Boy Meets World," and "Two of a Kind." These three programs met the criteria for selecting samples as each one aired during prime-time and were popular with viewers, which made it highly likely that they were viewed by prospective college students. Most importantly, the three programs were relevant to the study and provided answers to the research questions.

The method most suited for the identification and classification of television character's behaviors is videotaping and transcription. Thus, the programs were randomly video taped during the networks' fall season, 1998 and 1999. Reruns in syndication were also randomly video taped. Programs with dominant themes unrelated to education, such as holiday episodes, were discarded. Fifteen episodes from the three programs were selected for further analysis: 5 episodes from "Boy Meets World," 6 from "3rd Rock from the Sun," and 4 from "Two of a Kind."

Both quantitative and qualitative techniques were employed in the content analysis. The unit of analysis was the verbal interaction of those in higher education. The transcription process yielded 1,784 lines for coding: 561 lines from episodes of "Boy Meets World," 817 lines from "3rd Rock from the Sun," and 406 lines from "Two of a Kind."

Reliability for the current study was determined by utilizing a single-coder strategy. After initial coding of data, a minimum of two weeks passed before the data were recoded. Recoded data were compared with the initial coding and a reliability estimate was calculated to show consistency of coding. Scott's (1955) formula to show "whether or not the extent of agreement exceeds chance" was applied. The estimate of reliability was based on three (each program) samples of content. For the results of the study to be meaningful, a minimal acceptable level of reliability has to be placed at 90%. Reliability estimates for the current study were 84% "3rd Rock From the Sun," 86% "Boy Meets World," and 94% "Two of a Kind".

Descriptive techniques were utilized to explain the coded data. Frequencies served as a summarizing function of analysis. Cross tabulations showed the relations of the frequencies of co-occurrence of the values of one variable with the values of another. Demographic characteristics were coded for each of the 1,784 lines of text. Demographic categories included: gender, status, setting, role, and message role. Frequencies of demographic categories provided information for answering the research question "Does the media portrayal of college instructors accurately depict this profession's roles?"

Analysis of the Demographic Categories

An analysis of the Gender category showed that males spoke more lines than females: 1,199 lines for males and 585 lines for females. The greatest disparity in female speakers was found in the episodes of "Boy Meets World," 497 male to 164 female. In "3rd Rock from the Sun," males spoke 153 more lines than females (485m:332f) and in "Two of a Kind" males spoke 28 more lines than females (217m:189f).

The Status category identified the speaker as professor, administrator, student, university office staff, other in education, and other (not associated with education). The results of this coding proved to be program specific. In "Boy Meets World," a program in which the main characters are students, the results of coding were: 176 professor, 127 administrator, 247 student, 0 office staff, 7 other education and 4 other. For "3rd Rock from the Sun," a program in which the main characters are professors, the results of coding were: 654 professor, 32 administrator, 1 student, 57 office staff, 5 other education, and 68 other. The main characters in "Two of a Kind" are a professor/father and a student/child caregiver; the results included: 167 professor, 201 student, 11 other education, and 27 other. The 1,784 lines of text coded for Status revealed the following classification of combined program totals: 1,063 professor, 93 administrator, 449 student, 57 office staff, 23 other in education, and 99 other.

The Setting was classified as to university office, university classroom, university other, private residence, and other/public. The majority of the interactions in "Boy Meets World" took place in a university setting with 41.7% occurring in the university other classification. Characters in "3rd Rock from the Sun" interacted most frequently in a university office (53.1%). The home proved to be the major setting for "Two of a Kind" interactions (57.4%). Total lines of coding for each of the classifications in the setting category were 556 university office, 249 university classroom, 302 university other, 465 residence, and 212 other/public.

The Role category was created to describe how many lines of text related to characters while they were teaching, advising, conducting research, or participating in service related activities. Additional classifications in this category included "other education," which identified all other functions of higher education professionals.

Students and office staff were also coded in the other education classification. "Other" in the Role category identified positions unrelated to education. Characters acting in the capacity of friend or family member were also coded in the "other" classification. An analysis of the Role category showed that of the 1,784 lines of text, 136 lines reflected teaching, 70 advising, 28 research, and 72 service. The majority of the text was coded in the other education classification, 869 lines, followed by the other classification with 609 lines. The program "Boy Meets World" showed zero counts in the classifications of research and service, 70 in teaching, 70 in advising, 311 in other education and 110 in other. "3rd Rock from the Sun" showed zero counts in advising, 10 in teaching, 18 in research, 72 in service, 412 in other education and 305 in other. "Two of Kind" showed zero counts in advising and service, 56 in teaching, 10 in research, 146 in other education and 194 in other.

The Message Role category identified how many lines of text referred to the classifications of teaching, advising, research, service, other education or non-education. For this category, the classification with the highest frequency was non-education with a count of 1,019. The Message Role classifications reflected 192 lines referring to teaching, 38 lines referring to advising, 186 lines referring to research, 52 lines referring to service and 297 lines referring to other education. "Boy Meets World" was the only program where reference was made to each of the four major education classifications: 114 teaching, 38 advising, 39 research and 6 service. The other education classification had 175 lines coded and 189 lines were non-education related. "3rd Rock from the Sun" had zero counts in advising, 20 in teaching, 43 in research, 46 in service, 60 in other education, and 646 in non-education. "Two of Kind" showed zero counts in the advising

and service classifications, 58 in teaching, 104 in research, 60 in other education and 184 in non-education.

Analysis of the Personality Variables

The data, 1,784 lines of text, were coded in a three-tiered design adapted from Stern and Associates' (1970) research, which extended from responses to their Activity and Environmental Indexes and were based on a taxonomy of personality variables identified by Murray (1938). The data were first examined for Dimension: Achievement Orientation, Dependency Need, or Emotional Expression. The data were then examined for the factor that is within each of these dimensions. Finally using modified definitions from the work of Stern and Associates, a personality variable was identified that related to each factor. The three-tiered design showing the categories used in the coding of the data for the current study is presented in Appendix I.

The results of coding the 1,784 lines of text utilizing the above three-tiered design are presented in table form. Table 1 shows the frequency of coding for the three dimensions and the frequencies of the factors that correspond to each dimension. In comparing the frequencies of the dimensions, the Achievement Orientation Dimension was found to have the highest count, with 696 identified personality variables. The factors in this dimension describe social aggressiveness and dominance. This dimension is also concerned with an individual's ego and the extent to which the ego is strengthened through academic pursuits. The Dependency Needs Dimension, with a frequency count of 496, represents an individual's controlled, social behavior. The factors in this dimension describe a high level of compulsive behavior for the purpose of conformity. Compulsive behavior is seen in an individual's organization of details,

Dimensions and Factors

	Programs							
	Boy Meets World		3 rd Rock		Two of a Kind		Total 3 Shows	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Self-Assert	79	31%	120	38%	25	20.3%	224	32.2%
Audacity	49	19.1%	109	34.3%	23	18.7%	181	26%
Intell Interest	45	17.5%	29	9.2%	16	13%	90	12.9%
Motivation	52	20.3%	24	7.5%	25	20.3%	101	14.5%
Applied Int	31	12.1%	35	11%	34	27.7%	100	14.4%
Achievement	256	100%	317	100%	123	100%	696	100%
Applied Int	2	1.4%	17	7.3%	12	9.3%	31	6.3%
Constraint	21	15.7%	59	25.3%	24	18.6%	104	20.9%
Diffidence	12	8.9%	32	13.7%	6	4.6%	50	10%
Orderliness	28	20.9%	30	12.9%	13	10.1%	71	14.3%
Submissive	19	14.2%	35	15%	33	25.6%	87	17.6%
Timidity	10	7.5%	16	6.9%	7	5.4%	33	6.7%
Closeness	42	31.4%	44	18.9%	34	26.4%	120	24.2%
Dependency	134	100%	233	100%	129	100%	496	100%
Closeness	62	36.3%	89	33.4%	69	44.8%	220	37.2%
Sensuous	9	5.2%	30	11.2%			39	6.6%
Friendliness	25	14.6%	27	10.1%	27	17.6%	79	13.4%
Expressive	51	29.8%	74	27.7%	45	29.2%	170	28.7%
Egoism	24	14.1%	47	17.6%	13	8.4%	84	14.1%
Emotional	171	100%	267	100%	154	100%	592	100%
Total for 3 Dimensions	561		817		406		1784	

planning of activities, and reflection and analyses of people and situations. In this dimension, an individual would help others with the ulterior motive of meeting his/her own needs and would submit to criticism to have self-needs for love, assistance, or protection met. The Emotional Expression Dimension, with the second highest frequency count of 592, represents high levels of social participation. Behaviors in this

dimension reflect sincerity in showing support for others, interests in sensory and aesthetic experiences, and expressing emotions freely. An individual's vanity is depicted in this dimension. Paranoia, superstition, suspicion, and other beliefs of impending doom are found in the Emotional Expression Dimension.

Personality variables corresponding to the factors of each dimension were analyzed through frequency counts and cross tabulations with demographic characteristics. Cross tabulations of the personality variables with the frequencies of demographic categories answered the research question "Do the attributes reflect a positive or negative image of higher education teachers?"

Quantitative Analysis and Interpretation

Achievement Orientation Dimension/Cross Tabulations

Frequencies of the personality variables in the Achievement Orientation Dimension are presented in Table 2. The highest frequencies in this dimension were 169 and 178, Dominance (meaning ascendancy) and Aggression (meaning hostility), respectively. Cross tabulations with demographic categories are presented in Appendix IIIa through IIIe.

Self-assertion Factor.

In the analysis of variables associated with the Self-assertion Factor, Dominance *f* 169, ascendancy over others, had the highest frequency, followed by Ego Achievement *f* 46, exerting influence. Cross tabulation with the demographic category Status revealed 113 lines of text expressed by professors that were dominant in nature and 20 lines of text expressed by professors that were influential in nature. Administrators accounted for 25 lines with the Dominance variable, and 8 with Ego Achievement. Students showed

Dimensions and Personality Variables
Achievement Orientation

Table 2
Frequency

	Programs				
	Boy Meets World	3 rd Rock	Two of a Kind	Total 3 Shows	
	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i>	%
Self-assertion					
Ego Achieve	11	22	13	46	6.6%
Dominance	52	105	12	169	24.3%
Exhibitionism	5			5	.7%
F. Achievement		5		5	.7%
Audacity					
Risk-taking	2			2	.3%
F. Achievement					
Aggression	47	108	23	178	25.6%
Science		1		1	.2%
Intellectual Interests					
Reflectiveness	6	14	4	24	3.4%
Humanities	17	4		21	3.0%
Social Science					
Understanding	6			6	.9%
Science	16	11	12	39	5.6%
Motivation					
Achievement	9	4	2	15	2.2%
Counteraction	21	10	13	44	6.3%
Understanding	15	6	6	27	3.9%
Energy	7	4	4	15	2.1%
Applied Interests					
Practicalness	19	28	24	71	10.2%
Science		2		2	.3%
Order	12	7	7	26	3.7%
Total for Achievement					
Orientation	245	331	120	696	100%

dominant tendencies in 15 lines of text and the exertion of influence in 15 lines.

Portrayals of Dominance (86) and Ego Achievement (15) were displayed most frequently

in the university office setting. The Setting category also revealed the following for portrayals: university classroom/ Dominance 18, Ego Achievement 11; university other/Dominance 33, Ego Achievement 7; residence/Dominance 27, Ego Achievement 9. The Message Role category showed the conversations to be non-education related (Dominance 103 and Ego 13). Relationships between the personality variables and the Role category in the 4 major areas of education (teaching, advising, research and service) totaled: Dominance, 34; Ego Achievement, 14. Relationships between the personality variables and the Role Message demographic in the 4 major areas of education totaled: Dominance, 46; Ego Achievement, 16.

Audacity Factor.

In the analysis of the variables in the Audacity Factor (Table 2), Aggression, showing hostility, had the highest frequency, f 178. Cross tabulation with the demographic category Status revealed 99 lines of text spoken by professors that were aggressive in nature, administrators accounted for 38 lines with the Aggression variable. Students showed aggressive tendencies in 18 lines of text. Portrayals of Aggression were displayed most frequently in the university office setting (74). The Setting category also revealed 22 aggressive verbal actions in classroom setting. Aggression was found in the other education Role 91 times. The Message Role Category showed, for the most part, conversations to be non-education related (103). Relationships between the personality variable and the Role demographic across the four major areas of education included: teaching 12, advising 13, research 1, and service 17. Relationships between the personality variable and the Role Message demographic across the 4 major areas of education included: teaching 18, advising 8, research 12, and service 6.

Intellectual Interests Factor.

Personality variables associated with the Intellectual Interests Factor, Science, Reflectiveness, and Humanities were next to be analyzed (Table 2). Science, showing an interest in this academic field, had a frequency of 39. This was followed by Reflectiveness, $f24$, introspective contemplation; and Humanities $f21$, showing an interest in this academic field. Cross tabulation results placed professors with the highest counts for all of the personality variables: Reflectiveness 19, Humanities 15, and Science 29. The Intellectual Interest Factors were observed most often in the classroom setting: Reflectiveness 6, Humanities 17, and Science 14. The Science variable also had a count of 12 in the university other setting. In the teaching Role, expressed behaviors of showing an interest in the Humanities occurred 11 times and Science only 6. However, an interest in Science was matched to the other education role 20 times. Messages pertaining to an interest in the Humanities (11) and an interest in Science (13) were verbalized by teachers. Messages pertaining to an interest in Science (17) were referred to in research.

Motivation Factor.

The four personality variables that correspond to the Motivation Factor in the Achievement Orientation Dimension (Table 2) showed the following frequencies: Achievement $f15$, striving for success; Counteraction $f44$, restraining after failure; Understanding $f27$, expressing accurate thoughts of others; and Energy $f15$, effort. Cross tabulations of the four Motivation variables revealed that lines of text were almost evenly distributed between professors (42) and students (51), but the Role category showed that these lines were not spoken in significant counts by those in the four major education classifications of teaching (5), advising (5), research (2), or service (1). The

Message Role category showed that research was referred to in the context of motivation a total of 21 times, teaching 14, advising 4, and service 2. The highest total count for the four personality variables was in non-education, 31, followed by other education, which was referred to in the context of motivation 29 times. The university setting accounted for 60 motivational verbal actions (18 university classroom, 25 university office and 17 university other).

Applied Interests Factor.

For the Applied Interests Factor, the personality variable with the highest frequency count (Table 2) proved to be Practicalness $f=71$. Practicalness refers to the conventional application of skills. The personality variable Order, compulsive organization of career details, had a frequency of 26. Cross tabulation results placed professors with the highest counts for the Personality variables: Practicalness 49, Order 18. The only other Status classification that had counts of 10 or over was administration with 10, matching with the Practicalness variable. The university setting accounted for 60 verbal actions relating to applied interests: 30 university classroom, 22 university office, and 8 university other. The teaching Role reflected comparatively high counts for Practicalness (19) and Order (16). Practicalness was also found in the advising Role and other education Role with 11 and 17 counts, respectively. In the teaching Message Role, Practicalness and Order were referred to 17 and 13 times, respectively. In advising, research, and other education, Practicalness was referred to 10, 19, and 16 times, respectively. In advising, research, and other education, Order was referred to 1, 4, and 6 times, respectively.

Dependency Needs Dimension/Cross Tabulations

Frequencies of the personality variables in the Dependency Needs Dimension are presented in Table 3. Personality variables with the highest frequencies were Deliberation, Constraint Factor (CF) and Deliberation, Orderliness Factor (OF). Deliberation (CF) was seen in behaviors where characters analyzed a person or situation, $f71$. Deliberation (OF) was seen in behaviors where characters reviewed facts before making decisions, $f53$. Cross tabulations of Personality variables with demographic categories are presented in Appendix IVa through IVe.

Applied Interests Factor.

Personality variables in the Applied Interests Factor (Table 3) had frequencies of 23, Practicalness (compulsive organization in activities) and 9, Order (compulsive organization of details). Professors were compulsive in organizing activities 13 times and students 9 times. Professors were compulsive in organizing details 7 times and students 0 times. The settings where behaviors for the variables took place were most often observed in the university office, 12 and residence, 11. In the Role category, other education matched with Practicalness 15 times and Order 3 times. The other than education Role showed Practicalness 4 and Order 5. Of the four major education classifications, teachers were seen to be compulsive in organizing activities 4 times. Messages pertaining to education roles and Practicalness occurred for teaching 6 times and research 7 times.

Constraint Factor.

The personality variable with the highest frequency count for the Constraint Factor (Table 3) was Deliberation $f71$, analyzing a person or situation. This was followed by Placidity $f29$, tolerating a person or situation. Professors analyzed people or

Dimensions and Personality Variables
Dependency Needs Orientation

Table 3
Frequency

	Programs				
	Boy Meets World	3 rd Rock	Two of a Kind	Total 3 Shows	
	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i>	%
Applied Interests					
Practicalness	2	8	13	23	4.7%
Science					
Order		7	2	9	1.8%
Constraint					
Placidity	3	17	9	29	5.8%
Deliberation	18	40	13	71	14.3%
Inferiority Av		2		2	.4%
Prudishness		1	2	3	.6%
Diffidence					
Non-narcissism	3	5	4	12	2.4%
Non-f. Achievem	6	3	1	10	2.0%
Objectivity	1	24	1	26	5.3%
Orderliness					
Conjunctivity	8	8	2	18	3.6%
Sameness					
Deliberation	22	23	8	53	10.6%
Submissiveness					
Adaptability	1	16	8	25	5.1%
Abasement	17	12	20	49	9.9%
Nurturance		7	3	10	2.0%
Deference	1		1	2	.4%
Timidity					
Harm Avoid	5	8	4	17	3.4%
Non-F. achievem	1	2		3	.6%
Blame avoidance	3	6	4	13	2.6%
Non-Science	1			1	.2%
Closeness					
Supplication	6	16	5	27	5.5%
Sexuality	2	4	12	18	3.6%
Nurturance	7	21	8	36	7.3%
Deference	27	3	9	39	7.9%
Total for Dependency Needs	134	233	129	496	100%

situations 39 times and students analyzed people or circumstances 10 times. Cross tabulations also revealed that professors tolerated a person or situation 23 times and students tolerated people or circumstances only 4 times. Administrators analyzed a person or situation 9 times and showed one count for tolerance. The settings where behaviors for the variables took place that were most often observed were the university office (39), university other (16), and residence (29). In the Role category, other education matched with Deliberation 32 times, Placidity 13. The other than education Role showed Deliberation 30, Placidity 8. Of the four major education classifications, only advisers (4) and those in service (2) were seen to analyze people or situations. Teachers were seen to be tolerant 3 times and those performing service 5 times. Messages pertaining to education roles and Deliberation occurred for teaching 8 times, advising 3, research 5 and service 2 times.

Diffidence Factor.

Personality variables in the Diffidence Factor (Table 3) had frequencies of 12 Non-narcissism, which means humility or humbleness; 10 Non-fantasied Achievement, meaning realistic thoughts of self; and 26 Objectivity, meaning objective detachment. Professors were humble 7 times and students 5 times. Professors had realistic thoughts of themselves 5 times and students 4 times. Professors were objective 14 times. The settings where the behaviors were observed most often were the university office, 27 followed by residence, 10 and university other 7. In the Role category, other education matched with Non-narcissism 8 times, Non-fantasied Achievement 7 times and Objectivity 16 times. The other than education Role showed Non-narcissism 4, Non-fantasied Achievement 2 and Objectivity 10 times. There were no significant counts in the four major education classifications. Messages pertaining to education Roles and

Non-narcissism occurred for research 2 times and other education 4 times. Messages pertaining to Non-fantasied Achievement occurred 6 times in other education and messages pertaining to Objectivity occurred 2 times in research, 2 in service and 21 times in non-education.

Orderliness Factor.

Personality variables relating to the Orderliness Factor included Deliberation f 53, reviewing facts before making a decision, and Conjunctivity f 18, staying with a plan. In the Cross tabulations with the Status demographic, professors showed the highest counts for portrayals of reviewing facts before making decisions, 25, and students showed 9. Students planned and stayed with their plans 9 times, and professors 5 times. Administrators reviewed facts before making decisions 8 times. The settings where behaviors for the variables took place that were most often observed were the university office (22), university other (12), and residence (12). For the personality variables in discussion, there were no counts above 4 in the four major education Roles of teaching, advising, research or service in either the Role category or the Message Role category.

Submissiveness Factor.

In the following discussion, the variables associated with the Submissiveness Factor (Adaptability, Abasement, and Nurturance) were analyzed. The highest frequency (Table 3) in this group was Abasement f 49, self-depreciation, followed by Adaptability f 25, acceptance of criticism; and Nurturance f 10, helping others by belittling self. Professors and students produced the primary relationships with these variables. Professors accepted criticism in 21 verbal interactions, and students in 4. Professors devalued their self-worth in 19 verbal interactions, and students in 28. Professors belittled themselves to help others 4 times, and students 2 times. Behaviors relating to

the above personality variables were seen in varying degrees (from 1 to 18 times) across all five settings, with Abasement having the highest correlations with residence 12 and other/public 18. Combined totals for the variables were university classroom, 10; university office, 20, university other, 8; residence, 24; and other, 22. Behaviors indicative of the three personality variables were performed foremost by characters portraying other education roles, with 10 instances for Adaptability, 4 for Nurturance, and 31 occurrences for Abasement. Characters portrayed in the other than education classification displayed Adaptability tendencies 11 times, Abasement 15, and Nurturance 5. Twenty out of twenty-five messages referring to Adaptability were non-education related. Abasement was referred to in the teaching classification 4 times, research 11, other education 9, and non-education 25.

Timidity Factor.

The personality variables in the Timidity Factor with the highest frequencies were Harm Avoidance f 17, to evade or shrink from and Blame Avoidance f 13, the inhibition of hostility impulses. Professors evaded situations 13 times and students 4. Professors were viewed inhibiting hostility impulses 8 times and students 5. Behaviors were observed across all settings: university classroom, 4; university office, 11; university other, 5; residence, 6; and other/public, 4. In the Role category, other education matched with Harm Avoidance 10 times and Blame Avoidance 10 times. There were no significant counts in the four major education classifications. Messages pertaining to Roles were predominately non-education related with 11 counts for Harm Avoidance and 8 for Blame Avoidance.

Closeness Factor.

The final analysis of personality variables in the Dependency Needs Dimension included the four from the Closeness Factor (Table 3): Supplication *f* 27, dependency on others for love, assistance or protection; Sexuality *f* 18, sexual interests between two people; Nurturance *f* 36, helping others to meet one's own needs; and Deference *f* 39, respect for authority for membership or support. Cross tabulation with the Status category showed professors and students to have these personality traits most often: Supplication, professors 14 and students 9; Sexuality, professors 13 and students 1; Nurturance, professors 20 and students 15; and Deference, professors 2 and students 34. Behaviors reflecting the Closeness Factor variables occurred across all settings, primarily in the university office with 15 interactions reflecting a dependency on others, 12 in helping others to meet one's own needs, and 8 in showing respect for authority for membership or support. There was no critical relationship found between these personality variables and the education roles of teaching, advising, research or service for either the Role category or the Message Role category. In the Role category there were only 4 relationships with the four major education roles: teaching/Supplication, 1; service/Nurturance, 2; and service/Deference, 1. In other education roles, interactions reflecting Supplication occurred 21 times, Nurturance 20, and Deference 34. In the other than education roles, interactions reflecting Sexuality occurred 16 times and Nurturance 14 times. Messages were predominately in the classifications of other education/Deference 19, non-education/Supplication 18, non-education/Sexuality 17, non-education/Nurturance 29, and non-education/Deference 9.

Emotional Expression Dimension/Cross Tabulations

Frequencies of the personality variables in the Emotional Expression Dimension are presented in Table 4. The highest frequencies for this Dimension were Emotionality

Dimensions and Personality Variables
Emotional Expression

Table 4					
Frequency					
Programs					
	Boy Meets World	3 rd Rock	Two of a Kind	Total 3 Shows	
	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i>	%
Closeness					
Supplication	5	18	9	32	6.0%
Sexuality	33	25	43	101	17.0%
Nurturance	22	38	14	74	12.5%
Deference	2	8	4	14	2.3%
Sensuousness					
Sensuality	1	11		12	2.0%
Narcissism	1	1		2	.3%
Sexuality	7	18		25	4.2%
Friendliness					
Affiliation	21	23	13	57	9.6%
Play	4	4	13	21	3.5%
Expressiveness					
Emotionality	36	43	31	110	18.5%
Impulsiveness	6	11	9	26	4.3%
Exhibitionism	9	19	5	33	5.5%
Sexuality		1		1	.2%
Egoism					
Narcissism	5	22	4	31	5.3%
Fantasied Ach	7	12	4	23	3.8%
Projectivity	12	13	5	30	5.0%
Total for Emotional Expression	171	267	154	592	100%

*f*110, expressing emotions in general, and Sexuality *f*101, sexual interests expressed to friends or group. Cross tabulations of Personality variables with demographic categories are presented in Appendix Va through Ve.

Closeness Factor.

In the analysis of the variables associated with the Closeness Factor (Table 4), Sexuality *f*101, sexual interests expressed to friends or group, had the highest frequency, followed by Nurturance *f*74, helping others by showing support; Supplication *f*32, to make a request or cry for help; and Deference *f*14, to respect authority by showing support. The Cross tabulation revealed that professors expressed sexual interests to friends or groups 53 times, and students 34 times. Professors supported others 38 times, and students 10. Professors requested or cried for help 15 times, and students 12. Professors showed respect for authority 0 times and students 6. There were 23 instances of expressing sexual interest to friends or groups in the university classroom, 5 in the university office, and 25 in other areas of the university. Nurturance was seen 8 times in the university classroom, 22 in a university office, and 13 in other areas of the university. The Setting category also showed the following relationships: university office/Supplication, 7 and residence/Supplication, 14, residence/Deference 8. The Role in which these personalities were most often observed was other than education with instances occurring 84 times for Sexuality, 33 for Nurturance, 14 for Supplication and 12 for Deference. Those in other education roles portrayed Sexuality, Nurturance, Supplication and Deference tendencies: 10, 28, 17, and 2 times, respectively. Teachers expressed sexual interests 7 times. Advisors extended help 5 times. Those performing service to the university extended help to others 6 times. The majority of Messages pertaining to the four variables were non-education related. Nurturance was referred to in

teaching 8 times, research 4, and service 7. Respect for authority was referred to 6 times in the research classification of Message Role.

Sensuousness Factor.

Personality variables with the highest frequencies in the Sensuousness Factor were Sensuality f 12, interest in aesthetic experiences and Sexuality f 25, sexual interest expressed to a significant other. Professors showed an interest in aesthetic experiences 10 times. Professors expressed sexual interests to significant others 20 times. Behaviors were not observed in the classroom setting, but were in the university office 13 times, university other 9 times, residence 7 times and other/public 8 times. In the Role category, other education matched with Sensuality 5 times and Sexuality 15 times; other than education Sensuality 6 and Sexuality 10 times. The behaviors were not observed in the four major education Roles. Messages referring to Sensuality and Sexuality were not observed in the four major education Roles. Thirty-six counts for messages pertaining to these variables were non-education related.

Friendliness Factor.

In the analysis of the variables associated with the Friendliness Factor, Affiliation f 57, social orientation, had the highest frequency, followed by Play f 21, pleasure seeking. Professors were socially inclined in 26 verbal interactions, and students in 13. Professors sought pleasurable experiences in 9 circumstances, students in 6. Behaviors reflecting the above variables occurred across all settings. Totals for the two variables were university classroom, 4; university office, 19; university other, 17; residence, 30; and other public, 8. In the other education Role, interactions reflecting Affiliation occurred 27 times, Play 7. In the other than education Role, interactions reflecting Affiliation occurred 25 times, Play 13. There was only one relationship with the four

major education Roles: research/Play. Messages were predominately non-education related: Affiliation 40, Play 19.

Expressiveness Factor.

The personality variable with the highest frequency count for the Expressiveness Factor (Table 4) was Emotionality f 110, expressing emotions in general. Emotionality was followed in frequency by Exhibitionism f 33, attention seeking, and Impulsiveness f 26, impetuosity – not thinking before acting. Professors were emotionally expressive in 59 verbal interactions, students in 41. Professors sought attention in 23 instances, and students in 3. Professors were thoughtless 15 times, and students 10 times. Behaviors reflecting the above variables occurred across all settings, primarily in the university office with 34 expressions of emotion, 13 impetuous actions, and 17 attention-seeking actions. In the university classroom, emotions surfaced 12 times and there were 3 instances of Exhibitionism and 3 instances of Impetuosity. In the four major education roles of teaching, advising, research and service, emotions in general were expressed 6 times by teachers, 5 by advisors, 2 times by researchers and 5 times by those performing a service for the university. The only other relationships were teachers/ Impulsiveness, 3 and teachers/Exhibitionism, 2. Personality traits for the three variables were displayed most often by those in other education Roles (Emotionality 59, Exhibitionism 14, and Impulsiveness 18) and by those in other than education Roles (Emotionality 33, Exhibitionism 17 and Impulsiveness 5). Messages were predominately non-education related: Emotionality 75, Exhibitionism 27, and Impulsiveness 18. Other relationships with Message Role and the personality variables included: Emotionality/teaching 11, Emotionality/research 12, and Emotionality/other education 9.

Egoism Factor.

The final analysis of personality variables in the Emotional Expression Dimension included the three from the Egoism Factor (Table 4): Narcissism $f31$, self-centered; Fantasied Achievement $f23$, thoughts of power in interactions; and Projectivity $f30$, superstition or paranoia. Professors were self-centered in 26 interactions, and students in 3. Professors had thoughts of power in interactions 11 times, and students in 10. Professors were superstitious or paranoid 15 times, and students 11 times. Behaviors indicative of the above Personality variables occurred across all settings, most frequently in the university office (30) and residence (26). Teachers were seen as superstitious or paranoid 1 time, advisers 3, researchers 1, those in other education 19, and those in other than education Roles 6. Researchers were seen as self-centered in 2 instances, those performing university service in 7 instances, those in other education Roles in 19 instances, and those in other than education in 6 instances. Those in other education Roles had thoughts of power in interactions 15 times and those in other than education Roles had these thoughts 8 times. Messages relating to Narcissism were referred to in research 3 times, service 3 times, other education 7 times and were non-education related 18 times. Messages referring to thoughts of power in interactions occurred 1 time in research, 1 time in service, 3 times in other education and were non-education related 18 times. Messages referring to superstition or paranoia were seen in the teaching Role 1 time, research 4 times, other education 8 times and unrelated to education 17 times.

Qualitative Analysis and Interpretation

In the quantitative analysis, data were shown to be verifiable and reliable. Frequencies served the summarizing function of analysis and cross-tabulations showed

the relationships of the personality variables with demographic characteristics. The qualitative analysis provided insight into "How does the media portray the interactions of college instructors with their administrators, peers, students, and others in the higher education environment?" Personality variables from each Dimension and with the highest frequencies were selected for analysis utilizing the Ethnographic research techniques of Spradley (1980). The qualitative analysis started with asking a broad descriptive question. This question provided insight into the television characters that portray those in the higher education environment. Structured and Contrast questions that followed allowed for focused observations of the characters' personalities in their environment. The personality variables selected for Structured and Contrast questions in the qualitative analysis included: Abasement, Aggression, Deference, Deliberation (CF) and Deliberation (OF), Dominance, Emotionality, Nurturance, and Sexuality.

Broad, Descriptive Question

The broad, descriptive question formulated for the current study was "Who are the characters representing the higher education environment as portrayed on television's situation comedies?"

The main characters portraying students in "Boy Meets World" are Cory, Topanga, Shawn, and Erik. Cory and Topanga have dated each other for a number of years, first meeting in the early episodes of the program that featured them in junior high school. Shawn and Cory are best friends and Erik is Cory's older brother. Episodes in 1998 and 1999 brought these characters to their first year of college. Mr. Feeney originally portrayed their junior high school teacher and later their high school principal. Mr. Feeney's character assumed the role of a college instructor in the 1998-1999 season.

Mr. Feeney.

A strong bond had been built between Mr. Feeney's character and the portrayed students since the first episode in 1993. This bond is reflected in the college environment by Mr. Feeney's continued concern for the success of the student characters. Scenes from the episodes in the current research that exemplify Mr. Feeney's concern for students include: 1) Mr. Feeney accompanies Cory to the academic advisor's office to try to work out Cory's course registration problems. 2) Mr. Feeney praises Erick for his success in being accepted to the college of his choice. 3) Mr. Feeney is sympathetic to the students' adjustment to college homework. This is reflected in a scene where Mr. Feeney said to Cory and Shawn, "Been burning the midnight oil? There's always one tough class."

The students respect Mr. Feeney and they turn to him for advice and assistance. This is evident in the current research when Mr. Feeney gives Cory and Shawn an extension on turning in their midterm papers. Mr. Feeney related, "We have a long history together...If you need some help just ask." However, in a scene that followed, Cory and Shawn did not have a paper finished when it was due and Cory said to Mr. Feeney, "Remember how you said we could ask...how about three days?" Contrasting the midterm assignment scene, Mr. Feeney replied, "No days!" This behavior on Mr. Feeney's part was inconsistent, which was verified in Cory and Shawn's subsequent conversation: "He (Mr. Feeney) gave us an extension on the midterm...Yea, it's like he's two different people." Although some of Mr. Feeney's behaviors interacting with students were inconsistent, his overall relationship with the student characters remained supportive. This was brought to light in a scene where Mr. Feeney was complimented by the dean for his outstanding relationships with students: "I never saw a teacher whose students were willing to go to such lengths to see him happy."

In the role of instructor, Mr. Feeney's character showed knowledge for the subject areas being taught. Lines from classroom scenes in the current research that support this include: "Beginning in 1899 in Crete," "Energy can be emitted or absorbed," "Also, to the development of ...," and "Next time I want you to read...and be prepared to discuss...". A character portraying a college dean described Mr. Feeney's teaching ability: "George (Mr. Feeney) is a fine educator."

Relationships with his students went beyond that of academics and extended into Mr. Feeney's personal life. This was observed in the behaviors of students as they tried to persuade Mr. Feeney to begin a courtship with the Dean, Lila Bolinger. In one scene, Erik said to Mr. Feeney, "Here is a woman that you've got the hots for and you're not going to do anything." Mr. Feeney's reply indicated that he did not like Erik's reference to "having the hots" for Dean Bolinger, but also suggested that he would be open to any information Erik might have about Dean Bolinger's feelings for him. "Mr. Mathews (Erik) don't reduce my feelings for the woman to the hots, unless of course, she used that term." Erik pressured Mr. Feeney to ask Dean Bolinger for a date several times: "It's what you want but you're not going after it. How old are now Mr. Feeney, 90 a 100? You're such a scary cat. Mr. Feeney, you've been good to us...it's payback time...it's out of your hands. Feeney, the time is now!" This behavior was even observed in the classroom. At this point in the episode, a love triangle had developed with the introduction of Dean Bolinger's former husband who was also seeking her attentions:

Erik:	Feeney, stop hiding behind your books.
Feeney to class:	Also fundamental to the development of...
Erik:	Feeney, you're in pain.
Feeney to Erik:	You're not even in this class.

Erik: You can't let Curtis swoop in on your booty.

Feeney: She's not my booty! And if she was my booty, I would prefer not to talk about it...

Erik: Come on Feeney, everybody knows.

Feeney: No one knows. I have behaved in a manner...

Erik to class: Who here knows who Feeney loves?

Class: Dean Bolinger.

Feeney: All right, everybody out!

With the exception of the above scene, Mr. Feeney responded to the pressure calmly, while displaying romantic inclinations: "Erik, Dean Bolinger is the kind of woman, like an orchid. I'm a gardener. I know these things. Erik, my relationship with Dean Bolinger will proceed at my pace, not yours." In the end, it was the students who brought Mr. Feeney and Dean Bolinger together.

Dean Bolinger.

Dean Bolinger, a supporting character in the current research, was observed as being strict with students. Her remarks to Erik in his college entrance interview included: "I'm sorry, Erik, your interview was two days ago. You didn't show up. I'm not here to listen to excuses. What makes you think this is the right school for you? You had your chance, Erik." Erik discussed this interview with Mr. Feeney, and Mr. Feeney confirmed that Dean Bolinger was strict, "She's a tough cookie." In another scene, the students expressed that Dean Bolinger was perceptive in regard to their behavior. After executing a plot to bring Mr. Feeney and Dean Bolinger together as a couple, Corry said to Shawn, "We had Mr. Feeney scammed." Shawn replied, "But his chick (Dean Bolinger) was tough!"

Dean Bolinger intervened in the professional relationships of those in her department. For example, Dr. Kincaid belittled Mr. Feeney for only having book knowledge of the subject matter, and Dean Bolinger reprimanded him by stating, "George is a fine educator."

Dean Bolinger relied on students for advice in her personal life (her relationship with Mr. Feeney): "I'm telling you girls. I like the man, but he needs to pick up the pace. He needs to do something. He needs to express his feelings. Goodness knows I've been dropping hints...I hiked up my skirt at the seminar."

Curtis Kincaid.

Curtis Kincaid's character revealed a high opinion of himself and of his profession. When referred to as Mr., the character countered with, "Ah, come on what's with the Mr. It's Dr. Dr. Kincaid." Dr. Kincaid did not like being referred to as an archeologist, suggesting "Please that makes me feel like a geezer with a compass. I prefer fortune hunter." He showed little tolerance for Mr. Feeney's teaching from a text. In a classroom scene, Dr. Kincaid related his first-hand adventures to the students. Mr. Feeney thanked him and began his instruction. Dr. Kincaid remarked sarcastically to Dean Bolinger, "Ponderous man. Ponderous...I suppose reading is safer than doing."

This character's research came before others' needs and even health. In the episode, Dr. Kincaid explained his research and what he hoped to gain from it, "We mate the special bee with those here and they start migrating back...saving thousands of dollars...I could be rich...This is my Nobel Prize." Dr. Kincaid's research was in jeopardy when the bee was set free in the science lab, and his frantic response to the situation was to order everyone to "relax...don't kill it...No, don't touch the bee...don't move!" The bee landed on Dean Bolinger and she expressed that she was allergic, but Dr. Kincaid

retorted, "So, you puff up a little." Mr. Feeney removed the bee and was subsequently stung. He handed the bee to Dr. Kincaid saying he would give him the stinger as soon as it was removed from his arm. Dr. Kincaid was not concerned with the health of his colleagues, yet pleaded with the bee not to die, "No bee don't die. Don't die."

Dean Borack.

Dean Borack's character felt that students were always looking for an easy way to make it through college. He told students "the only easy way is the hard way." As dean of the college, he monitored students' activities. His leadership style is infused with intimidation: "Why are you in my college hallway? You're in college now buddy! You two think I'm a clown, don't you, Dean Bozo? Think about it boys; I am a nasty, nasty man." In one scene, a student relates, "I'm already scared, sir." Dean Borack responds, "Good! That's how I became the dean." In another scene, Erik and Jack are trying to build a friendship with the dean (with the ulterior motive of getting an extension on homework assignments). Dean Borack told them, "You know the kind of people that need mentors? People who can't think for themselves, weak people."

Professor of Psychology.

This professor was observed in scenes in the classroom setting. The professor began with classroom discipline, "You stop talking and take a seat." His instruction included lecture, questioning, acknowledging answers, evaluation, and further explanations. For example, he described a theory to the class and called on Shawn ("You!") to refute the theory. He was impressed with Shawn's answer, "I like the way your mind works." The professor asked the class if they understood and explained that Shawn had moved to a higher theory in answering the question. He then asked Shawn if

he would like to try 'free will'. Shawn replied, "Do I really have a choice?" Again, the professor was impressed, "Oh, I gotta take five."

In the next scene, the professor demonstrated that he prepares for classes and involves students in discussions: "Okay, today we're going to explore...life/mortality. What are you're thoughts?" He was not satisfied with a student's response and expressed, "like in we're all just visiting...that's bull. See, this is what happens in Psychology. You throw out a few clichés and ..." The professor apologized and explained his emotional outlay, "I'm sorry. Sometimes I get a little frustrated. I look at you and some should still be in high school." The professor returned graded papers to the students. Shawn earned an "F" on his paper, and the professor explained: "Shawn, I was surprised by yours. I was expecting scholarly work. Except for a few ideas, it was poorly written...You're in college now. You're supposed to know the basics. I don't have time to teach them." Although this student feedback seemed harsh, it worked into the storyline of the episode, as Shawn was not enrolled in college. In fact, he was still in high school and having difficulty with the basics. Prior to this professor's feedback, Shawn was considering dropping out of high school.

The main characters portraying university professors in "3rd Rock from the Sun" are Dr. Solomon and Dr. Albright. This situation comedy features Dr. Solomon as an alien (from another planet) who is on earth to study its occupants. In turn, Dr. Solomon learns what it is like to be human.

Dr. Solomon.

Dr. Solomon portrays a professor of physics. In the current research, there was only one scene in which the character of Dr. Solomon interacted with students. This

scene was observed in an episode that centered on Dr. Solomon's obsession with computers.

Dr. Solomon: So as you can see...now you understand friction. And, I have a cheese omelet. Any Questions?

Student: Why are you on a computer?

Dr. Solomon: My actual presence is no longer necessary in the learning process. This is my new live web cam at www...It's on me 24 hours a day. You can watch me do almost anything and, for a small fee, everything!

Dr. Solomon was observed writing a book on physics. However, it was his jealousy of another professor's success that motivated him to do this research. Lines from various scenes confirmed that his motivation was based on jealousy: "Cancel my classes; I have writing to do. I'm writing a groundbreaking book that will bring the physics world to its knees. Payback's a Bitch, Strudwick! This will wipe the smugness off Strudwick's face." Nina, the office assistant, recognized this emotion: Nina asked Dr. Solomon, "Have you read Dr. Strudwick's book?" Dr. Solomon replied, "Well, I was going to order it on the internet, until I realized there was no Amazon-dot-crap." Nina replied, "You're just jealous!" Denying this emotion, Dr. Solomon countered, "Of his little comic book?" Jealousy was further identified in Dr. Solomon's interaction with the author. During the reception to honor Dr. Strudwick for his research, Dr. Strudwick commented to Dr. Solomon, "Quite an impressive turn out for me. Wouldn't you say?" Dr. Solomon replied, "It's no gay pride parade." Dr Strudwick asked, "So what did you think of the book?" Dr. Solomon replied, "As bathroom fare, a triumph."

Dr. Solomon's alien intelligence was overshadowed by his lack of practical and worldly knowledge. Dr. Solomon was observed seeking advice from Dr. Mary Albright in several scenes. Some of the knowledge he was seeking pertained to computer literacy, housekeeping, and income tax and tax audits. For his personal relationships with members of the opposite sex, he turned to Don, a family friend, for advice. In one scene, Don suggested that it was not wise to date two professors at the same time:

Dr. Solomon: I'm so excited about going out with Jennifer. I forgot what new love felt like.

Don: So, it's love, huh? Was the break up with Mary messy?

Dr. Solomon: No. I haven't done it yet. Who needs all that unpleasantness?

Don: Dick, two ladies, that can blow up in your face. It can't work. You have to do right by Mary.

Dr. Solomon: You're probably right. I've got it. I'll pick up Jennifer and then I'll swing by the office and break up with Mary, but I won't kiss Jennifer until afterward.

Don: Now you're talking like a man.

As Dr. Solomon's character learns each of life's lessons, he ponders on his mistakes. "I made such a mistake. I thought all this technology would help me to wrap my arms around human kind. But I was wrong. I wasn't connected; I was separated." "Oh, what was I thinking? If I publish these secrets, all will know I'm an alien. I assuaged my professional jealousy by...yet; I come off looking like the bad guy." "What happened? I fell for Jennifer, just like Mary. How could it have gone away so fast? It felt like the real thing. Now I've tossed Mary aside."

Dr. Albright.

Dr. Mary Albright portrays an anthropology professor. In the current research, Dr. Albright's character was not seen in interactions with students; however, Dr. Albright was observed volunteering her services in the university setting. Dr. Albright escorted visiting Nobel Prize recipients on campus tours and in the community. Discussing this experience with her administrative assistant she declared, "It is so refreshing being around brilliance." Yet, the scenes with Dr. Albright interacting with the Laureates revealed Dr. Albright in a nurturing role, while the Laureates lacked brilliance and were insecure.

Dr. Albright: We have a terrific cafeteria...I'd join you, but I have a class.

Laureate: Do they have soup?

Dr. Albright: I believe they have soup.

Laureate: Is it cream soup?

Dr. Albright: I don't know.

Laureate: I hope they have waffles.

Laureate: But not the round ones.

Laureate: No, certainly not.

Dr. Albright: Go, go. It's okay. Go.

Nina: They look kinda lost and the little effeminate one is
whimpering.

Dr. Albright: Oh, God. That's Johann.

Dr. Albright had dated Dr. Solomon throughout episodes, and in this capacity, she was brought into his learning experiences. One scene showed Dr. Solomon as being computer illiterate. Nina told him that his grades were on the computer. Dr. Albright

explained Nina's reference and offered to assist Dr. Solomon in learning the computer. "I think she means 'in' your computer. This is your dirty little secret isn't it? You're a physics professor who's computer illiterate...If you ever need my help...I, an anthropology professor will teach you, a physics professor, to open a file with your mouse." In a later scene, Dr. Albright taught Dr. Solomon how to use a computer.

Dr. Albright was observed as nurturing and knowledgeable, but there were story lines in which her behavior paralleled Dr. Solomon's immaturity. In the current research, Dr. Albright and Dr. Solomon were playing practical jokes on each other. Dr. Albright altered the look of Dr. Solomon's prized Mr. Potato Head. Told the sign painters that their instructions for painting Dr. Solomon's name on the office door were incorrect: "He'd be very upset. It's Salmon, you know, like the big stink fish." And, put bond epoxy on Dr. Solomon's desk so that he would be stuck to it.

This character assumed the role of dean in the current research. The amount of time deans spend to meet their responsibilities was brought out through a love triangle story line. Dr. Albright had dated Dr. Solomon throughout episodes. Because Dr. Albright was spending so much time working, Dr. Solomon started a relationship with the new professor sharing his office, Dr. Ravelli. Dr. Solomon told Dr. Albright, "Don and I think it's time we started dating other people...what with your busy schedule...we barely get to see each other anyway." Dr. Albright, unaware that Dr. Ravelli was waiting in the university parking lot for Dr. Solomon, replied, "Here it is. My career is getting in the way of our relationship...Who am I to stand in your way. Go out into your world of options."

Nina, the office assistant, advised and consoled Dr. Albright after Dr. Albright caught Dr. Solomon and Dr. Ravelli embracing in their office.

Nina: Hey, Dr. Albright, how you doing?

Dr. Albright: I'm busy. Okay? Because I'm the Dean.

Nina: Are you okay?

Dr. Albright: I'm thrilled. I'm at my job. No time for relationships. I'm the big Dean. Career lady.

Nina: Come on, that doesn't give him the right...

Dr. Albright: No, it doesn't. He's an immature, loathsome, stupid...I miss him!

Nina: Let's go out, get drunk and make fun of him.

Dr. Albright: I don't feel like going out. Sit down. (brings bottle out from desk drawer).

Under the influence of alcohol, Dr. Albright confronted Dr. Solomon outside his home, again corroborating that the responsibilities of being a dean had interfered with their relationship. Dr. Albright hollered at Dr. Solomon, "Stinken...Show your face! Yes, I'm here, just long enough to tell you what an ass you are...I work a couple of nights and you seize the opportunity to chase the first skirt that comes along. Don't talk to me again, never, ever, never, ever!

In "Two of a Kind" the main character in higher education is a university professor. The professor is a single parent and his two daughters are cared for by one of his students, Kerry.

Professor Burke.

Scenes in various episodes showed Professor Burke as dedicated to education and to teaching the physical sciences. An example of his dedication occurred in a scene in which he had to cancel plans with his daughters and he told them, "Another professor got

sick and I have to prepare for his class." The character is portrayed in the classroom as knowledgeable about subject matter. A student remarked after one of his classes, "That was a great lecture." Professor Burke's character demonstrated an interest in conducting research and in publishing. A student expressed, "Professor Burke is hiring a research assistant. He's writing a feature article." Another student said to Dr. Burke, "I just heard about the article. Congratulations." Dr. Burke was observed explaining his research to his assistant and instructing his assistant on data entry and compiling results.

One episode was concerned with ethical behavior. Dr. Burke stated, "As a professor, I can't discuss one student's grade with another student. It's unethical." However, he was not consistent in living up to this statement. The following scene reflects how he shared information about one student's work with another.

Kerry:	Professor, how could you? You failed him just to put him in his place. Didn't you?
Dr. Burke:	I'm sorry, Kerry. I can't discuss another student's paper.
Kerry:	Don't try to hide behind your ethics. I read Rick's paper and I know good work when I see it.
Dr. Burke:	It was good work. No doubt about that. It was clear, concise, the research impeccable.
Kerry:	I thought you couldn't discuss...
Dr. Burke:	I'm not talking about another student's work.
Kerry:	Then what are we talking about.
Dr. Burke:	This. Start on the second paragraph...
Kerry:	This is Rick's paper.

Dr. Burke: And I am at a loss to figure out how it got in this journal
ten years ago.

Kerry: He plagiarized!

Dr. Burke: That's what I would say, if I could.

Kerry interferes in Professor Burke's social life (or lack thereof). Kerry urged Dr. Burke, "Professor, you have to meet my friend. She's got great legs. I'm just going to give you this number. Nancy is my friend from high school. She is great. You have got to meet her. I think you guys would hit it off. She's very pretty and she's a botanist and she just had an article published in the Journal of Earth Science." Dr. Burke agreed, "Attractive and published, maybe I'll call her." Dr. Burke and Kerry interact in professional and social situations, with Professor Burke taking the lead in the professional and Kerry taking the lead in the social.

Qualitative Structured and Contrast Questions

In answering the broad descriptive question, characteristics of those that portray higher education professionals were brought to light. The answers to the Structured and Contrast questions provided further insight into the characters' personalities. The questions were constructed from information relating to the Items on the Organizational Climate Index (OCI).

Abasement Structured Question.

The personality variable Abasement, self-depreciation, was first to be analyzed. The corresponding Item on the OCI referred to the inadequacy people feel; it reads: "People are made to feel inadequate if they don't know the answers here." From this Item, the following Structured question was formulated, "What are all the ways people reveal that they feel inadequate? An examination of the text of the three programs

showed that there were four (4) answers to the structured question: people apologize, admit they are wrong, admit they are not good at things, and admit that they hurt someone else through their actions. Examples from the text of the three programs follow.

A secondary character portraying the role of a professor in "Boy Meets World" revealed his frustration in teaching the class: "I'm sorry. Sometimes I get a little frustrated. I look at you and think some of you should still be in high school."

Curtis, a field researcher visiting the university in "Boy Meets World" apologizes ("Sorry") after being reprimanded by the Dean for putting down another instructor for only having 'book' knowledge of the subject.

"I made such a mistake," Dr. Solomon admitted, "I thought all this technology would help me to understand and embrace humankind. But I was wrong. I wasn't connected. I was separated." Dr. Solomon had taken technology to an obsessive level. He would not leave the computer in his home even to teach classes, teaching via computer link.

"I've taken on an impossible load," Cory said to his advisor. Cory had registered for all advanced classes and wanted his advisor to help him drop them and register him for beginning classes, which were all full.

Characters admitted that they were not good at some things or not good at handling things. Cory and Shawn in their first semester of college complained to Mr. Feeney that their teachers were giving too much home work: "They are killing us. I mean they're killing us. They're killing us."

When Kerry and Paul, in "Two of a Kind," both wanted to apply for Professor Burke's research position, Paul told Kerry, "I'm not good at confrontation. You take the job."

Characters acknowledged that their incompetence or inconsideration had hurt someone else. Dr. Burke (episode above) had given Kerry the research position, but Kerry was not as good on computers as she had implied in her job interview. She said to Paul, "I lied to get the job and now I've lost all of his data. I've ruined his chances of publishing."

Cory and Shawn, after getting an extension on their first homework assignment from Mr. Feeney, did not turn in their second assignment. They told Mr. Feeney, "We took advantage of you. We let you down."

Abasement Contrast Question.

The Contrast question for the Abasement variable was, "Is there a difference in the ways characters handle their inadequacy?" It was found that some admitted that they were wrong, or unqualified. An example is "I guess I took it out on Mr. Potato Head." Dr. Albright was angry with Dr. Solomon and her anger led her to a destructive practical joke. Some blame outside sources for their inadequate feelings: "I just had to," said Dr. Solomon, implying that he could not control his emotions and thus had played a hurtful practical joke back on Dr. Albright. In a confrontation between students and the Dean in "Boy Meets World," the Dean said, "I was drunk when I hired the Dean of Student Housing."

Others try to talk their way out of feeling inadequate. Kerry, in defense of ruining Dr. Burke's chances for publishing recounted, "I took the job because it paid and I needed the money!" When Shawn got an "F" on a college paper, he confronted the professor with, "I don't understand. I worked really hard...You said I had a good mind."

Rationalization was seen as another defense against inadequacy. Dr. Solomon wanted to play a game with the others in the office, but he rationalized, "Unless the rules

are complicated." When Kerry lost Dr. Burke's research she explained, "It's gone. I did something with the keyboard."

Aggression Structured Question.

The personality variable Aggression, hostility, was next to be analyzed. The corresponding Item on the OCI pertained to criticizing others: "People often joke about or criticize others." From this Item, the following Structured question was constructed, "What are all the ways people joke about or criticize others?" An examination of the text of the three programs showed that there were nine (9) answers to the structured question: describe others negatively, use put-downs, associate people with negative qualities, call people names, threaten people, ridicule, they put their needs ahead of the needs of others, they compare people to others (a form of belittling), and they fail to confirm a person's worth. These behaviors were portrayed in the situation comedies in the following ways:

In reference to students, the Dean in "Boy Meets World" said, "Everybody's passing out fliers - if it ain't the chess guys, it's save this save that."

The professor who gave Shawn the "F" on his paper in "Boy Meets World" insisted that Shawn's paper was poorly written, not adequately researched, and sloppy.

Erik and Jack in "Boy Meets World" wanted the Dean to be their mentor, and the Dean replied that the only people who need mentors are "people who can't think for themselves...weak people."

Cory and Shawn were completely overwhelmed with the amount of homework they were given by college instructors. Cory spouted, "That Prof. Williams is a sadist." Shawn agreed, "They (instructors) are all ridiculous."

Topanga called Mr. Feeney an "old goat" when she got the same grade (B) as Shawn and Cory on an assignment.

Nina (office staff) asked Dr. Solomon if he had a copy of Dr. Strudwick's book. Dr. Solomon replied, "I was going to order his book, until I realized there was no Amazon.crap."

In a casual conversation about the Laureates, Dr. Solomon volunteered, "But they're not so great. One of them had to share his Nobel Prize."

Dr. Albright went to Dr. Solomon's house a little 'tipsy' after she discovered that he was dating another professor. Dr. Solomon greeted her with, "Oh, Mary you're here." Dr. Albright retorted, "Just long enough to tell you what an ass you are."

Professor Burke referred to one of his students in the following way – "Rick? You mean Mr. Interrupt the class, seek attention Rick?"

Aggression Contrast Question.

The Contrast question for the Aggression variable was concerned with the levels of intensity of aggression: "Are there different levels of intensity in these aggressive actions?" For this analysis, verbal actions were classified into low, medium and high intensity categories.

The low intensity search resulted in the following examples:

Kerry challenged Professor Burke during class, "You didn't address Rick's question."

Cory's advisor sternly suggested, "If you find simple course selection hard, perhaps college isn't for you."

Even though Field Researcher Curtis knew that Dean Bolinger was allergic to bee stings, he insisted that she remain still when his project bee landed on her. Curtis said to Professor Bolinger, "So you puff up a little!"

The medium intensity search resulted in the following examples:

"You're just jealous," Nina said to Dr. Solomon describing his reaction to Dr. Strudwick's academic success.

Mr. Feeney described Dean Bolinger to Erik as "a tough cookie."

Erik and Jack had been trying to convince the Dean that their new fraternity was legitimate. After several questions and inquiries, the Dean concluded: "You two think I'm a clown...Dean Bozo!" In another scene, the Dean is trying to convince Erik and Jack that there is no easy way to get through college. At one point, he turned to Jack and said, "You don't say much, pretty boy."

The high intensity search resulted in the following examples:

"But what fries my Dean Butt is that you promised I'd get to meet them." This declaration goes back to one of the scenes where the Dean questioned Erik and Jack about their fraternity. Erick and Jack had promised the Dean that they would introduce him to 'the Love Boat Guys,' who were supposedly sponsoring the fraternity.

"I hate you the most." Mr. Feeney spoke these words, and they were directed at his nephew who was portraying Cory's unsupportive advisor.

Topanga shouted "You old Goat" as she chased Mr. Feeney around the campus to try to get him to change the grade he had given her on a paper.

Erik called Mr. Feeney a "scary cat" because Mr. Feeney would not take steps to form a love interest with Dean Bolinger.

Dr. Solomon referred to Dr. Strudwick as "That Basker." In this scene, Dr. Strudwick was being honored by the university for his newly published text. When Nina (office staff) told Dr. Solomon that everyone thought Dr. Strudwick's book was brilliant, Dr. Solomon retorted, "You can tell everyone to go to hell."

Deference Structured and Contrast Questions.

The analysis of the personality variable Deference, respect for authority offered examples that countered the aggression variable. The corresponding Item on the OCI for Deference referred to showing respect for others: "Almost no one here ever makes fun of the people, traditions, or policies." Results from asking the Structured and Contrast questions for this variable were combined. The Structured question asked, "What are all the ways people show respect for others, traditions, or policies?" and the Contrast question asked, "Is there a difference in the respect shown that distinguishes sincerity from patronizing actions?" An examination of the text of the three programs showed that there were ten (10) answers to the structured question: giving gifts, explaining things, compliments, defining relationships, politeness, award talk, paying tribute to, acknowledge work, asking for assistance, and recognition of treatment. Examples of these behaviors from the three programs are presented below and they are separated as to whether they are sincere or patronizing.

The patronizing examples included:

Cory and Shawn took Mr. Feeney out to brunch. Before Mr. Feeney arrived, Cory told Shawn, "I made a happy face for Mr. Feeney."

Erik and Jack explained their new fraternity to the Dean. "It's a fraternity that started in Hawaii."

Erik and Jack, trying to get out of writing all of their college papers by making friends with the Dean approached him respectively, " Sir we actually would just like to discuss...and possibly establish a relationship."

Paul in "Two of a Kind" said to Professor Burke, "Great lecture this morning," but the professor was quick to point out that Paul wasn't in class that morning.

The sincerity examples included:

Cory tried to define how the Dean and he would interact, "I get into trouble. And you guide me out."

Mr. Feeney had given Cory a good grade on his paper, and Cory acknowledged with "Feeney, thank you for the 'B'."

A student wanting to participate in Dr. Burke's class said, "Excuse me there, professor."

Kerry acknowledged Dr. Burke's research, "I just heard about the article. Congratulations!"

Paul showed Kerry how to use the computer and Kerry said, "How did you do that...you're pretty good with computers."

Paul told Kerry about Professor Burke's work, "He's writing a feature article."

Deliberation Structured Question.

Deliberation, analyzing persons and situations, the Constraint Factor associated with the Dependency Need Dimension and Deliberation, reviewing facts, the Orderliness Factor also associated with the Dependency Need Dimension were combined for qualitative analysis. The corresponding Item on the OCI referred to making decisions: "Quick decisions or actions are not characteristic here." This Item led to the Structured question: "What kinds of facts need to be uncovered in the analysis of people or

situations before decisions are made?" An examination of the text of the three programs showed that there were four (4) answers to the structured question: details of events, if the person is credible, how the person being questioned feels about the issue, and if the issue is ethical (on the up and up). These behaviors were portrayed in the situation comedies in the following ways:

One of Dr. Solomon's family members asked for details to explain, "Why are there office supplies stuck to your face?"

"It was the perfect plan." Dr. Solomon was jealous of Strudwick's book, so he tried to undermine Strudwick's ability as a parent.

Don (family friend) told Dr. Solomon, "Mary can be very forgiving." However, Dr. Solomon wanted to see if that was really what Don thought, so he asked him, "You think so?"

"She said that?" Dr. Albright questioned Dr. Solomon's version of why her maid left her employment to work full time for him.

In another episode of "3rd Rock from the Sun," Dr. Solomon and Dr. Albright had been upstaging each other with practical jokes. Dr. Solomon said to Dr. Albright, "We are even now, right?"

In the episode of "Boy Meets World" where Mr. Feeney had commented on Dean Bolinger being a very tough cookie, Shawn, who was anxious about the interview he had had with Dean Bolinger questioned Mr. Feeney, "How do you know her?"

The Dean is trying to gather the details about Erik and Jack's fraternity, he asked "How are you funded?"

"Why did you do this George (Mr. Feeney)?" Dean Bolinger was called to the Science lab by Cory and Shawn (who had just trashed it) and she thought Mr. Feeney had caused the destruction.

"What's in it for her?" Dr. Albright was trying to convince Dr. Solomon to hire a maid. Dr. Solomon did not understand the concept of a woman he didn't know cleaning his house.

Deliberation Contrast Question.

The Contrast question for the Deliberation variable was "What is the difference when questions are related to personal situations versus academic?" This question could not be answered because there was a lack of portrayals of Deliberation behaviors in academic situations.

Dominance Structured Question.

The corresponding Item on the OCI for the personality variable Dominance, ascendancy, referred to personal rivalries: "Personal rivalries are common in this place." From this Item, the following Structured question evolved, "What are all the ways personal rivalries are expressed?" An examination of the text of the three programs showed that there were eight (8) answers to the structured question: people assert their positions, command others, demand from others, ignore requests, dictate, try to persuade, try to control or try to prohibit. Verbal behaviors from the three programs that relate to Dominance in the eight areas identified from the Structured question are listed below. People assert their positions in personal rivalries.

1. Dean to student: "I'm not here to listen to excuses."
2. Dr. Albright to Dr. Solomon: "It's my office. Always was always will be."
3. Dr. Albright to office staff: "Well, you're my assistant."

4. Field researcher to students: "It's hard to get excited about reading. I suppose reading is safer than doing."
5. Dr. Strudwick to Dr. Solomon: "So, what did you think of my book?"
6. Dean to students: "I could have you shock therapied"

People command others in personal rivalries.

1. Dr. Solomon (pretending to be Dr. Strudwick) to Dr. Strudwick's publisher: "I want all copies recalled. Get on it!"
2. Dean to students: "Leave the vodka."
3. Erik to Mr. Feeney: "Feeney, stop hiding behind your books."
4. Dr. Solomon to Dr. Strudwick: "You take that back."
5. Topanga to Mr. Feeney: "Don't you run away from me."
6. Mr. Feeney to the students in his class: "Alright, everybody out"

People demand from others in personal rivalries.

1. Dr. Strudwick to Dr. Solomon: "I suggest you teach your son some manners."
2. Dr. Albright to Dr. Solomon: "Give me back my maid."
3. Topanga to Mr. Feeney: "Feeney, you change this."
4. Dean to students: "You, I want names."

People dictate to others in personal rivalries.

1. Dr. Albright to Dr. Solomon: "I an anthropology professor will teach you a physics professor how to use a computer."
2. Mr. Feeney to field researcher: "I'll return the stinger as soon as.."
3. Dr. Solomon to Dr. Albright: "I can't allow that to happen, Mary."
4. Dr. Solomon to office staff: "Nina, I want my name painted on this door"

5. Dr. Solomon to Dr. Albright: "Now I want you to hear me out"
6. Student to Dean of Admissions: "Now I want my interview."

People ignore requests in personal rivalries.

1. Dean to student: "You had your chance, Erik."
2. Dean to student: "I think you just had it."
3. Advisor to student: "Oh, I can't do that."
4. Advisor to student: "I'm sorry."

People persuade, control, or prohibit in personal rivalries.

1. Kerry to Professor Burke: "Don't try to hide behind your emotions."
2. Advisor to student: "perhaps it isn't for you."
3. Dr. Solomon to Dr. Albright: "Don't fight in front of the maid."
4. Dr. Sturdwick to Dr. Solomon: "Don't be in it."
5. Student to Dean of Admissions: "You're supposed to accept people who want to learn."
6. Advisor to student: "I mean, those courses are closed."
7. Dean to students: "Not now."

Dominance Contrast Question.

The Contrast question for the Dominance variable related to the intensity of expression: "What is the difference in the intensity of Dominance in verbal expressions?" The intensity of expression corresponded to the eight areas identified from the Structured question. High levels of intensity were found in the demand, command, and dictate areas. Medium levels of intensity were found in the positions and the persuade, control or prohibit areas. Low levels of intensity were found in the area where people ignore requests.

Emotionality Structured Question.

The personality variable Emotionality, expressing emotions in general, was next to be analyzed. The corresponding Item on the OCI referred to people's feelings: "The way people feel around here is always pretty evident." The structured question was "What are all of the feelings that evoke emotional expression?" An examination of the text of the three programs revealed thirteen feelings that evoke emotional expression; five of these were examined further: exasperation, panic, disbelief, dread, and fear.

Exasperation:

Dr. Solomon was preparing his first tax return and Dr. Albright was helping him. Because he had no history on earth, he was asking Dr. Albright to lie and say she had known him for six years. Dr. Albright asked, "Are you kidding me?" She insisted that she did not want him to drag her into this situation, and Dr. Solomon in total frustration responded, "Drag you into this?"

The practical jokes that Dr. Solomon and Dr. Albright had been playing on each other finally caught up to Dr. Solomon. He had insisted that his name be painted on the office door, but Dr. Albright had changed the work order. Triumphant in having his name on the door, Dr. Solomon pointed to the door and said "This office is occupied by Dr. r Salmon!"

Professor Burke informed Kerry that it would be unethical for him to discuss Rick's grades with her. Kerry insisted that Rick's paper was good and he didn't deserve an "F". Professor Burke agreed that the paper was excellent. With a little more badgering from Kerry, he showed her a journal that had published the paper ten years prior. He turned to Kerry and said, "and I am at a loss as to how Rick's paper got in this journal."

Nina (office staff) told Dr. Solomon that he would be teaching from Dr. Strudwick's book in the upcoming semester. Dr. Solomon shrieked, "What!"

Panic:

After Cory and Shawn had destroyed the Science lab (their plan to bring Dean Bolinger and Mr. Feeney together), the field researcher walked in and immediately exclaimed, "Where is my bee?"

Dr. Albright was performing service to the university by tending to the needs of visiting Laureates. In one scene, Nina pointed out that one of the Laureates seemed to be in trouble. Dr. Albright responded, "Oh, God! That's Johann."

Dr. Solomon was so jealous of Dr. Strudwick's publication that he wrote a physics book, too. Unfortunately, as a family member pointed out, the book was hundreds of years ahead of earth's knowledge. Dr. Solomon was reminded that if he became famous, talk show hosts would ask him all kinds of questions, such as "What was your childhood like?" Dr. Solomon cried out, "I didn't have a childhood!"

When Kerry hit the wrong computer keys and lost Professor Burke's research, she exclaimed, "Where did it go!"

Cory and Shawn could not persuade Mr. Feeney to give them an extension on the due date of their second paper. After making several attempts, Shawn conceded, "I am so frantic!"

Disbelief:

Dr. Solomon was quite taken aback by the defacing of his Mr. Potato Head toy. He expressed, "Oh my God, Mr. Potato Head."

Professor Burke found Rick's paper published in a 1980's journal and realizing that Rick had plagiarized, he said, "I don't believe it!"

Dr. Solomon had been invited to appear on a television talk show, but when Nina told him that the show was about Dr. Strudwick and that he was just going to be a panelist, Dr. Solomon refuted, "What?!"

Dread:

When Kerry first proposed to Professor Burke that she work with him on his research, Professor Burke responded, "Oh, no, no, no, no, no."

Professor Solomon's plan to discredit Dr. Strudwick as a parent seemed to be working. Dr. Strudwick's relationship with his daughter was becoming problematic and he showed his dismay by saying, "This is awful."

Afraid:

Erik admitted to the Dean of Admissions that he was afraid to attend a college that would test his abilities, "I was scared. I'm still scared now." The Dean saw Erik's admission as an excuse and Erik told her, "It's not an excuse. It's how I feel."

Cory's friends tried to make him understand that he was setting himself up for failure by enrolling in advanced classes his first semester of college. Cory asked a Professor, who was passing by the student lounge, what content would be covered in one of his classes. The content sounded so foreign to Cory that he said, "That wasn't scary for 2 seconds."

Emotionality Contrast Question.

The Contrast Question for Emotionality was "What is the difference between emotions expressed by professors versus students? In the above examples, students were more apt to express the emotion that they were feeling: I am still scared. I am so frantic. I don't believe this. That wasn't scary - for two seconds. Professors were more apt to

express emotions through the experience: Drag you into this. Oh, my God! What? Oh, no, no, no, no. This is awful. I am at a loss as to how Rick's paper got into this journal.

Nurturance Structured Question.

The personality variable Nurturance, helping others by showing support, was next to be analyzed. The corresponding Item on the OCI referred to people helping others: "*Lend a helping hand* could very well be the motto here." The Structured question was "What are all the areas where support is given?" An examination of the text of the three programs showed that there were four (4) major areas where support was shown: academic, love life, life issues, and work. These behaviors were portrayed in the situation comedies in the following ways:

Academic:

The first time Cory and Shawn asked for extra time to complete their assignments Mr. Feeney agreed, "Boys we've known each other for a long time. We have a long history together. If you need help, just ask for it."

Dr. Albright was awe struck by the visiting Laureates, so Nina gave her moral support, "Why don't you go talk to them?"

Erik received his letter of acceptance from college, thus Mr. Feeney congratulated him, "Good job. Well done."

Cory's advisor supported him by saying, "Well, you are not alone in feeling overwhelmed."

Mr. Feeney sympathized with Cory and Shawn's excessive homework dilemma, "Been burning the midnight oil?"

Dr. Albright said, "It's the Laureates. I promised I'd take them..."

Professor Burke's close friend, Eddy, questioned, "You still grading papers?"

Love Life:

Topanga offered advice to Dean Bolinger in her efforts to form a relationship with Mr. Feeney, "Well, maybe you've been too subtle."

Dr. Solomon's friend, Don, had just convinced him to break off his relationship with Dr. Albright before dating someone else. Don praised Dr. Solomon's decision by saying, "Now you're talking like a man."

Professor Burke did not want Kerry to feel bad after she found out that her friend, Rick, had plagiarized his paper; Professor Burke told Kerry: "Rick comes off like a really great guy."

When Mr. Feeney finally mustered enough courage to ask Dean Bolinger for a date, Erik complimented him by saying, "You are the man. You are the man."

Mr. Feeney found out that the field researcher visiting campus was Dean Bolinger's former husband and as such was competition for Dean Bolinger's affections. Erik said to Mr. Feeney, "Relax, this guys got nothing."

Dean Bolinger admitted that she was interested in Mr. Feeney and she expressed the reason she was attracted to him: "Because I never saw a teacher whose students were willing to go to such lengths to see him happy."

Life issues:

Dr. Solomon had spent days locked in his room obsessed with his computer and information on the World Wide Web. Dr. Albright, outside Dr. Solomon's bedroom door, pleaded: "Your family is so concerned they called me."

Dr. Solomon received mail from the IRS and he thought it was his refund. Dr. Albright said, "It doesn't look like a check." The mail for Dr. Solomon turned out to be a

notice of IRS audit, and Dr. Albright offered him reassurance, "Everything is going to be fine."

Work:

Professor Burke fired Kerry from her research position, but knowing that she needed extra money he offered to pay her more for taking care of the children: "About the money we can work something out."

Kerry was trying to figure out a way to tell Dr. Burke that she had lost all of his research data. Kerry said, "I'll tell him I ruined his chances at publishing" Paul suggested, "Well, I wouldn't open with that"

Kerry told Professor Burke that she had lost his research data. Professor Burke assured her that, "It's not that bad. I have back-up disks."

Nurturance Contrast Question.

The Contrast question for Nurturance was "What is the difference between students helping professionals and professionals helping students?" From the examples above, students assisted professionals in their social endeavors, especially in dating and forming close relationships with those of the opposite sex. Professionals, on the other hand, assisted students in their academic pursuits and work responsibilities.

Sexuality Structured Question.

The final personality variable to be analyzed was Sexuality, sexual interests expressed to friend or group. The corresponding Item on the OCI referred to people expressing sexual interests: "Sex (sexual interest) is not considered a forbidden topic here." From this Item, the following Structured question was "What are all the behaviors that reflect an interest in one's own or another's love life or sexual interests?" An examination of the text of the three programs showed that there were five (5) answers to

the structured question: advice (asking and giving), encouraging relationships, relating feelings, defining relationships, and comparing qualities. Examples of portrayals in these five areas follow.

Dr. Solomon became infatuated with the new professor sharing his office, Dr. Ravelli. His best friend, Don, questioned him about the new relationship and wanted to know how Mary (Dr. Albright) was handling the situation. Don asked Dr. Solomon, "So its love, huh? Was the break up with Mary hard?"

Dr. Solomon realized that he did not like Dr. Ravelli, after all, and asked Don "I fell for Jennifer just like Mary. How could it have gone away so fast?" Don told him, "It was a crush, an infatuation."

Topanga and her friends were advising Dean Bolinger on ways to make Mr. Feeney notice her. Dean Bolinger replied, "He needs to do something. Goodness knows I've been dropping hints. I hiked up my skirt at the seminar." Topanga questioned further, "Anything to be said for the old fashioned way?" Dean Bolinger's negative reply was in the form of sticking out her tongue and making a noise.

Dr. Burke's date with a super model was a disaster. Kerry said that maybe he should have gone out with her friend, instead. "Maybe you should have gone out with the botanist."

Dean Bolinger's former husband seemed to be cutting in on Mr. Feeney's relationship with her. Erik challenged Mr. Feeney, "You can't let Curtis swoop in and take your booty!"

Kerry encouraged Professor Burke to date one of her friends, "Professor, you have to meet my friend, Nancy. She's got great legs. She is great. You have got to meet her. I think you guys would hit it off. She's very pretty."

Erik is encouraging Mr. Feeney to move forward with a relationship with Dean Bolinger, "I mean here is a woman that you've got the hots for."

After Dr. Solomon broke up with Dr. Albright she related her feelings to Nina, "Oh, God I miss him!"

Professor Burke told Kerry how he felt about her friend, Nancy, "I like her!"

Dr. Solomon, in a conversation with Don about his new friendship with Dr. Ravelli, said, "I forgot what new love felt like."

Nina had accused Dr. Solomon of moving too fast in his relationship with Dr. Ravelli. Dr. Solomon told Nina, "I don't need to know her. I love her!"

Mr. Feeney responded to Erik's remark about having the 'hots' for Dean Bolinger, "Mr. Mathews, don't reduce my feelings for Dean Bolinger to having the 'hots' for her."

Professor Burke had just told Kerry that a super model asked him out. Kerry responded, "We both know this woman is out of your league."

Kerry convinced Professor Burke that the super model only asked him out so that she would be seen with a professional. At the business party, the model treated Dr. Burke as an employee, asking him to get various things (drinks, something from her car) for her. This made Professor Burke think that Kerry was right. He said to the model, "Look we both know why I'm here. You needed to make a good impression." The model rebuffed him with, "I asked you out because I was attracted to you."

Don had convinced Dr. Solomon that it wasn't right to date two women at the same time. Dr. Solomon came up with the following plan: "I've got it. I'll pick up Jennifer then I'll swing by the office and break up with Mary. But I won't kiss Jennifer until afterward."

Dr. Albright was upset when she found Dr. Solomon and Dr. Ravelli embracing each other in their office. Dr. Solomon reminded Dr. Albright that he had stopped by her office to define their relationship: "You and I agreed to see other people."

Professor Burke and Kerry were questioning each other about the qualities they were attracted to in the opposite sex. Kerry said she liked Rick because "He has this really great chin." Kerry asked Professor Burke what he liked best about women. He reluctantly replied, "Okay, legs." "Oh, a leg man," responded Kerry.

The super model abruptly ended the evening with Professor Burke when he accused her of dating him for his status. Professor Burke responded, "I just want you to know that I am a fun date and a pretty good kisser."

Mr. Feeney was trying to explain to Erik why he wasn't rushing a relationship with Dean Bolinger, "Erik, Dean Bolinger is the kind of woman – like an orchid. I'm a gardener. I know these things."

Sexuality Contrast Question.

The Contrast Question for the Personality variable sexuality was "Is there a difference in behaviors associated with sexual interests among those portraying college educators?"

Professor Burke acted on his ego in the episode featuring his character dating a super model. He chose to date the super model over Kerry's friend, who was a botanist. He referred to a date with the botanist as, "Oh, the botanist blind date, whoopee, sure missed a golden opportunity there."

Professor Solomon was quick to begin a new relationship acting on his feelings and not considering the consequences. He insinuated that being in love was all that mattered, "I forgot what new love was like."

Mr. Feeney's actions were conservative, those of a romantic, slowly allowing the love interest to develop. In discussing how he should handle the relationship he poetically stated, "Dean Bolinger is like an orchid. I am a gardener."

Dr. Bolinger acted assertively. Her behavior was forward and she had little patience for Mr. Feeney's romanticism. "He needs to do something," she said.

Other Findings

In order to analyze the high frequency of the other education classification in the Role category, a cross tabulation of the demographic categories was performed. Students (Status category) accounted for a majority (314 lines) of the other education Role in the programs "Boy Meets World" and "Two of a Kind." Professors and administrators, viewed in the university office setting, had been considered in the other education Role category. This accounted for 361 occurrences in the program "3rd Rock From the Sun" alone. However, a cross tabulation between the Message Role category and the Setting category in "3rd Rock From the Sun" showed that over 300 lines of text from the university office setting were non-education related.

Summary

The data collected and analyzed for the current study answered the research questions. The quantitative content analysis described the attributes of college instructors. The attributes were personality categories modified from prior research. Utilizing a three-tiered design, a character's behavior was identified with one of sixty-one personality variables. The personalities most prevalent in the programs studied were Abasement, Aggression, Dominance, Deliberation, Sexuality and Emotionality.

Frequencies of demographic categories answered the research question "Does the media portrayal of college instructors accurately depict this profession's roles?" The demographic categories showed that out of 1,784 lines of text only 136 lines reflected teaching, 70 advising, 28 research, and 72 service. Lines of text that referred (messages) to these major education roles showed 192 lines referring to teaching, 38 lines referring to advising, 186 lines referring to research, and 52 lines referring to service.

Results of the cross tabulations of the personality variables with the demographic categories answered the research question, "Do the attributes reflect a positive or negative image of higher education teachers. There were 99 lines of text spoken by professors that were aggressive in nature and 113 lines that were dominant in nature. Professors showed abasement tendencies 19 times. Professors analyzed people or situations (Deliberation CR and OR) 64 times. Expressions of sexual interest and emotion by professors occurred 63 and 59 times, respectively.

The qualitative content analysis provided insight into the behaviors of the characters portraying higher education roles and answered the research question "How does the media portray the interactions of college instructors with their administrators, peers, students, and others in the higher education environment?" An Ethnographic approach was applied to each of the personality variables with high frequencies and two variables with moderate frequencies, Nurturance and Deference. Structured questions revealed behaviors for each variable in relationship to its corresponding item on the OCI. For example, Abasement behaviors were related to inadequacy, and these behaviors were seen when characters apologized, admitted they were wrong, admitted that they were not good at certain things or admitted that they hurt someone else through their actions. Contrast questions were constructed to see if there was a difference in behaviors among

character, variables, or situations. Using the same variable, Abasement, as an example, characters were found to have different ways of handling their feelings of inadequacy, such as acknowledging it, talking their way out of inadequacy situations, or using rationalization as a defense mechanism.

The three programs offered numerous portrayals of behaviors related to the personality variables. Relevant scenes were selected and included in the analysis. For the Abasement variable, scenes included: (a) a professor apologized to his class for the frustration he often felt while teaching his students, (b) a professor apologized to a dean for belittling another instructor, and (c) students admitted to a college instructor that they could not handle their homework assignments, declaring that their instructors expected too much of them: "They are killing us. I mean they're killing us. They're killing us."

The content analysis provided information to answer the research questions. Chapter 5 presents an interpretation of these findings.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Students bring preconceived beliefs and attitudes to their initial college experience. These predispositions influence their communication and interaction with faculty and others in the higher education environment. In the past, students' predispositions were formed from family, school, and peer experiences. Television, a newer medium that has been shown to have an impact on viewers' beliefs and attitudes, was studied in the present research to better understand its impact on students' perceptions. College instructors' behaviors, represented in this medium, were the focus of the current, descriptive study. Chapter 4 delineated the results of coding 1,784 lines of text relating to the personalities of those in the higher education environment. Chapter 5 presents a review of the methodology employed in the current study and then provides an interpretation of the results of the content analysis that was employed to answer the research questions.

Methodology

The content analysis of three television programs featuring characters representing the higher education environment utilized both quantitative and qualitative

techniques. For the quantitative portion, a three-tiered design, adapted from the work of Stern and Associates (1970), was used to identify personality traits associated with television characters behaviors. For the qualitative portion, Spradley's (1980) ethnographic process of asking structured and contrast questions was employed. These questions were constructed from items on the Organizational Climate Index (Stern & Steinhoff, 1970).

Demographic categories were also coded. Cross tabulations of the demographic categories with the personality variables provided further information to answer the following research questions:

1. How does the media portray the interactions of college instructors with their administrators, peers, students, and others in the higher education environment?
2. Do the attributes of college instructors portrayed on television reflect a positive or negative image of higher education teachers?
3. Does the media portrayal of college instructors accurately depict this profession's roles?

Summary/Interpretation of Findings

The three programs selected for content analysis offered numerous behaviors that were categorized by personality, thus providing answers to the research questions. The interpretation of findings that follows first depicts the roles of professors represented in the three programs selected for the current study. Next, it describes the interactions of media portrayed professors with students and others in the higher education environment. Finally, it gives a picture of the image of college instructors as viewed in repeated themes

found in television situation comedies.

The analysis of the demographic Role category showed that of the 1,784 lines of text only 136 lines reflected teaching, 70 advising, 28 research and 72 service. The high frequency of the other education classification in the Role category was further analyzed through a cross tabulation with the demographic categories. Students (Status category) accounted for a majority (314 lines) of the other education Role in the programs "Boy Meets World" and "Two of a Kind." Professors and administrators (Status category), viewed in the university office setting, were also coded in the other education Role category. This accounted for 361 occurrences in the program "3rd Rock From the Sun" alone. Cross tabulations of the demographic categories revealed Message Role to have 410 lines of text coded in the other education Role category and only 53 of these lines spoken by professors were related to education. A further analysis of the 53 lines showed that most described office politics or referred to academic work in a general way, such as "I'm busy." Professional development, expert witness, grant proposal writing, and consulting were some of the roles that were not found in the current study.

Although there were only 136 lines coded for teaching, there was at least one scene from each of the three programs portraying college educators in actual classroom instruction. As for the other responsibilities of teaching, the professors representing higher education in two programs, "Two of a Kind" and "Boy Meets World," were viewed at least one time grading papers, preparing for class, assigning homework, discussing grades with students, and discussing homework with students. A professor in one scene from "3rd Rock from the Sun," was compiling students' grades for the dean.

Characters portraying professors in "Boy Meets World" offered advice to students in 18 interactions, but there were no scenes in which professors were actually conducting

research. Characters portraying professors in "Two of a Kind" and "3rd Rock from the Sun" were not viewed giving advice to students; however, they were depicted in the research process in 26 interactions. The only program that showed professors performing service for the institution or the community was "3rd Rock From the Sun," with 72 verbal communications in the area of service.

This study explored portrayals of college instructors in 15 episodes across three television programs. Verbal interactions, those that were repeated most often by those portraying professors in the current study, were aggressive, dominant, analytical, emotional, and sexually oriented. Following is an interpretation of these personality variables as found in the interactions of portrayed professors, students, administrators, and others in the higher education environment.

The aggressive verbal interactions of professors and those in the higher education environment were found in behaviors that described others negatively, used put-downs, associated people with negative qualities, called people names, threatened people, and ridiculed others. Aggressive interactions also occurred when people put their needs ahead of the needs of others, compared people to others (a form of belittling), and when they failed to confirm a person's worth. Aggression emerged between professors and students when students felt they were given too much homework or poor grades, and when professors felt that students were not living up to their expectations or had cheated. Aggression between professors occurred when one faculty member was enjoying academic success or when a 'significant other' relationship was jeopardized. Aggression was seen in situations where professors put their needs above administrator's priorities.

Dominant behaviors were associated with personal rivalries and these occurred when characters asserted their positions, commanded others, demanded from others,

ignored requests, dictated, tried to persuade, tried to control or tried to prohibit.

Professors displayed these behaviors with students when students requested more time to turn in assignments or disputed grades. Students displayed dominant behaviors toward professors when they wanted their grades changed, when they wanted more time for assignments, and when they were encouraging relationships to be formed between a professor and another professional. Rivalries between professors and their peers centered around the academic success of one professor and jealousy on the part of another, when a professor thought his or her field of study was more important than another professor's field, in situations that were territorial, and in love (and love triangle) relationships.

Dominance between professors and administrators occurred when a professor's work was jeopardized or criticized and in personal (significant other) relationships. Professors were dominant with their office staff, dictating, ordering, and demanding. Office staff members were dominant with professors, ignoring requests and controlling situations.

In the decision making process (Deliberation), characters accumulated the following facts in analyzing people or situations: details of events, if the person is credible, how the person being questioned feels about the issue, and if the issue is ethical (on the up and up). Professors displayed these behaviors in their interactions with students. Professors asked students details about potential threats to their love relationships. Professors asked students questions about other professors to determine their course of action in significant other relationships. Professors wanted to know students' abilities before allowing them to work on projects. Professors questioned students' loyalty to one another. Professors asked students to explain their involvement in campus situations. Students asked professors about the attributes of other professors. Students questioned professors on the grading system. Students questioned professors on

their teaching methods. Students asked professors personal questions to determine what kind of advice professors would need in regard to significant other relationships.

Interactions between professors included questions related to office matters and defining work relationships and questions related to home life and family relationships.

Professors asked for clarification in their personal rivalries. Administrators questioned professors about their involvement in campus related matters. Professors questioned office staff about work related matters and asked for clarification on office news.

Characters expressed emotions when they felt frustration, panic, disbelief, dread, or fear. Professors expressed these behaviors in situations where they questioned students' ethics or abilities and when students gave them gifts or offered assistance, especially in their personal love life. Students expressed these behaviors when professors handed out grades and homework assignments. Students also expressed these behaviors when college courses seemed too hard. Emotional expression was seen in interactions between professors in situations where research was jeopardized, when they were jealous of another professor's work, when they were asked to do something unethical, when they were the brunt of a practical joke, and in their personal relationships with one another, especially significant other relationships.

The behaviors that reflect an interest in one's own or another's love life or sexual interest included: advising or receiving advice in this area, encouraging relationships, relating feelings, defining relationships, and comparing qualities of the opposite sex. In professor and student interactions, students persistently tried to match professors with other professionals. Students prodded professors to make the first move in these relationships. Professors asked students for advice in their relationship endeavors. Professors and students compared the qualities of those who were competing for

affections. They also discussed what qualities they found most attractive in the opposite sex. Professors discussed their feelings with students. Sexual interest between professors was defined through flirtatious expressions, discussing past relationships, and discussing feelings. These behaviors were the same for professor/administrator relationships. Professors also sought advice and explanations about relationships from family, friends and office personnel.

In studying the media portrayed interactions of professors, various themes emerged: Professors were upset by the success of their peers. Professors were not consistent in their academic relationships with students. Professors spent considerably more time pursuing personal relationships and socializing than in academic endeavors. Students, especially those who were overwhelmed in their first year of college, criticized professors. Professors depended on students for advice in their personal (significant other) relationships.

Significance of the Study

Recent research and journal discussion reflect that television influences how elementary, middle school, and high school students view their educational experience and how they perceive their teachers. The current study is significant in that television portrayals of higher education instructors were analyzed. The current study contributes to the research on P-12 teachers in television programs, and the results of the study contribute to the findings of other researchers in their analysis of higher education professionals and the higher education environment as presented in novels, poetry, and in motion pictures.

The findings of the current study are important because they support previous media research related to education. Kaplan (1990) suggested that "television teachers do not spend much time at their real job." In the current research, professors spent considerably more time pursuing personal relationships and socializing than in academic endeavors. Swetnam (1992) concluded that major misrepresentations are present in the media portrayals of teachers. In the current research, representations of professors were not found to be accurate, worthy models for students to use in their interactions with counterparts in the real world.

The research design of the current study is a significant contribution to the literature in that it combined both qualitative and quantitative techniques to examine the manifest and latent content of television programs. Researchers are finding value in combining these techniques. Stroman and Jones (1998) wrote, "We view qualitative and quantitative analyses as complementing each other." Further, the design of the current research provided one solution to the problem of compatibility of findings, which occurs when combining quantitative and qualitative research. Both the Activity Index (Stern & Associates, 1970), which was adapted for the current study's quantitative analysis, and the Organizational Climate Index (Stern & Steinhoff, 1970), which was adapted for the current study's qualitative analysis, were based on Murray's (1938) personality categories.

Another area of significance is that the current study crossed several disciplines. The research relates to Education, Cognition, Sociology, Occupational Studies, Journalism and Culture. In so doing, the current study stimulates further research pertaining to these disciplines, most notably in the context of media effects.

Observational learning from symbolic models (Bandura, 1994) and the role television plays in the formation of viewers predispositions (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, & Signorielli, 1994) have shown television's influence in relation to repeated themes and behaviors. If, as in the current research, the repeated themes and behaviors do not accurately portray college professionals, then viewers cultivate common misconceptions. These shared beliefs are relevant to types of future funding and are critical to the amount and quality of support higher education receives from citizens, taxpayers, voters, and parents.

Central to the current research is its potential for positive interactions between college instructors and students. This study provided descriptions of television's instructor/student interactions. These interactions can be interpreted as one source that influences real-world students in their communication and behavior with instructors. This information offers college educators the opportunity to formulate actions to counter students' media fed beliefs, positively impacting their teaching, classroom environment, and relationship with students.

Limitations

The content analysis was not intended to show what college students actually perceive from viewing television; however, this descriptive study did reflect repeated themes and messages that have been presented over long periods of time and thus ones that students were highly likely to have been exposed to on a repeated basis.

The content analysis was also not designed to establish a cause-effect relationship between students viewing symbolic models of college teachers on television and students' learning and behavior. However, this descriptive study was intended to provide insight

into the roles of college teachers and their relationships with students and others as portrayed on prime-time television.

Conclusions

As early as the 1940's, college students' predispositions were shown to have an influence on students in their relationships with their professors. Newcomb (1943) established three mediums that cultivate college students' predispositions: family, school, and peers. With the advent of television, researchers have recognized this medium as one that has the potential to influence viewers and society as a whole.

Studies of television's portrayal of P-12 educators have revealed mediated misconceptions. Kaplan (1990) pointed out that television "teachers do not spend much time at their real jobs" (p. K7). Swetnam (1992) proposed that students' perceptions of appropriate communication could be influenced by media student/teacher interactions: "Communication between media teachers and students is often a give-and-take exchange that in many real classrooms would be taken for back talk" (p. 31).

Media effects theory and research, which has shown television to be a source of viewers' learning (Bandura, 1994; DeFleur, 1964; DeFleur & DeFleur, 1967) and a source in the formation of viewers' predispositions (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorielli, 1994), suggest that college students would be predisposed to interact with their instructors in ways that they had learned from television content.

The current study explored portrayals of college instructors in 15 episodes across three television programs. The quantitative analysis answered the research question, "Does the media portrayal of college instructors accurately depict this profession's roles?" In support of Kaplan's (1990) premise that television does not accurately represent the

time teachers spend on their jobs, the analysis of the demographic Role category in the current study showed that of the 1,784 lines of text only 136 lines reflected teaching, 70 advising, 28 research and 72 service.

Although there were only 136 lines coded for teaching, there was at least one scene from each of the three programs portraying college educators in actual classroom instruction. As for the other responsibilities of teaching, the professors representing higher education in two programs, "Two of a Kind" and *Boy Meets World*," were viewed at least one time grading papers, preparing for class, assigning homework, discussing grades with students, and discussing homework with students. In "3rd Rock from the Sun," one professor was compiling students' grades for the dean.

The results paralleled Duncan's (1992) study of the nursing profession, which showed that much of the work professionals perform is omitted from television programs. Much of the work performed by portrayed college instructors was omitted from the television programs in the current study. A discussion of the work real-world faculty perform is provided in the Literature Review and is recapped below for comparison to the quantitative results of the current study.

Bianco-Mathis and Chalofsky (1999) stated, "The pace and responsibilities of today's faculty member are quite expansive" (p. viii). The authors identified four areas that describe the professional world of faculty: Program, Discipline, College or University, and Society. Research is only one responsibility that corresponds to the program. Other responsibilities in this area include: coordinating teaching schedules, attending meetings, discussing students, and publishing. Teaching and advising are two responsibilities that correspond to discipline. Other responsibilities include: conferencing, belonging to at least one if not several professional associations, holding an

office or serving on committees at national or local levels. Service corresponds to the society area, and in this area, faculty are expected to model "good citizenship" to the students. The college or university expects faculty to hear presentations, review books at the library, attend sports events, and possibly utilize the gym and dine at the faculty club. In addition, faculty are responsible for all areas of academics including "curriculum, admission criteria, program completion, standards, faculty hiring, performance evaluation, promotion, tenure and student activities as related to these academic areas" (Kreiser, 1995; as cited in Carney & Long, 1999, pp. 11-12).

Faculty are responsible for numerous activities associated with the above four areas. For example, "Ideal" college teachers are identified by the following characteristics: "subject mastery, enthusiasm, flexibility, preparation and clarity, appropriateness of vocabulary, ability to motivate, rapport, fairness, and trustworthiness" (McLaughlin & Erickson, 1981, p. 393). For instruction, teachers identify the objectives of the course and develop lesson plans, create learning experiences that reinforce the instructor's goals, utilize techniques to stimulate students in the learning process (lecture, discussion, group, case studies, and others), construct a syllabus, assess student work, grade assignment, construct exams, and assess the course and their teaching (Fletcher & Patrick, 1999).

The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative results provided answers to the research question "Do the attributes of college instructors portrayed on television reflect a positive or negative image of higher education teachers?" The qualitative broad, descriptive question "Who are the characters representing the higher education environment as portrayed on television's situation comedies?" reflected both positive and negative attributes of college instructors. Proponents of the elaboration likelihood model

of persuasion might argue that potential college students would be motivated to process the positive attributes favorably (through the central routes of persuasion), which would be predicative of behavior. For example, potential college students might be motivated to watch and process scenes in which a professor demonstrated good teaching skills, and this scene would influence their behavior in a real classroom situation. However, from the perspective of social cognitive theory and cultivation theory, repeated behaviors, messages, and themes influence the viewer's learning and are factors in the formation of viewer's predispositions.

In order to study the attributes of college professionals on television in the current study, the data, 1,784 lines of text, were coded in a three-tiered design (Dimension, Factor, Personality Variable: See Appendix I) adapted from Stern and Associates' (1970) research, which extended from responses to their Activity and Environmental Indexes and were based on a taxonomy of personality variables identified by Murray (1938). This quantitative analysis provided frequencies of the personality variables and cross tabulations of personality variables with demographic categories to study the manifest content. Personality variables with the highest frequencies were further analyzed utilizing Spradley's (1980) qualitative techniques to study the latent content. In the current study's qualitative research, items on the Organizational Climate Index (Stern and Steinhoff, 1970) were converted to structured and contrast questions. Since both the Activity and Organizational Climate Indexes were modified from Murray's personality categories, compatibility of findings was ensured.

An important finding in the current study was that over 50% of the interactions in the Achievement Dimension were aggressive and dominant (Table 1). Professionals in higher education accounted for 137 of these aggressive behaviors and 138 dominant

behaviors. This finding is important because, in addition to learning through symbolic modeling, Jo and Berkowitz (1994) discussed priming effects in the context of violent media content and its influence on viewers' aggressive behavior. From their review of over three decades of research on priming effects, Jo and Berkowitz surmised, "There is both direct and indirect evidence that the observation of aggression evokes aggression-related ideas in viewers" (Jo & Berkowitz, 1994, p. 48). Further, in applying priming effect theory to the current study, a prospective college student would cognitively link emotional or other associative networks to media depictions of college instructors aggressive or dominant interactions, and under the right circumstance and for a short period of time, have tendencies to act-out similar scenes in real-life situations with their instructors. The aggressive verbal interactions of professors and those in the higher education environment were found in behaviors that described others negatively, used put-downs, associated people with negative qualities, called people names, threatened people, and ridiculed others. Aggressive interactions also occurred when people put their needs ahead of the needs of others, compared people to others (a form of belittling), and when they failed to confirm a person's worth. Dominant behaviors were associated with personal rivalries and these occurred when characters asserted their positions, commanded others, demanded from others, ignored requests, dictated, tried to persuade, tried to control or tried to prohibit.

To some extent, the current research supported the findings of Skill and Wallace (1990); viewers were offered reasonable models for the decision making process.

In the current study, the decision making process (Deliberation, Constraint and Orderliness Factors) accounted for 24.9% of the interactions in the Dependency Needs Orientation (Table 3). Eighty-one of these interactions were by characters portraying

professionals and 19 were by characters portraying students. Skill and Wallace (1990) found that television families offer viewers reasonable models of positive power strategies in their communicative behavior, including decision making. In the current study, the decision-making process was not observed in significant counts in academic interactions. However, characters accumulated the following facts in analyzing people or situations: details of events, if the person was credible, how the person being questioned felt about the issue, and if the issue was ethical.

An interesting finding in the current research was that the personality variable Abasement, meaning self-depreciation, related to students' behaviors in the majority of interactions (students 28, professors 19). Abasement accounted for 9.9% of the Dependency Needs Orientation (Table 3). Characters revealed that they felt inadequate by apologizing, admitting they were wrong, admitting they were not good at things, and admitting that they had hurt someone through their actions. Characters handled their inadequate feelings in different ways: owning up to their inadequacy, blaming outside sources, rationalizing, or talking their way out of feeling inadequate. Bandura (1994) proposed that people learn from the modeling of others and with their capacity for symbolic modeling, television viewers generalize the learned behaviors of media characters to similar situations. With sufficient exposure to Abasement interactions in the portrayed college environment, students could learn the modeled behaviors, and more importantly, could learn both positive and not so positive ways of handling their inadequacy.

The personality variable Emotionality reflects a character's expressions of frustration, panic, disbelief, dread, or fear. This variable represents 18.5% of the Emotional Expression Dimension (Table 4). Interactions in which professionals

displayed emotion occurred 63 times and interactions for students occurred 41 times. An additional point of interest in the present study was the difference between emotions expressed by professionals versus those expressed by students. Students were more apt to express the emotion that they were feeling: "I am still scared," "I am so frantic," "I don't believe this," "That wasn't scary – f or two seconds." Professionals, on the other hand, were more apt to express emotions through the experience: "Drag you into this," "Oh, my God," "What," "Oh, no! no! no! no," "This is awful."

The love interest story line was observed in each of the programs studied and must be one associated with viewer appeal. In fact, it is very likely that television Sexuality interactions will continue to be a part of the content of situation comedies that feature educators. Sexuality, the interactions that reflect an interest in one's own or another's love life or sexual interest included: advising or receiving advice in this area, encouraging relationships, relating feelings, defining relationships, and comparing qualities of the opposite sex. Seventeen percent of the Emotional Expression Dimension (Table 4) accounted for this personality variable. Professionals had twice as many interactions of Sexuality than students, 61 and 34 respectively. Fletcher and Patrick (1999), in discussing real-world teachers stated, "Personal qualities and demeanor play an important role in the teaching experience" (p. 23). Findings for this variable were particularly relevant, especially considering a study by Bryant and Rockwell (1994). These researchers found that "for young teenagers, who are one of the most vulnerable groups of family members, heavy exposure to prime-time television programming featuring sexual intimacy between unmarried persons can clearly result in altered *moral judgment*" (p. 194).

The final analysis provided further insight to answer the research question "How does the media portray the interactions of college instructors with their administrators, peers, students and others in the higher education environment?" The interactions were identified in repeated themes: (1) Professors were upset by the success of their peers. (2) Professors were not consistent in their academic relationships with students. (3) Professors spent more time socializing than in academic endeavors. (4) Professors depended on students for advice in their personal (significant-other) relationships. (5) Students, especially those overwhelmed in their first year of college, criticized professors.

The purpose of this study was to investigate and describe the media depictions of professionals in higher education. Considering the high frequencies of aggressive, dominant, emotional and sexually oriented behaviors combined with their occurrences in the repeated themes, television portrayals of professors in this study were not worthy models for students to use in their interactions with counterparts in the real world.

Recommendations

Fletcher and Patrick (1999) emphasized, "Personal qualities and demeanor play an important role in the teaching experience" (p. 23). In the current study, attributes of media portrayed college instructors were highly associated with aggressive, dominant, emotional, and sexually oriented behaviors. Interactions were repeated in themes relating to peer rivalry, students' dissatisfaction with grades and excessive homework, opposite sex attraction and overtures, and in students giving advice to professors on forming significant other relationships with other professionals. An endorsement of the above media portrayals by counterparts in the real world would have a negative effect on the student/instructor relationship, influencing student behavior, student learning, and the

classroom climate. For this reason, college educators need to be aware of the negative image that television situation comedies present and counter this image in student interactions.

This study was intended to raise the level of awareness of the higher education teaching profession. Nelson (1995) wrote that the taxpaying public view "professors as a pampered class with lifetime security [and] an aversion for teaching. They see research as unconnected to society's concerns and largely an activity that scholars do to please each other" (as cited in Arneson & Arnett, 1998, p. 44). Characters portraying professors in the current study reinforced the public's view of college faculty as described by Nelson. Portrayed professors spent little time on their real jobs. They performed few of the functions related to their work, as compared to the actual work of college faculty described in this study. Policy makers, parents, and others in a position to impact the college environment need to be made aware of the discrepancies in the actual roles and responsibilities of college educators and the media depiction of college educators' roles and responsibilities. Publishing the results of media studies in magazines that are popular with the general public is a plausible avenue for improving civic awareness.

Students bring with them certain predispositions to their college experience. Without direct experience, television portrayals of instructor/student interactions contribute to the formation of students' predispositions and influence their interactions with real-world college instructors. It follows that students should be educated about the nature of television programming. This education should expose this medium as one that reflects student/instructor interactions that may not be acceptable in the real world of academia.

Potts, Doppler, and Hernandez (1994) found that "television content, even relatively innocuous and humorous animated cartoons may represent a previously unidentified influence on childhood injury via observational learning processes" (p. 328). Therefore, students may be influenced to interact with higher education professionals in ways they had learned through observing television representations of student/instructor relationships. Storylines and themes in entertainment television that attract viewers are highly likely to be repeated across programs featuring professors. As in the current study, storylines and themes frequently present inaccuracies and misconceptions about the professor, offering unrealistic models of college teachers and their profession. Producers should resolve to counter any negative image, offering more positive, realistic models for students to use in their interactions with real-world professors as well as for the public to use in decision-making processes on higher education issues.

Since television portrayals have the potential to impact college students in their relationships with instructors, there is a need for further research on portrayals of higher education professionals in the television medium of mass communication.

The current study was purely descriptive. This limitation stimulates research efforts that attempt to correlate television portrayals with real-world counterparts. Understanding that the effect of television is mediated by intervening variables of the viewer raises possibilities of research with different levels of student populations.

Stern (1970) suggested that interactions could be analyzed in dyads, that is, identifying the personality variable of the message sender (needs) and the personality variable that corresponds to the response of the message receiver (press). Such analysis could be valuable in understanding students' reactions and subsequent behavior to verbal exchanges in the real world of higher education.

Drawing from the perspectives of social cognitive theory and cultivation theory, the current study was concerned with personality variables that were repeated and highly likely to have been viewed by potential college students. The personality variables analyzed through qualitative techniques were those that had been identified as having the highest frequencies in the quantitative analysis. The final analysis, which allowed for themes to emerge, used personality variables identified as having the highest frequencies for professionals. An in-depth qualitative study could extend this analysis to the personality variables with lower frequencies.

The three-tiered design of the current study, which was modified from the work of Stern and Associates for the identification of personalities in higher education, stimulates further modification. Possibly, researchers could extract specific dimensions, factors or sets of personality variables for use in the identification of behaviors of college educators and students presented on a wide range of television programs branching into drama or other relevant areas.

A final recommendation would be to create a research design modified from the items on the Organizational Climate Index (Stern & Steinhoff, 1970). In the current study, items from this index were used to create ethnographic structured and contrast questions related to education. However, the Organizational Climate Index applies to "the analysis of all formal administrative structures" (Stern, 1970, p. 15) presenting opportunities for researchers to compare professionals in education with professionals in a variety of fields represented in television programming.

APPENDIX I
CATEGORIES AND DEFINITIONS

CATEGORIES AND DEFINITIONS

DIMENSIONS/ FACTORS	PERSONALITY VARIABLE	BEHAVIOR DEFINITIONS
<i>Achievement Orientation</i>		
SELF-ASSERTION	Ego Achievement Dominance Exhibitionism Fantasied Achievement	Realization of influence Ascendancy Attention-seeking/groups-political Daydreams of public recognition
AUDACITY	Risk-taking Fantasied Achievement Aggression Science	Thrill-seeking Daydreams of public popularity Hostility Natural Sciences/testing theory
INTELLECTUAL INTERESTS	Reflectiveness Humanities Social Science Understanding Science	Introspective contemplation Interests in the Humanities Interests in the Social Sciences Conventional problem solving Interest in the Natural Sciences
MOTIVATION	Achievement Understanding Counteraction Energy	Striving for success through effort Know what people really think and feel Restriving after failure Effort
APPLIED INTERESTS	Practicalness Science Order	Application of skills in career Analyzing scientific data Organization of career details
<i>Dependency Needs</i>		
APPLIED INTERESTS	Practicalness Science Order	Compulsive organization in activities Natural Sciences task application Compulsive organization of details
CONSTRAINT	Placidity Deliberation Inferiority Avoidance Prudishness	Tolerating a person or situation Analyzing a person or situation Shyness Denial of interest in sexuality
DIFFIDENCE	NonNarcissism NonFantasied Ach Objectivity	Humility or humbleness Realistic thought of self as seen by Objective detachment

DIMENSIONS/ FACTORS	PERSONALITY VARIABLE	BEHAVIOR DEFINITIONS
ORDERLINESS	Conjunctivity Sameness Deliberation	Planfulness Routine Review the facts before decisions
SUBMISSIVENESS	Adaptability Abasement Nurturance Deference	Acceptance of criticism Self-depreciation Helping others by belittling self Respect authority to detriment of self
TIMIDITY	Harm Avoidance NonFantasied Ach Blame Avoidance NonScience	To evade, shrink from Fleeing the spotlight The inhibition of hostility impulses Non involvement in science issues
CLOSENESS	Supplication Sexuality Nurturance Deference	Dependency/assistance or protection Sexual interests between two people Helping to meet one's own needs Respect for authority for membership
<i>Emotional Expression</i>		
CLOSENESS	Supplication Sexuality Nurturance Deference	To evoke expression, cry for help Sexual interests expressed to friends Helping others by showing support Respect authority by showing support
SENSUOUSNESS	Sensuality Narcissism Sexuality	Interest in sensory the aesthetic Consumed with self-love Sexual expressed to significant other
FRIENDLINESS	Affiliation Play	Social orientation, greeting Pleasure seeking
EXPRESSIVENESS	Emotionality Impulsiveness Exhibitionism Sexuality	Expressing emotions in general Impetuousness Attention-seeking as flirting Sexual activity
EGOISM	Narcissism Fantasied Achievement Projectivity	Being conceited or self-centered Daydreams of power in interactions Superstition, suspicion, or paranoia

APPENDIX II
STRUCTURED AND CONTRAST QUESTIONS

STRUCTURED AND CONTRAST QUESTIONS

PERSONALITY VARIABLES	BEHAVIOR DEFINITIONS	ITEM	STRUCTURED/ CONTRAST QUESTION
Abasement	Self-depreciation	People are made to feel inadequate if they don't know the answers	What are all of the ways people reveal that they feel inadequate? Is there a difference in the ways people handle their inadequacy?
Aggression	Hostility	People often joke about or criticize others	What are all of the ways people criticize others? Are there different levels of intensity in these aggressive actions?
Deference	Respect for Authority	Almost no one here ever makes fun of the people, traditions, or policies	What are all of the ways people show respect for others and the setting? Is there a difference in the respect shown that distinguishes sincerity from patronizing actions?
Deliberation	Reflection	Quick decisions and actions are not characteristic here	What kinds of facts need to be uncovered in the analysis of people and situations? What is the difference when questions are related to personal situations vs. academic?
Dominance	Ascendancy	Personal rivalries are common in this place	What are all of the ways in which personal rivalries are expressed? What is the difference in intensity of Dominance in verbal expressions?
Emotionality	Expressiveness	The way people feel around here is always pretty evident	What are all the feelings that evoke emotional expression? What is the difference between emotions expressed by professors vs. students?
Nurturance	Helping others	"Lend a helping hand" could very well be the motto here	What are all the areas where support is given? What is the difference between students helping professionals and professionals helping students?
Sexuality	Expressing an interest in sexual relationships, love, or significant other bonds.	Sex is not considered a forbidden topic here	What are all of the behaviors that reflect an interest in one's own or another's love life or sexual interests? Is there a difference in behaviors associated with sexual interests among those portraying college educators?

APPENDIX III
CROSS TABULATIONS
ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTATION

Personality Variables and Gender
Achievement Orientation

Cross Tabulation	Total for Programs		Table IIIa
	Male	Female	Personality
Ego Achieve	36	10	46
Dominance	112	57	169
Exhibitionism	3	2	5
F. Achievement	5		5
Risk-taking	2		2
F. Achievement			
Aggression	121	57	178
Science	1		1
Reflectiveness	19	5	24
Humanities	16	5	21
Social Science			
Understanding	4	2	6
Science	30	9	39
Achievement	12	3	15
Counteraction	35	9	44
Understanding	22	5	27
Energy	10	5	15
Practicalness	55	16	71
Science	2		2
Order	23	3	26
Programs	508	188	696

Personality Variables and Status
Achievement Orientation

Cross Tabulation							Table IIIb
Total for Programs							
	Prof	Adm	Stu	Staff	Oth Ed	Other	Personality
Ego Achieve	20	8	15		2	1	46
Dominance	113	25	15	10		6	169
Exhibitionism	3		2				5
F. Achievement	5						5
Risk-taking			2				2
F. Achievement							
Aggression	99	38	18	13	1	9	178
Science	1						1
Reflectiveness	19		4			1	24
Humanities	15		6				21
Social Science							
Understanding	4	2					6
Science	29	3	6			1	39
Achievement	5	1	9				15
Counteraction	21	1	21		1		44
Understanding	10	3	12	1		1	27
Energy	6		9				15
Practicalness	49	10	7	2		3	71
Science	2						2
Order	18	1	7				26
Programs	419	92	133	26	4	22	696

Personality Variables and Setting
Achievement Orientation

Cross Tabulation						Table IIIc
Total for Programs						
	U. Cl	U. Of	U. Oth	Resid	Other	Personality
Ego Achieve	11	15	7	9	4	46
Dominance	18	86	33	27	5	169
Exhibitionism	4		1			5
F. Achievement		3		2		5
Risk-taking			2			2
F. Achievement						
Aggression	22	74	28	40	14	178
Science		1				1
Reflectiveness	6	2	3	7	6	24
Humanities	17		1		3	21
Social Science						
Understanding	3	2	1			6
Science	14		12	7	6	39
Achievement	3	6	1	3	2	15
Counteraction	5	8	7	18	6	44
Understanding	7	6	5	6	3	27
Energy	3	5	4	3		15
Practicalness	17	20	1	27	6	71
Science		2			0	2
Order	13		7	2	4	26
Programs	143	230	113	151	59	696

Personality Variables and Role
Achievement Orientation

Cross Tabulation	Total for Programs						Table III d
	Tch	Adv	Res	Serv	Oth Ed	Other	Personality
Ego Achieve	4	8		2	25	7	46
Dominance	13	11	1	9	98	37	169
Exhibitionism					4	1	5
F. Achievement	3		2		0		5
Risk-taking						2	2
F. Achievement							
Aggression	12	13	1	17	91	44	178
Science			1				1
Reflectiveness	4	1			5	14	24
Humanities	11				6	4	21
Social Science							
Understanding	3				3		6
Science	6		3	3	20	7	39
Achievement	1		1		13		15
Counteraction	1		1	1	28	13	44
Understanding	2	5			9	11	27
Energy	1				11	3	15
Practicalness	19	11	7	1	17	18	71
Science						2	2
Order	16	1			6	1	26
Programs	96	50	17	33	336	164	696

Personality Variables and Message
Achievement Orientation

Cross Tabulation							Table IIIe
Total for Programs							
	Tch	Adv	Resch	Serv	Oth Ed	Non Ed	Personality
Ego Achieve	6	3	5	2	17	13	46
Dominance	20	7	12	7	20	103	169
Exhibitionism	3			1		1	5
F. Achievement			3			2	5
Risk-taking						2	2
F. Achievement							
Aggression	18	8	12	6	31	103	178
Science			1				1
Reflectiveness	5		4		8	7	24
Humanities	11				9	1	21
Social Science							
Understanding	4				2		6
Science	13		17	2	4	3	39
Achievement	4		4		6	1	15
Counteraction	3		9		14	18	44
Understanding	7	4	3		4	9	27
Energy			5	2	5	3	15
Practicalness	17	10	19		16	9	71
Science						2	2
Order	13	1	4		6	2	26
Programs	124	33	98	20	142	279	696

APPENDIX IV
CROSS TABULATIONS
DEPENDENCY NEEDS

Personality Variables and Gender
Dependency Needs

Cross Tabulation		Table IVa	
	Total for Programs		
	Male	Female	Personality
Practicalness	14	9	23
Science			
Order	6	3	9
Placidity	21	8	29
Deliberation	48	23	71
Inferiority Av		2	2
Prudishness	2	1	3
Non-narcissism	8	4	12
Non-f. achievem	8	2	10
Objectivity	5	21	26
Conjunctivity	14	4	18
Sameness			
Deliberation	35	18	53
Adaptability	19	6	25
Abasement	30	19	49
Nurturance	3	7	10
Deference	1	1	2
Harm Avoid	14	3	17
Non-f. achievem	2	1	3
Blame avoidance	12	1	13
Non-Science	1		1
Supplication	16	11	27
Sexuality	13	5	18
Nurturance	20	16	36
Deference	33	6	39
Programs	325	171	496

Personality Variables and Status
Dependency Needs

Cross Tabulation							Table IVb
Total for Programs							
	Prof	Adm	Stu	Staff	Oth Ed	Other	Personality
Practicalness	13	1	9				23
Science							
Order	7				1	1	9
Placidity	23	1	4			1	29
Deliberation	39	9	10	2	4	7	71
Inferiority Av	2						2
Prudishness		1	2				3
Non-narcissism	7		5				12
Non-f. achievem	5	1	4				10
Objectivity	14			8		4	26
Conjunctivity	5		9			4	18
Sameness							
Deliberation	25	8	9	2	5	4	53
Adaptability	21		4				25
Abasement	19	2	28				49
Nurturance	4	3	2			1	10
Deference			1		1		2
Harm Avoid	13		4				17
Non-f. achievem	2	1					3
Blame avoidance	8		5				13
Non-Science			1				1
Supplication	14		9	2	1	1	27
Sexuality	13		1		4		18
Nurturance	20		15	1			36
Deference	2		34	1		2	39
Programs	256	27	156	16	16	25	496

Personality Variables and Setting
Dependency Needs

Cross Tabulation		Total for Programs					Table IVc
	U. Cl	U. Of	U. Oth	Resid	Other		Personality
Practicalness	5	5		9	4		23
Science							
Order		7		2			9
Placidity	4	11	5	8	1		29
Deliberation	4	28	11	21	7		71
Inferiority Av			1	1			2
Prudishness		1		2			3
Non-narcissism		4	2	4	2		12
Non-f. achievem	1	5	2	2			10
Objectivity		18	3	4	1		26
Conjunctivity		8	4	3	3		18
Sameness							
Deliberation	4	14	17	12	6		53
Adaptability	3	9		10	3		25
Abasement	6	6	7	12	18		49
Nurturance	1	5	1	2	1		10
Deference				1	1		2
Harm Avoid	2	4	4	5	2		17
Non-f. achievem	1	2					3
Blame avoidance	2	7	1	1	2		13
Non-Science		1					1
Supplication	4	15	1	5	2		27
Sexuality		1	2	3	12		18
Nurturance	3	12	6	11	4		36
Deference	6	8	13	5	7		39
Programs	46	171	80	123	76		496

Personality Variables and Role
Dependency Needs

Cross Tabulation	Total for Programs						Table IVd
	Tch	Adv	Res	Serv	Oth Ed	Other	Personality
Practicalness	4		1		14	4	23
Science							
Order	1				3	5	9
Placidity	3			5	13	8	29
Deliberation		4		2	35	30	71
Inferiority Av				1		1	2
Prudishness					3		3
Non-narcissism					8	4	12
Non-f. achievem 1					7	2	10
Objectivity					16	10	26
Conjunctivity				1	9	8	18
Sameness							
Deliberation	1	2		1	27	22	53
Adaptability	2		1	1	10	11	25
Abasement	2		1		31	15	49
Nurturance			1		4	5	10
Deference					1	1	2
Harm Avoid			2		10	5	17
Non-f. achievem 1					2		3
Blame avoidance 2					10	1	13
Non-Science					1		1
Supplication	1				21	5	27
Sexuality					2	16	18
Nurturance				2	20	14	36
Deference				1	34	4	39
Programs	18	6	6	14	281	171	496

Personality Variables and Message
Dependency Needs

Cross Tabulation		Total for Programs					Table IVe
	Tch	Adv	Res	Serv	Oth Ed	Non Ed	Personality
Practicalness	6		7		3	7	23
Science							
Order	1					8	9
Placidity	3			2	5	19	29
Deliberation	5	3	5	2	11	45	71
Inferiority Av						2	2
Prudishness						3	3
Non-narcissism			2		4	6	12
Non-f. achievem	1			1	6	2	10
Objectivity			2	2	1	21	26
Conjunctivity	2		2	1	6	7	18
Sameness							
Deliberation	4	1	4	1	17	26	53
Adaptability	3		1		1	20	25
Abasement	4		11		9	25	49
Nurturance			1		1	8	10
Deference	1					1	2
Harm Avoid	1		2	1	2	11	17
Non-f. achievem						3	3
Blame avoidance	2		1		2	8	13
Non-Science					1		1
Supplication	3		3	1	2	18	27
Sexuality					1	17	18
Nurturance	2		4		1	29	36
Deference	3		6	2	19	9	39
Programs	41	4	51	13	92	295	496

APPENDIX V
CROSS TABULATIONS
EMOTIONAL EXPRESSION

Personality Variables and Gender
Emotional Expression

Cross Tabulation	Total for Programs			Table Va
	Male	Female	Personality	
Supplication	18	14	32	
Sexuality	66	35	101	
Nurturance	39	35	74	
Deference	9	5	14	
Sensuality	7	5	12	
Narcissism	2		2	
Sexuality	14	11	25	
Affiliation	30	27	57	
Play	15	6	21	
Emotionality	69	41	110	
Impulsiveness	20	6	26	
Exhibitionism	16	17	33	
Sexuality	1		1	
Narcissism	22	9	31	
Fantasied Ach	17	6	23	
Projectivity	21	9	30	
Programs	366	226	592	

Personality Variables and Status
Emotional Expression

Cross Tabulation							Table Vb
Total for Programs							
	Prof	Adm	Stu	Staff	Oth Ed	Other	Personality
Supplication	15		12	1		4	32
Sexuality	53	8	34		1	5	101
Nurturance	38	7	10	7	2	10	74
Deference			6	1		7	14
Sensuality	10	1				1	12
Narcissism	1		1				2
Sexuality	20	5					25
Affiliation	26	9	13	2	2	5	57
Play	9		6	1	2	3	21
Emotionality	59	4	41		2	4	110
Impulsiveness	15		10			1	26
Exhibitionism	23	2	3	3	1	1	33
Sexuality	1						1
Narcissism	26	1	3			1	31
Fantasied Ach	11		10			2	23
Projectivity	15	3	11			1	30
Programs	322	40	160	15	10	45	592

Personality Variables and Setting
Emotional Expression

Cross Tabulation		Total for Programs					Table Vc
	U. Cl	U. Of	U. Oth	Resid	Other	Personality	
Supplication	3	7	3	14	5	32	
Sexuality	23	5	25	45	3	101	
Nurturance	8	22	13	17	14	74	
Deference	1	1	2	8	2	14	
Sensuality		5	1	3	3	12	
Narcissism		1			1	2	
Sexuality		8	8	4	5	25	
Affiliation	4	15	16	17	5	57	
Play		4	1	13	3	21	
Emotionality	12	34	17	29	18	110	
Impulsiveness	3	13	3	4	3	26	
Exhibitionism	3	17	1	8	4	33	
Sexuality		1				1	
Narcissism		7	10	9	5	31	
Fantasied Ach	1	13	1	8		23	
Projectivity	2	10	5	9	4	30	
Programs	60	163	106	188	75	592	

Personality Variables and Role
Emotional Expression

Cross Tabulation							Table Vd
Total for Programs							
	Tch	Adv	Res	Serv	Oth Ed	Other	Personality
Supplication				1	17	14	32
Sexuality	7				10	84	101
Nurturance	2	5		6	28	33	74
Deference					2	12	14
Sensuality		1			5	6	12
Narcissism					2		2
Sexuality					15	10	25
Affiliation				5	27	25	57
Play			1		7	13	21
Emotionality	6	5	2	5	59	33	110
Impulsiveness	3				18	5	26
Exhibitionism	2				14	17	33
Sexuality					1		1
Narcissism			2	7	13	9	31
Fantasied Ach					15	8	23
Projectivity	1	3	1		19	6	30
Programs	21	14	6	24	252	275	592

Personality Variables and Message
Emotional Expression

Cross Tabulation		Total for Programs					Table Ve
	Tch	Adv	Res	Serv	Oth Ed	Non Ed	Personality
Supplication	1		3		5	23	32
Sexuality	1		1		2	97	101
Nurturance	8	1	4	7	4	50	74
Deference			6	1	2	5	14
Sensuality						12	12
Narcissism						2	2
Sexuality					1	24	25
Affiliation				3	14	40	57
Play				1	1	19	21
Emotionality	11		12	3	9	75	110
Impulsiveness	2		2		4	18	26
Exhibitionism	2		1		3	27	33
Sexuality						1	1
Narcissism			3	3	7	18	31
Fantasied Ach			1	1	3	18	23
Projectivity	1		4		8	17	30
Programs	26	1	37	19	63	446	592

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