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SEEING IS BELIEVING, BUT IS IT THE TRUTH?

REALITY VS. REPRESENTATION OF MEN IN

CONTEMPORARY MAGAZINE ADVERTISEMENTS, 1980-2010

by

Dana Ann Lopez-Coleman

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate School
and the School of Mass Communication and Journalism
at The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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August 2016
ABSTRACT

SEEING IS BELIEVING, BUT IS IT THE TRUTH?
REALITY VS. REPRESENTATION OF MEN IN
CONTEMPORARY MAGAZINE ADVERTISEMENTS, 1980-2010

by Dana Ann Lopez-Coleman

August 2016

McQuail (1994) observed, “The entire study of mass communication is based on the premise that the media have significant effects” (p. 327). Many of these studies in mass communication have focused specifically on the various consequences that are believed to be a result of advertising. These images and perceptions can also become an individual’s reality which serves to shape society and their day-to-day environment. As Rudy, Popova, and Linz (2010) wrote, “Extensive media exposure leads audience members to adopt media reality as their own, and these altered conceptions of reality can in turn influence behavior” (p. 708). Understanding these visual representations, these perceptions, and their origins, is significant in understanding and predicting consumer behavior. By understanding and predicting consumer behavior in society, companies and advertisers can have greater success in marketing products and increasing sales.

The purpose of this study was to determine if the depictions of males in six contemporary magazines from 1980 through 2010 reflected the demographic makeup and composition of actual society regarding occupation, family roles, product usage, ethnicity and age, as documented through the U. S. Census data information. The six magazines in this study were selected based on their similarity in readership and ethnic appeal. They are: GQ, Sports Illustrated, People Ebony, Cosmopolitan, and Essence. The sample was
collected from April and September issues of each magazine for the years 1980, 1985, 1990, 1995, 2000, 2005, and 2010. These years were selected because of the significance of the societal changes relevant to those years.

Only full-page advertisements with at least one male depicted were selected. This could not be a digital image, cartoon, line drawing or photograph. The total sample population consisted of 2,699 advertisements. A quantitative analysis was used to code each advertisement. The findings in this study indicate that depictions of males in magazines are not consistent with U.S. Census data information for the population regarding occupation, family roles, product user, ethnicity, or age. More specifically, as the service population emerges as one of the leading occupation categories, it is only third in popularity in most of these magazines in depictions of males in occupation roles. Similarly, even though Census data indicates a rise in males as heading single parent homes, males are seldom, if ever, depicted in these magazine advertisements in family roles. Regarding product usage, there is no dominant product category that indicates males are consistent patrons of any one product other than clothing, although the Consumer Expenditure data form the U.S. Census (2012) data showed that finance and real estate had the highest percentages. The ethnicity category showed the same discrepancy with a gross under-representation of minority males depicted in advertisements even though the U.S. Census (2012) data shows a continuous rise in the number of minorities in the United States. Lastly, the popularity of males depicted in advertisements as 45-59 years of age overshadows all, indicating a misrepresentation of the actual population according to Census information.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

A Ph.D., and especially a dissertation – this dissertation – is a collaborative effort and is never the accomplishment of one person. There are so many people, family, and friends that I owe a great debt of gratitude to for helping me complete this process.

First I thank God for all He has given me and allowed me to do. I am truly blessed. To my professors and committee members who have hung in there with me over the long haul, especially Dr. Gene Wiggins (whom I regret passed before I completed this project) who was a constant mentor and cheerleader without whom I would have never taken on this endeavor; Dr. Fei Xue whose unending patience, encouragement, and time and effort cannot be justified with words; Dr. Chris Campbell for everything-even though at times I think you doubted my life would ever slow down enough to get here; Dr. Cheryl Jenkins for being such a great colleague; Dr. Dave Davies for your time and support; Dean Coates for your time, encouragement, and faith in me; Jeanne Stewart for your time; and Dr. Vanessa Murphree for “filling in” for me.

I must take a moment to acknowledge Dr. Kim LeDuff, former USM Professor, counselor, friend, colleague, mentor . . . and this list could continue forever. Thank you for your friendship, your guidance, your encouragement, your understanding, your patience, your faith and for always being the answer before I even knew I had a question. This most assuredly would have never happened without you.

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daughter dance and loving me unconditionally. You taught me about love, respect and accomplishment, and what it was like to have a real dad. You taught me to want better and to do better and that I could. Your never-ending love and support has meant more to me and helped me accomplished more than you will ever know. To all of my friends who stood by me and supported me, especially Sharon Mato – there was never a time you haven’t been there; Lynne and Jerry Evans for always pushing me, listening to me and being there for me; Trisha Cone for keeping me going; Kristi Ferrante for being there to listen; Tina Tanner and Jennifer Patel for constantly encouraging me. To Dan Rodenberg who was encouraging and good while my mother loved you. Allison Sullivan, I can’t thank you enough for the countless hours in the libraries all over the south copying ads and the typing and reference marathon. To Amber and Dawton Goff for your patience and endless hours of your dad’s time. To Brenard Goff, the man who got me back on track to finish this; whose tireless efforts and endless hours of help without which this would not have been possible. Thank you for restoring my faith and for your generosity, your time and your love. To my eldest son Casey Coleman, and my daughter-in-law, Jessie Hartfield Coleman, who kept me grounded and whose hours of assistance, encouragement and help was a huge part of this. You have given more to me than you will ever know and I love you for it. To Kyle Coleman – my twin – without you standing beside me I never would have been able to come this far. Your constant love and encouragement means more than words can say. There are no words that can ever convey what my heart feels and how thankful I am for you. To my daughter Connor Coleman who gives me strength and who makes me want to be better. Thank you Peanut for all that you have brought to my life. You have been my inspiration and persistence. And last,
but most certainly not least, to my mother Dawn who has always been my hero. What she
gave goes beyond life itself and there is not enough time or words that can ever do her
memory justice. You were the wind beneath my wings, the constant voice of
encouragement, the depiction of grace and faith and there is nothing I have accomplished
in my life that isn’t because of your strength and support. My biggest regret is you did not
get the chance to read the finished product. I love you all more than any words can ever
say! “We got’r done!”

“Good bye may seem forever. Farewell is like the end, but in my heart is the
memory and there you will always be.”  - (Rich & Patch, 1981).
DEDICATION

I am blessed to have had a great family support system, and there are so many times when I needed it. I was taught to believe in the miracle of God and all that he can do, and I realize first and foremost, nothing is possible without Him and so I am forever blessed in all He has brought me through, and to.

No one ever walks alone, and I am forever humbled and thankful for all of those who have taken part in my journey. However, I have the honor of having six people throughout my life who have made such an impact that I am who I am because of them, and this final project is dedicated to all of their love, support encouragement and never-ending inspiration.

First, to Don Makofsky for whom words could never convey what an impact you have had on my life. You took in a little girl and were the dad you never had to be. I struggle to find the words that can completely sum all that you mean to me, so I will just say, I love you Poppa! Thank you for making such a difference in my life.

Second, to Brenard Goff – much like God’s carpenter, you picked up the pieces and helped put my life not only back together – but brought back all of the good and strength and hope and faith that I forgot I had. You are just good and I love you so very much for your friendship and encouragement, and because I love the way you love me. I can’t wait to spend the rest of my life showing you how very much you mean to me.

Third, fourth and fifth are the three most amazing people I have ever known – Casey, Kyle and Connor Coleman – my three absolutely wonderful children. To you Casey, I am forever thankful for being my strength in so many dark hours. You have been my shoulder and my courage and you have brought peace and stability into a world that
seemed wrapped up in a thunderstorm. I love you so very much and you will always be my “Lil’ Man!” I am so happy for you and Jessie as you start your new life together.

To you, Kyle Coleman, who is the male version of me. Thank you for keeping me grounded and being painfully honest. You have made me laugh when I wanted to cry, continue when I wanted to stop, and hold my head high when it felt like I was knocked so far down I would never get up. Thank you for always holding me accountable and always being an infectious constant ray of sunshine! I will always be your best friend and you, my “Coppertop,” will always have a very special place in my heart.

To you, Connor, the incarnation of my mother – you have MawMaw’s strength and goodness. You have always demonstrated her honesty and like her, you have given me so many wonderful memories. You made me want to be better and taught me I deserve better. You are the daughter I always wanted and could not be more proud to have. I cannot wait to continue our journey together. You will be a great mother and I can’t wait to meet Elizabeth Dawn.

And last, but most assuredly not least, this is dedicated to my mother – Dawn Theresa Landwehr Lopez Rodenberg - the most amazing and wonderful human being ever to grace the world. There are no words that could ever convey the true spirit of my mother – a single mom who overcame so much to give her children a wonderful life. You are the reason I have such incredible children. You are the reason I have accomplished everything – big or small in my life. You are the reason Brenard and I have such a magical relationship! You left way too soon – short of seeing Kyle and Connor graduate high school, short of seeing Kyle fulfill his baseball career, short of Casey’s wedding, short of seeing them graduate high school and college and become all that you believed
they could be, short of Peanut’s walk down the aisle, short of your great-grandchildren and meeting Elizabeth Dawn, and short of seeing me finally happy.

I know you watch over us and are forever present. There is not a day or a moment that passes that I don’t wish for just one more day with you! So this, my dear angel who got her wings November 19, 2014, is for you. I finally finished it. And, I will cross the stage on your birthday and proudly take my diploma that you waited so long for me to get. I could have never done this without you and I miss you more than can be expressed. But I thank you – for all that you were in your unique and special way – for all that you gave – for all that you did – and for all that you made me. I love you so very much Mom…this is truly for you! I constantly think of what you may say….advice you may give…how can I be the amazing mother you were….how can I make my children feel as loved as you always made me feel…there is so much of you I want to make sure is remembered and carries on. I remember you always saying to “Move On…do the best you can and then you just have to move on!” And I finally am, thanks to all that you have passed on to me.

I cannot sum up all that you have been, or meant, or given to me and my life (not to mention the wonderful opportunity for my three wonderful children), I finally made it Mama – and I owe so much of it to you and my children. Thank you. I love you.

“Goodbyes are only for those who love with their eyes. Because for those who love with heart and soul there is no such thing as separation…” (Rumi, n.d.)

Every time I hear the words to this song, Mom, I am reminded of all you taught me and all you hoped for me to be. Remembering you always….
And to my children…

*Hold the door, say ‘please’, say ‘thank-you’, Don’t steal, don’t cheat and don’t lie, I know you got mountains to climb, But always stay humble and kind. When the dreams your dreamin’ come to you, When the work you put in is realized, Let yourself feel the pride, but always stay humble and kind. Don’t take for granted the love this life gives you, When you get where you’re goin’ don’t forget turn back around and help the next one in line…*

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CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION

McQuail (1994) observed “the entire study of mass communication is based on the premise that the media have significant effects” (p. 327). Many of these studies in mass communication have focused specifically on the various consequences that are believed to be a result of advertising. These images and perceptions can also become an individual’s reality which serves to shape society and their day-to-day environment. As Rudy et al. (2010), wrote, “extensive media exposure leads audience members to adopt media reality as their own, and these altered conceptions of reality can in turn influence behavior” (p. 708). Understanding these visual representations, these perceptions, and their origins, is significant in understanding and predicting consumer behavior. By understanding and predicting consumer behavior in society, companies and advertisers can have greater success in marketing products and increasing sales.

Reality is the perception that each individual has, and this perception is formed based on individual consumption; what one sees, hears, experiences, etc. Much of this consumption originates in the media. The media projects a reality constructed partially by advertising which becomes a perception that often guides or influences the human decision-making process. McQuail (1994) points out that “by framing images of reality . . . in a predictable and patterned way,” the media construct reality (p. 331). In other words, reality is perception—and much of “perception” and its influence is created through the media. This influence is a fundamental reason for understanding the origins and depictions of these “perceptions.”
Purpose of this Study

The goal of this dissertation is to study images of males in advertisements from 1980 through 2010 in six popular magazines to better understand the perceptions communicated by advertisers through the media, relative to males and how it compares to census data. Male stereotypes were specifically and intentionally selected because there was such an imbalance in the number of studies conducted on male stereotypes as compared to women. Rudy et al. (2010) noted that a review of Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, only 3% focused entirely on men (3 out of 114 content analysis). According to Wolin (2003), “most of the research has focused exclusively on female roles, female target groups, and the role of attitudes toward women in determining ad effectiveness” (p. 111).

Specifically, this study seeks to identify and compare cultural changes in male demographics in society with male depictions in magazine advertisements. This research is designed to analyze magazine advertisements to determine if advertising depictions accurately represent the culture, or the changes in the culture, with regards to the depiction of males and their roles in American society. Designed to add an additional dynamic to the existing body of research in media studies, this study particularly looks at images of men in advertisements in the women’s fashion magazines Essence and Cosmopolitan; men’s magazines GQ and Sports Illustrated; and the general interest magazines Ebony and People for the years 1980 to 2010. The overall purpose of this dissertation is to analyze images using a quantitative content analysis of males in magazine advertisements to identify the stereotypes perpetuated in advertising and to compare the existence of these stereotypes with real data that represents actual male
presence in American society. It seeks not to justify an effect of advertising, but to identify if these depictions of males in certain magazine advertisements mirror the presence of males in society of that same time period.

There are several levels on which this information is pertinent, but the level that has served as some of the founding interest is the significance this holds in the relationships between consumers and corporations. Are these images acceptable? Are these images consequential? Do these images sell? Corporations rely on image and building relationships with their consumers to maintain a profitable level of success. It is necessary to understand if the images are effective and how effective they are.

Fortunately, public relations has earned its place as a major component in forging these images and relationships. In practicing public relations, a professional employs many media components including journalism and print media, broadcast media and various forms of advertisements. Advertising as a means to establishing images and building these relationships has become a leading financial expenditure in public relations campaigns, and therefore deserves to be researched and understood in order to be effectively utilized.

*Studying Male Stereotypes*

Although comparatively limited, the study of male stereotypes is of equal importance when compared to female stereotypes, even though the volume of research is not reflective of this equality. Debevec and Iyer (1986) concluded that purchase interest could be better evaluated if male stereotypes could be broken for advertisements of products that are typically classified as “female.” Additionally, expectations regarding gender roles and identity can also be used to predict advertising strategies and how
effective they could be (Putrevu, 2004). However, since there is such little information on male stereotypes, there is a limitation of what can be predicted regarding male purchasing patterns.

Frith and Mueller (2010) also agree as to the importance of studying gender stereotypes by noting advertising reflects the roles in society; while Holden (2004) claims advertising creates roles; and Pollay (1986) says advertising teaches social values and roles. Therefore, it is important to expand the research on male stereotypes to use these depictions or stereotypes as accurately and effectively as possible. Tsai and Shumow (2011) point out that “understanding how men are represented in advertising is imperative for understanding how marketers conceptualize contemporary gender roles and family dynamics, and how these representations impact male viewers’ understanding of gender roles in the family” (p. 39).

Significant changes in demographics and the basic composition of American society serves as the initial starting point for this research. Coupled with these changes is the fact that there is a booming media culture that grows as rapidly as technology and is a predominant component of public relations campaigns. Yet, in its vast and wondrous growth, is it truly in touch with society, or has it merely surpassed what reality is and begun to create a new perception— one that inaccurately portrays the reality, but becomes the reality as consumers know it? This created reality— be it accurate or flawed— holds consequences to a society that is unaware of the creative manipulation of advertising. The ramifications of such are far-reaching and important to understand.

Is there an identifiable difference between the portrayed perception of the American reality, and the reality that can be measured by census and statistical
information? Is there a difference between the portrayed American lifestyle, and that lifestyle which can be documented through real data? If such differences do exist, then are these advertisements creating a culture that, in reality, can never be obtained? And if a discrepancy is found between the portrayed and the reality, what can be the next step in closing the gap or identifying the consequence? How do public relations practitioners navigate this discrepancy in employing advertising in campaigns? What social responsibility exists for corporations or public relations practitioners in the continued fostering of these images? Therefore, this research begins and ends as the initial step in answering the question of “how accurate is the portrayal?” And in an effort to gain specific and concise data, this research looked at how males (specifically) are portrayed in magazine advertisements during a period of time that experienced significant economic change.

These changes have brought about a change in the typical roles in society that were once seen as gender and/or ethnically specific. Understanding these differing roles is significant because they have an effect on establishing relationships and can often dictate consumer purchasing patterns. As these patterns change, the target of various products and their messages should also change to reflect a relevance to the real roles enacted throughout society. This study will identify some of those roles and compare depictions of male characters to general Census data regarding occupation, family roles, ethnicity, and age, for the years 1980 through 2010. Aside from analyzing male images for a comparison to reality, this study also looked at depictions of males in various product categories and made a comparison between these depictions of males in
advertisements in various product categories as compared to consumer expenditure information.
CHAPTER II – LITERATURE REVIEW

The Starting Point

The initial stages of this dissertation process consisted of an evaluation of various existing literature in the field of mass communication. A resounding issue that continuously surfaced was the changing demographics of the United States. Cano and Ortinau (2010) identify “one consumer marketplace phenomenon that is having a dramatic impact on the United States is the change of market segments from Caucasian-dominated ethnic minority populations and their increasing purchase power” (p. 322). Based on various demographic changes such as an influx in immigrants and the rapid growth of the minority population, along with a change in marital status and household makeup of the American citizenry, more research was conducted to identify if these changes were identified and reflected in the mass media.

Changes in Society

Ueltschy (2002) believes that the United States has experienced a changing trend into a multicultural society full of subcultures which scholars have seen noticeable changes in since the 1970s. According to U.S. Census Bureau (2005) data, there were significant changes in the demographic makeup of the American population beginning in the 1970 and 1980s. The 65 and older population has continuously trended upward showing the highest percentage increase in the population in the twentieth century from 1980 to 1990 with a 5.7% increase (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005, p. 59), and a 15.1% increase in the population from 2000 to 2010, noting its highest level ever (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). Census data also shows a decline in the ratio of males to females until an apparent increase in the number of males to females from 1980 to the year 2000 (U.S.
Census Bureau, 2005, p. 62), and a faster rate of growth in the male population than that of the female population from 2000 to 2010 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

The ethnicity of the population from the 1980s to the year 2010 also became more diversified. During this period, the Hispanic population more than doubled with an increase in the Hispanic population accounting for more than half of the growth in the United States between 2000 to 2010 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). The Asian population also grew significantly increasing by 112% from 1980 to 1990 and 46.4% from 1990 to 2000, and continued to increase from 200 to 2010 by 43% (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). The American Indian, Eskimo and Aleut population also registered a significant increase with a 42.1% increase from 1980 to 1990, a 26.4% increase from 1990 to 2000, and a 26.7% increase in population from 2000 to 2010 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

Two other changes in the population makeup include first, an increase in the percentage of women age 16 and over in the labor force, but a decrease in the percentage of men of the same age (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). And second, a change of notable interest is of all of the increases in households, male households had the highest percent increase from 1980 – 2010 than any other (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

Media Framing and Socially Constructed Reality

Regardless of the various changes in American society, this century exists in what is known as a mediated effects era. Both the media and culture play an important role. Aalberg and Jensen (2007) claim that the media is “deeply implicated in the process of defining and framing gender” (p. 126). Popular culture has had a great presence in this mediated effects era. It has increasingly become a “visual culture” in which images in
both television and advertising have had a significant influence on print media (such as magazines and newspapers), becoming what some have called art (Fowles, 1996). Schudson (1986), and Vigorito and Curry (1998) are in agreement by writing that, “studying that art (images in the media) has obvious social value, because advertising is a fundamental aspect of the material culture of capitalism” (p. 136). In effect, Solomon and Greenberg (1993) point out that an advertisement that is carefully constructed can communicate both a powerful and persuasive image. These images are of even greater important since the cognitive process, according to Bovee and Arens (1986), begins with the visual image—“most readers of advertisements (1) look at the illustration, (2) read the headline, and (3) read the body copy, in that order” (p. 47).

Advertisements create perceptions of cultures which often become “reality” to society. These advertisements can be defined through what Berger and Luckmann (1966) call a reality that is socially constructed throughout the media which has become a venue that society is constantly exposed to and therefore serves a significant role. This socially constructed reality defines gender-role expectations and exhibits stereotypes through various public outlets including the media. These roles and stereotypes sometimes function as socialization tools in society, as well as a symbol of norms within a culture (Kang, 1997). They often define culture. As a result, there has been much attention garnered on advertising and the consequences in our society (Pollay, 1986). In this era of media influence, researchers have recently begun to realize how important the visual nature of advertising, and the analysis of this advertising is (Scott, 1994). Allen (1992) even believes that “all values are socially constructed rather than innate” (p. 252). Solomon and Greenburg (1993) define the intentionality of the production of
advertisements by saying “advertising is not created in a casual or random fashion. Meticulous attention is paid …to the execution of television commercials and print ads” (p. 11). Evidence seems to support that throughout these ads, the media influences society by providing information, by creating and/or shaping perceptions and thereby affecting attitudes, behaviors, and consumptions.

**Preliminary Theories**

The body of research on gender and/or stereotypical portrayals in advertising has been conducted from varying theoretical approaches. Some of these theoretical foundations strike only on the surface whereas others can be employed more holistically. The first, *Symbolic Interaction* theory, suggests the media helps create and maintain identities throughout society. Individuals act toward reality on the basis of the meaning they give to it, meanings which are constantly modified in social interaction (Blumer, 1969). Another theory known as *Social Learning* theory, championed by Bandura (1961), emphasizes how individuals tend to observe and model the behaviors, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others. Tan added to Bandura’s research and conducted several studies and found that social learning theory can be used to explain how individuals learn from experience and learn by “observing and modeling individuals and events we see in the mass media” (Heath & Bryant, 2000, p. 351).

Various aspects of these two theories are combined as an initial foundation for this research. It is agreed that individuals learn from modeling others. The perceptions they form and the information they learn from are based on how the media selectively portray attitudes and beliefs in our society through advertisements. These portrayals are cultivated into a viewers’ perception of reality. Combining some aspect of each of these
Theories, it can be established that the stereotypical portrayals of males in advertising does have an effect on perceived roles or the perceived reality of the male gender role in society. Not only do these portrayals become a representative image of reality, but they cultivate the perception of these roles as reality in U.S. culture.

Advertising has such a dominant effect on individuals, it is equally important to understand how these portrayals, perceptions and representations of reality influence and affect audiences. Goldschmidt (1950) identified four emerging themes while interviewing participants about the effects specific male advertisements have on them. These four themes were authenticity; accessibility; masculinity; and tolerance (Goldschmidt, 1950). Authenticity referred to how authentic the ad was perceived based on if the product was showed in a usable context it was meant for and if the portrayal of the male in the ad was representative of a specific group or seen as an everyday male (Goldschmidt, 1950). Accessibility-representation of ideals the interviewees believed can be achieved-was based on the situation the male image was portrayed in the ad and if the interviewee believed it was attainable (Goldschmidt, 1950). The third and fourth themes both dealt with the portrayal of masculinity and whether or not the interviewee saw the ad as believable depending on their opinion of the character (Goldschmidt, 1950). What Goldschmidt (1950) found was:

The participants tended to be swayed by ads that used stereotypical displays. They have a clear image of masculinity and femininity that allows them to classify men and women according to several categories. However, each portrayal, which deviates from traditional gender role images, results in confusion and dislike. (p. 80)
These results reinforce that typical gender stereotypes are preferred and relatable as opposed to any portrayal that deviates from a typical stereotype which is seen negatively (Goldschmidt, 1950). Understanding what makes an ad effective is the key to creating advertisements that work. Therefore it is of great importance to understand the relationship between consumer choice and purchase and stereotypical images.

For this reason, the study of male stereotype roles in advertising is significant. Although the above-mentioned theories have contributed to previous similar research, most of this study’s validity comes from a focus on framing theory and the result of “framing” in the magazine advertisements analyzed.

Theoretical Foundation

The “framing” concept originated from “Agenda-Setting” theory, also identified as the Agenda-Setting Function of the Mass Media. McCombs and Shaw (1972) first introduced Agenda-Setting by suggesting that although the media does not tell the public what to think, they do tell the public what to think about. In their 1972 Abstract they explain:

In choosing and displaying news, editors, newsroom staff, and broadcasters play an important part in shaping political reality. Readers learn not only about a given issue, but also how much importance to attach to that issue from the amount of information in a news story and its position. In reflecting what candidates are saying during a campaign, the mass media may well determine the important issues—that is, the media may set the “agenda” of the campaign. (Abstract)

McCombs (1999) points out that “the power of the news media to set a nation’s agenda, to focus public attention on a few key public issues, is an immense and well-
documented influence” (p. 1). McCombs, however, credits Walter Lippmann for the original idea through Lippmann’s (1922) book *Public Opinion* where he identifies the news media as a primary source of how individuals see the world at large where what the public knows about the world in which they live comes mostly from what the media has told them or portrayed to them about it. This sets the agenda for what issues individuals see as salient and basically how they see them.

Goffman (1974) expanded on Agenda-Setting theory in what most elude to as a type of second-level agenda setting that is referred to as “Framing Theory.” Goffman (1974) referred to his work as “Frame Analysis.” As agenda setting referred to telling society what to think about, framing (or second-level agenda setting) used frames to dictate how to think about these issues. It can be described as how a media source constructs the presentation of information. According to Goffman (1974), there are natural frameworks that cause individuals to seen occurrence in its literal terms while social frameworks are created by these natural frames combined with those frames that are created by intentions of other people. Both of these frames have influence over interpretation, processing and communication of information (Goffman, 1974).

Goffman (1972) posited that individuals use frames daily, even if they are not aware of it. Fairhurst and Sarr (1996) claim that there are many framing techniques, such as:

- Metaphor – a conceptual idea is framed through comparison to another;
- Myths, legends – a narrative is used to frame an idea in a memorable way;
- Rituals, ceremonies - a cultural mores that gives significance to something and is usually tied to some artifact;
• Slogans, catchphrases – a catchy phrase used to make an idea more memorable or easy to relate to;

• Artifact – An object that has symbolic value with more meaning than the object has itself;

• Contrast - An object is described by describing what it is not;

• Spin – Present something in such a way that bias is created.

Goffman (1974) introduced framing as a way to explain an audience’s reception of messages through framing their realities within the realm of their media experiences. Coltrane and Messineo (2000) point out that framing theory is also used to explain how “television imagery influences people” (p. 363). Entman (1993) also used framing as a theoretical basis to study judgment influences. Entman (1993) posited that framing is used as a means of highlighting or interpreting by applying certain parts of a perception of reality.

There are several ways to study advertisements and their role in society. This study looks at how images of males are framed within advertisements in specific magazines. It is generally accepted that framing theory is structured on the notion that the media “frame” reality (Bennet, 1993; Edelman, 1993; Entman, 1993; Iyengar, 1987, 1991; Pan & Kosicki, 1993; Price, Tewksbury, & Powers, 1997; Snow & Bedford, 1988, 1992; Tuchman, 1978). McCombs (1997) sees framing as a second-level agenda setting in that it “is the selection of a restricted number of thematically related attributes for inclusion on the media agenda when a particular object is discussed” (p. 6). With regards to mass media, it can be said that information can be presented (framed) in a variety of ways; each creates a different perception. Goffman (1974) concluded that “the type of
framework we employ provides a way of describing the event to which it is applied” (p. 24).

Goffman (1979) conducted a cenalysis of images in print advertisements and found that through careful selection of models, poses and advertisements, a “pseudo-reality that is better than real” is created (p. 23). Goffman was one of the first researchers to identify and elaborate on this framing of images. However, several researchers have followed Goffman in studying framing in the media. Goffman (1974) defined framing as “the principles of organization which govern events—at least social ones—and our involvement in them” (pp. 11-12).

The concept behind framing theory and this framing of reality is that a certain belief, attitude, characteristic, etc. is presented in such a way that it “frames” the presentation to obtain a desired perception or imagery. Nelson, Clawson, and Oxley (1997) concluded “Frames influence opinions by stressing specific values, facts, and other considerations, endowing them with greater apparent relevance to the issue than they might appear to have under an alternative frame” (p. 569). According to Coltrane and Messineo (2000), although it is not believed that society directly mimics what is shown, it is believed that the imagery does “facilitate specific forms of understanding, interpretation and experience,” (p.363). Heider (1930) and Goffman (1974) both agree that human beings do not fully understand the world in which they live, and individuals, therefore, must use sensory information to make inferences and classify and characterize relationships and experiences in order to gain a better understanding of their world. Individual reactions are based on what Goffman (1974) refers to as “primary frameworks” (p. 24). Goffman (1974) even goes as far as to identify two classifications
of frames; natural frames deal with events that happen naturally or that are caused unintentionally; societal frames serve “to locate, perceive, identify and label” (p. 21) events that result from human action. This framing of behaviors or beliefs can serve to structure social meaning. Fischer and Johnson (1986) identify frames as a method individual’s use to process information received. Sherif (1967) studied frames of reference and concluded framing does have an influence on perception, and “situations [can be set up] in which appraisal or evaluation of a social situation will be reflected in the perceptions and judgments of the individual” (p. 382).

By using framing in advertising, gender roles in society are defined or exhibited through those perceptions learned throughout the media. Collins (1991) points out that images frame what appears to be a natural social order with regards to gender and ethnicity, and are substantive even when conditions are in opposition to those within the frame. Milkie (2002) observed that “feminist scholars argue that the media’s narrowly framed images have powerful effects, creating an uneasy gap for millions of girls and women between an idealized image and the reality of their own appearance” (p. 841). Simmons and Blyth (1987) cite unrealistic media images as a factor in low-self-esteem among adolescents who compare themselves to the female ideal. McCarthy (1990), Ross (1994), and Turner, Hamilton, Angood, and Dwyer (1997) also concur that unrealistic media images are a factor in high rates of dissatisfaction with body, depression, and even eating disorders among girls and women. In discussing advertising in the media, Kahan (1992) explains that there is now a new visual century where media rely on visuals to communicate in the cluttered, global media world. Warlaumont (1993) posits images of models or spokespersons operate as symbols in a visual language that creates meanings
understood by members of a culture. Nelson and Paek (2005) concluded “such images conform to recognized patterns to construct and reinforce a reality that can be understood quickly by viewers” (p. 372). This study seeks to decipher what the images/symbols are as a prelude to future research that may determine what it is this “language” is saying. This study looks at these images with respect to the depiction of male images.

**Gender and Advertising**

Chi and Baldwin (2004) define advertising as “a mirror of the times is a social guide to our society” (p. 157). The depiction of individuals in advertising can serve as a window into the perceived culture. Since the late-1950s, there has been a growth in technological advancements, mass media and the American population. Each of these combine to create a society that is constantly exposed to media messages from a variety of media. Some of the most effective of these messages are found in advertisements. Lazier and Kendrick (1993) criticize advertising and argue that “advertising is its own force, an institution turned entity…from which we learn and by which we are influenced” (p. 3). It can be seen as the self-portrayal of American culture. It is how Americans identify themselves and identify their places within the culture.

The media industry has become an entertainment industry and an industry that has served to influence society on a daily basis. It is media congruence that makes the media such a powerful influence (Noelle-Neumann, as cited in Severin & Tankard, 1992). Aubrey and Harrison (2004) go as far as to say the media is such a large influence on the younger generation that when gender messages are inconsistent, they will identify with the stereotype more often than with the non-stereotypical character. Because there is such a large amount of time devoted to the consumption of media, it is extremely significant
that there be an understanding of the images that are being sold and the type of culture that is being created. Theory and research have both supported, to some consistent degree, that human beings, according to Milburn, Carney, and Ramirez (2001) “use media images to form cognitive schemas, and that these schemas can then have an effect on perceptions of ability and performance” (p. 277). Stereotyping in advertisements, according to Lafky, Duffy, Steinmaus, and Berkowitz (1996) “influences the ways individuals socially construct reality and produce (and reproduce) gender traits” (p. 380). Lafky et al. (1996) and Espinosa (2010) also concur by stating “stereotypical gender roles can guide and shape behavior by affecting the audience’s perception of social reality” (p. 6).

Advertising has incorporated the successful and significant use of visuals that serve as symbols and nonverbal communication. These visuals incorporate society’s beliefs, values, ideas and behavior systems in such a way that individuals identify with them and relate personal “meanings” with them accordingly. These meanings are conveyed and become yet another point of perception for judgments made in day-to-day living. Milburn et al. (2001) points out that “since the beginning of cave dweller’s images, it has been human nature to create representations of the self, and to draw meaning from images and pictures they either create or view” (p. 277). How meaning is drawn from these images is often debated. There are several perspectives about the role of advertising. One perspective exerts that advertising mirrors existing values and traits within a culture. Sinclair (1987) describes a system through advertising, “cultural form through signifying practices” is given to the abstract, which individuals classify as ideas, values and beliefs (p. 1). Schudson (1984) does not entertain the idea of mirroring, he
simply says that advertising, by nature of its promotional culture, has garnered itself into “what we read, what we care about, the ways we raise our children, our ideas of right and wrong conduct, our attribution of significance to ‘image’ in both public and private life” (p.13). This is frequently referred to as molding. These two concepts remain prevalent when discussing advertising. Standing debates continue between defenders of advertising who say that advertising is a reflection of patterns (e.g., Brown, 1981; Peterson, 1975) and only serves to mirror what already exists or reflect what we know life to be (e.g., Kuhns, 1970; Williamson, 1978), and those critics who maintain that advertising serves to mold or shape the way we live our lives (e.g., Berger et al., 1972; Peterson, 1983).

Knoll, Eisend, and Steinhagen (2011) subscribe to an additional belief that those gender stereotypes associated with models in visuals act as a heuristic cue. In this thought-process gender stereotypes can be considered “pre-emptive.” The stereotypical visual “pre-empts” a biased or thought process almost as a cue to how an individual should perceive the image. This ongoing debate on the role of advertising has instigated a great deal of research. Within this body of research, gender has remained a focal point. Barker (1999) argued that stereotypes reduce people to exaggerated characteristics and traits but inevitably corrects individual differences. Eisend (2010) and Tsichla and Zotos (2013a, 2013b) believe stereotypes oversimplify expectations and limit opportunities of certain social categories. Despite which role is ascribed to advertising - in the simplest of terms - gender stereotypes are attributes differentiating men from women, as Ashmore and Del Boca (1981) claim.

In communicating about “gender,” it is important to identify the difference between “sex” and “gender.” Sex is a concept of biological significance. Basow (1992)
identifies “sex is a biological term” (p. 2). Basow (1992) adds that “it is indicative of the biological difference that separates and characterizes individuals as male or female” (Bollinger, 2008, p. 46). Bollinger (2008) identifies gender, on the other hand, as “a term defined by society and its cultural norms” (p. 46). West and Zimmerman (1987) explain gender as the context people are observed in. It is the way people interact with each other with regards to what is and is not socially acceptable for a particular sex. Wolin (2003) even contends that customers so readily understand gender divisions that gender can also be used as a basis for a strategy for segmentation.

Since 1960, gender has become an issue of increasing interest among researchers (Eisend, 2010). Schroeder and Borgerson (1998) claim “as a powerful cultural institution, advertising defines and shapes social identity, particularly gender identity” (p. 197). Men and women have been analyzed in print advertisements (e.g. Bollinger, 2008; Elliott & Elliott, 2005; Robertson & Davidson, 2013; Zotos & Tsichla, 2014), radio advertisements (e.g. Furnham & Schofield, 1986; Furnham & Thomson, 1999; Monk-Turner et al. cited in Eisend, 2010, p. 426) and television (e.g., Gilly, 1988; Knoll & Eisend, 2011; McArthur & Resko, 1975). These studies have consistently concluded that advertisers still utilize stereotype images of men and women even though there is an identifiable change in the gender roles in society. “Advertising,” notes Stern (2003), “serves as the primary lexicon of gender images, responsible for the wide dissemination of currently masculine and feminine imagery” (p. 216). Therefore, according to Browne (1998), the gender role stereotypes in advertisements serve to bias an audience’s expectations and support gender stereotypes regarding the roles and interactions of the sexes.
Plakoyiannaki and Zotos (2008) see gender stereotyping as simply beliefs created of “sex-linked traits and roles, psychological characteristics and behaviors describing men and women” (p. 1413). Yet Marshall (1998) gives much less sustenance to gender stereotyping by explaining it as a biased exaggeration. However, Goldschmidt (1950) found in the discussion with interviewees that individual identity is often linked to social categories with which they associate typical stereotypical portrayals that help consumers relate to a concept or more easily classify a product. Lafky et al. (1996), Wolin (2003), and Yu, Yang, Lu, and Yan (2014), go as far as to conclude that stereotypes serve as a shortcut a consumer will use to get through life, and help consumers identify for whom the product is meant for.

In studying gender, and specifically for this study, it is also important to clarify what is meant by “stereotype.” Vinacke (1957) has been referenced by Knoll et al. (2011) in defining stereotypes as “a set of concepts pertaining to a social category” (p. 869). Yu et al. (2014) describe stereotypes as “one of many cognitive shortcuts that people use in order to navigate through complex daily life” (p. 145). Guerilla Girls (2003) go as far as to say that “stereotypes are living organisms, subject to laws of cultural evolution” and “the most prolific progenitor of stereotypes today is the media: movies, TV, music, newspapers, and magazines” (p. 8).

Psychologists Hamilton and Trolier (1986) define stereotype as “a cognitive structure that contains the perceiver’s knowledge, beliefs, and expectancies about some human group” (p. 133). These stereotypes are structures which are created cerebrally, and function much like “schema” defined by Lind (1997) as “cognitive structures…(which) help simplify a complex social environment by quickly and efficiently processing
incoming stimuli based on the presence of a few relevant characteristics” (p. 15). There are various schema about a number of environmental and day-to-day events that allow individuals to organize and understand encounters with little effort. “A stereotype, then,” according to Lind (1997), “is a schema for people we perceive as belonging to a social group…(and) structure our expectations and influence how we perceive incoming messages” (pp. 15-16).

Schneider (2004), after examining several definitions of the word stereotype, concludes that experts have not come to a consensus, and insists “we should not define stereotypes in terms of their target group, their accuracy or inaccuracy, or whether they have or have not been produced by the larger culture. Stereotypes are qualities perceived to be associated with particular groups or categories of people” (p. 24). Gender stereotypes, therefore, can be identified as the specific qualities we attribute to men and to women. Regardless, Basow (1992) claims these stereotypes can potentially have a great deal of control over individuals on either a societal or personal level.

Coltrane and Messineo (2000) studied gender, but they included ethnicity and its relevance to perpetuating subtle prejudice. Coltrane and Messineo (2000) believed that the “media representations perpetuate individual identities among cultural categories” (p. 363). Their study looked more specifically at how stereotypes are used to segment society and may even encourage prejudices within society between various ethnicity and gender classes (Coltrane & Messineo, 2000). Coltrane and Messineo (2000) concluded that television commercials suggest differing portrayals of individuals based on gender and ethnicity, and that “gender and ethnicity are inseparably linked within the symbol system of commercial television,” (p. 370). This, according to Coltrane and Messineo (2000),
plays “an increasingly important role in the construction of reality and the maintenance of social hierarchy” (p.379).

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Studies on gender and stereotypes have typically focused on representations of women. De Carlo (2012) did a 30-year trend analysis of male representation in Esquire and noted “only one other known study (Law & Labre, 2002) has focused solely on men” (p. 2). Though there have been only a few gender studies that focus on the male representations, in a 2013 study Tan, Shaw, Cheng, and Kim uses Craig (1992) and Goffman (1979) to substantiate that “[m]asculinities and male bodies are socially and historically constructed, created, and reinforced by social expectations based on shared meanings, especially by gender display in the mass media” (p. 238). Stereotypes then, are created to employ characteristics, qualities and attributes and are coupled with specific items or occupations that then communicate “masculinity” and are adopted and used in
the advertising industry. This is significant because, unlike biology such as sexual identity of male or female, femininity and masculinity are both gender identifications that are subject to interpretations. These interpretations develop based on a number of environmental influences. One of the largest of these is believed to be the media.

Thomas and Treiber (2000) studied product messages and the relationship between the message and ethnicity-gender stereotypes in magazine advertisements, specifically the suggestive connotations that relate to social status and the implied promise of intangible social rewards such as appearance, romance, and friendship. In an examination of 1,709 advertisements in magazines representative of differing ethnicity and/or gender, Thomas and Treiber (2000) used a cross-ethnic study of male stereotypes and compared the status of the individual, as well as the product promise, along the model’s gender lines. They (Thomas & Treiber, 2000) found high-status images were dominant for both genders and ethnicities but the messages in the product promises were subtly stereotypical. Both gender and ethnicity were identified as a derivative to the portrayal of daily experiences, but there was a significant difference to indicate the prevalence of a hierarchy of status (Thomas & Treiber, 2000).

Schmitt, Leclerc, and Dubé-Rioux (1988) concluded that “gender serves as an important social category in all cultures, and each culture has developed a rich network of associations that surround its concepts of ‘maleness’ and ‘femaleness’” (p. 125). Society has been systematically classified accordingly. According to Morrison and Shaffer (2003), “historically, images of men and women in advertising have been heavily gender-typed, depicting the stereotypical images of independent, active, assertive, work-oriented men and dependent, passive, domestic women” (p.265).
Citizens have been counted and divided by gender and ethnicity. Duties and roles have been identified by gender appropriateness. This definition of gender appropriateness has served as a precursor for domestic, labor and legal decisions. Gender classifications continue to remain prevalent in all areas of society as well. At the forefront of these gender and ethnicity classifications is the media and its various gender and ethnicity portrayals. Within the scope of gender and ethnicity portrayals, stereotypes in advertising images has garnered much attention. As a symbolic means of sharing experiences, there has been a great deal of interest in the actual stereotypes which are being cultivated and the effect it has on shared experiences. These stereotypes are powerful because of their presence and prevalence in everyday negotiations of what constitutes masculinity and femininity that they create and perpetuate gender grouping. Even Goffman (1979) believed that gender relations were defined and constructed socially. But Goffman is not the only researcher interested in gender studies.

In early studies, Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, and Signorielli (1980) identified an interaction between gender and age by concluding that older adult female characters were portrayed as dependent while their male counterparts were portrayed as active, mature and settled. In continued gender studies in 1994, Perry-Jenkins concluded that “the unequal division of labor that persists in families headed by heterosexual couple is not a function of innate biological differences between men and women; it is the consequence of how we as a society have come to define what it means to be a man or a woman” (p.170). In 1997, Peirce notes that in reviewing previous studies, stereotypes exist still. Two years later, a comprehensive study by Furnham and Mak (1999) reviewed and compared the results of studies of sex-role stereotyping over a 25-year period. Their
conclusion shows similarities in patterns that have remained consistent over the years, specifically with regard to gender usage in product type categories and mode of presentation (Furnham & Mak, 1999). Researching the same general area of interest, Ganahl, Prinsen, and Netzley (2003) studied gender representation findings in an effort to compare them with “past studies and to proprietary data about product users” (p. 545). Ganahl et al. (2003) sought to determine the accuracy of character portrayal in advertisements relative to census information and actual consumer profiles. Ganahl et al.’s (2003) findings revealed that gender stereotypes are still “pervasive,” however these stereotypical portrayals (women especially) are “out dated and somewhat irrelevant” (p. 546).

Ganahl et al. (2003) identified changes in culture such as the greater financial independence of women and the drastic changes in the purchasing power and habits of women over the past 10 to 20 years. They concluded in his research that today’s advertisements do not reflect these behaviors or cultural changes (Ganahl et al., 2003). In studying gender issues from a cultural standpoint, the research of Ganahl, et al. (2003) is relative to the research conducted by Barner, 1999; Bretyl and Cantor, 1988, and Signorelli, 1989, which identifies “television as a powerful socializing agent” with a significant influence on gender identity (p. 545). “One of the most obvious and important characteristics of television actors,” according to Barner (1999), “is their gender, and one of the most important ‘lessons’ that children learn from TV actors is how gender fits into society” (p. 551).

Morrison and Schaffer (2003) also studied gender. They “examined how gender-
role portrayals in advertising were likely to be received by individuals with varying gender-role orientations” (Morrison & Schaffer, 2003, p. 272). Morrison and Schaffer (2003) note that typical advertising images have been a stereotype of both men and women, and the perceived roles they held in society. These roles are identified as independent men who are business-like and active outdoors whereas women were portrayed as dependent and domesticated (Morrison & Schaffer, 2003). It was noted that early studies showed a preference for the typical stereotype portrayals in producing favorable responses to advertisements as opposed to those using a non-traditional depiction or portrayal of males and females in advertising (Morrison & Schaffer, 2003). Therefore, research was used to provide justification to advertisers to continue with this character portrayal in advertisements (Morrison & Schaffer, 2003). The findings in Morrison and Schaffer’s (2003) experiment confirm a majority preference and favorable attitude towards those advertisements that used traditional stereotypical images as opposed to nontraditional ones. However, it is important to note that although the difference was not significant, those individuals who were considered non-traditional (not perceived as fitting the stereotypical image) reacted much more adversely to those traditional advertisements than they did to the non-traditional advertisements (Morrison & Schaffer, 2003).

Researchers such as Schroeder and Zwick (2014), Safta (2013), and Wolin (2003) believe that because these stereotypes assist customers in better understanding the message, companies are reluctant to give up the use of stereotypes because through stereotypes, a number of things can be communicated to customers without taking the time to actually say them. Therefore, through the modern media, stereotypes continue to
be perpetuated and maintained (Navarro-Beltrá & Llaguno, 2012). Through the modern media, gender, as Wolin (2003) points out, is also an effective way to segment markets and a tool used to categorize products and place them in the respective target market.

Unlike Morrison and Schaffer (2003), Allan and Coltrane (1996) did find a change in the stereotype of women, more specifically in the activity of women, but little change in that of men. Allan and Coltrane (1996) were more interested in change in the presentation of gender and the variances found in “sex, activity and era” (p.185). Allan and Coltrane (1996) employed a longitudinal study method whereby he compares television commercials between the 1950s and the 1980s. Their study was multi-leveled in that they analyzed both the commercial and the main character. It is important to keep in mind, however, that the period of study for Allan and Coltrane’s research is much more profound historically and culturally than that of the comparison made by Morrison and Schaffer, and Ganahl. Since the 1950s, gender roles, responsibilities, freedoms etc., have undergone a tremendous cultural change, especially from the 1950s until approximately the late-1900s.

Prior to Coltrane and Messino (2000), O’Donnell and O’Donnell (1978) and Loudal (1989) studied trends in gender representation with regards to television advertisements. Bartsch, Burnett, Diller, and Rankin-Williams (2000) later replicated these studies in an effort to identify or measure trends or changes in these trends to better understand how society views men and women. According to Bartsch et al. (2000), both studies found that in advertisements for domestic products, “men were underrepresented but in advertisements for nondomestic products, the opposite held true with women being underrepresented” (p. 735).
Stereotypes and Identity

Stereotypes in the media are seen as a link to consumer identity. “Identity” is a term that has been defined, redefined, reconstructed and used liberally to signify a number of things. Simply put, identity can be someone’s name or a governing-body issued number that is unique and refers to only that one person. Webster’s defines identity as: (1) “the qualities, beliefs, etc., that make a particular person or group different from others;” (2) “sameness of essential or generic character in different instances;” (3) “sameness in all that constitutes the objective reality of a thing;” (4) “the distinguishing character or personality of an individual;” (5) “the relation established by psychological identification;” (6) “the condition of being the same with something described or asserted.” Hogg and Abrams (1988) describe identity as “people’s concepts of who they are, or what sort of people they are, and how they relate to others” (as cited in Fearon, 1999, pp. 4-5). Wendt (1992) describes identity as “relatively stable, role-specific understandings and expectations about self and other” (as cited in Fearon, 1999, pp. 4-5). Katzenstein (1996, as cited in Fearon, 1999, pp. 4-5) describes identity as “mutually constructed and evolving images of self and other.”

Identity is a consideration in this study because the media has a significant impact on identity. In looking at whether or not magazine portrayals of males are consistent with the “real” statistical classifiers of the population, the potential for affecting identities of each period studied can be determined. Hall and DuGay (1996) argue that identity is changed and adjusted as individuals proceed through time and is not singular, but rather is pieces that are woven and “multiply constructed across different, often intersecting and antagonistic discourses, practices and positions” (p. 17). Furthermore, according to Hall
and DuGay (1996), identities are more often built based on noted differences, as opposed to similarities, as most would argue. Therefore, if the notion that Hall and DuGay (1996) subscribe to is correct, then identity is a compilation of many pieces and parts that molds into one end result that is ever-changing. And as individuals create their identity, they are using the several medium avenues they are exposed to in order to do so. Herein lies the significance in that not only do these images of males in magazines serve as splinters that help create identity, but they can also serve to assist individuals in where their identities become relevant or irrelevant in society—where and how they fit in. What role do they play? They are a comparative to which individuals measure themselves against and define their duties. These images/advertisements serve to help individuals establish a place in the social structure.

*Stereotypes...Males in the Aftermath of Females*

Much research has been conducted on the representation of female roles or female stereotypes in advertising. Several studies have been conducted over recent years to identify the role of females in prime time television. The study of male images seemed to become significant only in the aftermath of the various studies that focused on female stereotypes. In comparison to the amount of research conducted on male images in advertising, there is an overwhelming imbalance in favor of the amount of research conducted on female images. McRee and Denham (2006) cite a full body of literature that researches images of women specifically in magazine advertisements (e.g., Ford, Voli, Honeycutt, & Casey, 1998; Garst & Bodenhausen, 1997; Kang 1997; Klassen, Jasper, & Schwartz, 1993; Kolbe & Albanese, 1996, 1997; Law & Labre, 2002; Petrie et al., 1996; Reichert et al., 1999; Reid & Soley, 1983). McRee and Denham (2006) also
point out that there is a minimal amount of research on males in the same context, creating an imbalance of representation. Kolbe and Albanese (1997) report the same imbalance citing that past research has focused on female roles in advertisements (Belkaoui & Belkaoui, 1976; Busby & Leichty, 1993; Courtney & Lockeretz, 1971; Englis, Solomon, & Ashmore, 1994; Lewis & Neville, 1995; Poe, 1996; Rudman & Hagiwara, 1992; Sexton & Haberman, 1974; Sullivan & O’Connor, 1988; Venkatesan & Losco, 1975; Wagner & Banos, 1973; Zhou, 1992).

Historically, although the identification of women in advertisements has received a great deal of attention, women’s roles outside of the family were given a limited amount of attention in these studies. It wasn’t until the post-war era when the roles of women began to change, that a significant focus was placed on female stereotypes in advertising. The roles of women began to change significantly. It was these changes that peaked an interest in gender and advertising, but more so for the portrayal of women. The roles of women in society were the first notable changes in gender roles in society. Much of the research conducted on gender studies was conducted as part of the feminist movement. By the end of the war, the roles of women in society had changed, and there became a growing interest in the depiction of females in the media. In many studies, certain female roles remained prevalent. Research from the 1970s and 1980s noted that female portrayals were most often associated with marriage and parenthood and seldom had a life outside of the family (McNeil, 1975; Signorielli, 1985). Those struggling to turn the tables for feminism have long argued that the perpetuation of disadvantages for both women and minorities is due in part by the media’s portrayal of them in ways that are demeaning and trivializing (Gerbner, 1993; Tuchman 1978). Working women were
portrayed as having problematic personal relationships and as risking their own happiness and continued affection from loved ones as a price for entering the working world (Press & Strathman, 1994; Roberts, 1982).

In some of the earliest research conducted, Courtney and Lockeretz (1971) studied portrayals of women based on advertisements in 1970 general interest magazines. Courtney and Lockeretz originally concluded in April 1971, that “feminists are at least partly justified in saying that advertisements do not present a full view of the variety of roles women actually play in society,” (p. 95). The feminist movement allowed women to expand their lives to include a change in occupation allowing for jobs outside the home and an increase in disposable income, which also brought about a change in domestic and social structures (Zotos & Tsichla, 2014). This called for a re-examination of media depiction of women. Two years later, in 1972, Wagner and Banos (1973) followed up that “there has been a substantial improvement in emphasizing woman’s expanding role as a working member of society,” (p. 214). Venkatesh (1980) took research one step further by summarizing this earlier research and identifying an actual “affect.” Venkatesh (1980) found that the women’s movement had a significant impact on consumer research by concluding the following:

1. “The women’s movement is both a cause and an effect of changes in the social system.
2. Lifestyles of women will be significantly affected, with some bearing on economic behavior of consumers at large.
3. Traditional household decision making will undergo significant change.
4. The economics of the household are changing, especially in the allocation of women’s time in acquiring and processing commodities.

5. As a result of anticipated changes in the lifestyle of women, we can expect changes in the lifestyles of men.” (p. 189)


Research in the late 1900s on female images in advertising built upon Venkatesh’s (1980) conclusions. However, a large portion of this research was conducted on magazine and television advertisements. Lazier and Kendrick (1993) “contend that advertising stereotypes are sexist and portray men and especially women in inaccurate, outdated and demeaning roles” (p. 5). According to Peirce (1997), “magazines, though presenting different pictures of women in many ways, present a unified and stereotypical
view of women in terms of age, looks, occupations, and dependence” (p. 587). Peirce (1997) adds that she has found advertising in national magazines parallels that of television. Peirce (1997) found in her study that the norm for females was to show them as dependent and that fiction in women’s magazines was still considered traditional, much as it had been in the past.

The study of male stereotypes and depictions has not received as much attention in as many areas as the study of female images. Initial longitudinal research on gender portrayals was conducted and has since become the standard measure used to gauge change. However, these studies are of minimal use, at best, for the purpose of this study mainly because comparatively, the number of studies conducted on advertisements in print is a great deal less than the number of those conducted on television programming.

The limited amount of research conducted on male images has led to a dual-usage of the research that has been conducted. Not only has research been conducted on female images, but in identifying what the female image communicated, researchers inadvertently left open for interpretation what those messages meant for men. Female images were grossly over-studied comparative to studies conducted on male images. However, if Tedesco (1974) found that women were portrayed more often as dependent, unemployed and married, then a conclusion can be made about men based on the opposite. It could be reasoned then that men were more often portrayed as independent, employed and married. Unfortunately some initial studies began based on using this type of reasoning as a starting point.

Kolbe and Albanese (1996) have noted an imbalance in research regarding the focus on gender, citing a focus only on male images in as few as two studies, with only
and when both male and female images were analyzed in the same research (e.g., Brosius, Mundorf, & Staab, 1991; Lyonski, 1983; Reid, King, & Wyant, 1994), the research mainly emphasizes the depiction of women. Elliott and Elliott (2005) and Zawisza and Cinnerirella (2010) confirm that there is little known about the impact of advertising’s use of male stereotypes because it is a topic that is under-researched.

In an effort to offset the imbalance in research, Kolbe and Albanese (1996) analyzed the function of sole males as part of the advertising context which appeared in men’s magazine advertisements. Kolbe and Albanese (1996) point out that the image of the sole male is a symbolic identity and serves as a sign of masculinity throughout society. In examining the functions of sole male images in magazine advertisements, Kolbe and Albanese (1996) studied the employment of the male image in the ad by content analyzing occupations and roles, the image use within the ad’s physical space, and how the image contributed overall to the execution of the ad. The researchers found that there is an obvious significance of the sole male image and that this sole male image is recognized by advertisers because of the number of ads and depictions which utilize this image (Kolbe & Albanese, 1996).

This dissertation seeks first to identify the presence or absence of male stereotypes. A significant amount of the research that has been conducted on male stereotypes is interpretive in nature. Early research showed males as being portrayed as involved in concerns outside of the home and providing support and authority while they were able to successfully manage a positive work and home life (Greenberg, 1982; Roberts, 1982). Kaufman (1999), while studying the portrayal of men’s family roles in television commercials (specifically gender behavior and the portrayed relationship with
children), noted that men are not typically shown in roles that are paternal or domestic in nature. However, Kolbe and Albanese (1996) point out that although there are significant stereotypes which are readily recognizable, the image may not always be a positive one. For example, although the cowboy is easily recognized for his “rugged individualism and achievement, particularly against the forces of nature,” this image can also be connotative of a “separation from others” and “not always a laudable social characteristic in modern life” (Kolbe & Albanese, 1996, p. 38). Additionally, the typical male portrayals within fictional television formats make a mockery of what is referred to as the traditional nuclear family with fathers being portrayed as “buffoons,” who are “sappy,” and “immature” and exhibit no authority (Melville, 1995, p. 4).

While attempting to explain not only the depictions but their meaning, Kaufman (1999) conducted a thorough analysis which related atmosphere, environment, situation and expectation to the perceived content of the advertisement. For instance, she analyzes product types, settings, interaction and presence of all characters, as opposed to only the behavior of the male characters (Kaufman, 1999). From this analysis, Kaufman (1999) concluded that not much has changed in the portrayal of men’s family roles in advertisements. This study, like Morrison and Schaffer’s (2003), acknowledges a slight change in the portrayal of certain behaviors; however, the presence of these changes in television advertising is much slower in coming to realization than the behavior itself (Kaufman, 1999). In other words, the behaviors within our culture may be changing but the research shows the image is changing at a much slower pace.
CHAPTER III - RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study is significant because there is minimal research that has been conducted on male portrayals in magazine advertisements. Overall, the amount of research conducted on the male gender in advertisements is minimal compared to the amount of research that has been conducted regarding the female gender population. Additionally, this study does not take into account any type of sexuality or sexualization or sexual objectification of either men or women. It looks at the portrayals of men in the simplest of terms indicating only what the indications are for how men are portrayed in comparison to the statistical information on men in everyday life. The significance of this study rest additionally on the idea that not only does the media sell advertisements, but they also sell a culture or expectation of a lifestyle. Non-coincidentally, advertisers seek to identify with specific targeted audiences. In an effort to relate to these specific audiences, advertisers have a vested interest in understanding how accurate the portrayed identities of these audiences are, relative to actual demographic and census data.

This study uses a mostly quantitative content analysis to identify the depiction of males in general audience magazines, specifically over a 30-year period, and their relevance to actual consumer society in order to increase the existing knowledge and contribute to a more “gender-balanced” perspective. In addition, according to Wiles, Wiles, and Tjernlund (1995) “dynamic changes among male and female roles made in recent years in some advanced nations warrant investigation of the visual images in advertisements” (p. 37).

Clearly times have changed in the 20 years since the bulk of the research on the impacts of gendered depictions on advertising effectiveness was conducted. More
women today work outside of the home, earn (and control) significant amounts of money, and make large, important purchases (e.g., automobiles, computers) that advertising portrays as decisions typically made by men. And with increases in average age of the first marriages (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1997), as well as gradual changes in the division of labor in married households and increases in the number of father-headed, single-parent homes (Cabrera et al., 2000), many men are actively involved in the purchase of products exclusively made previously by women. Clearly, it may be impractical and is probably detrimental for advertisers to create gender nontraditional advertisements to sell products used almost exclusively by one sex (e.g., cosmetics, machine tools). (Morrison & Shaffer, 2003, p. 266)

There have been significant changes in America, especially in increases in the number of households in America, a change in the characteristics of these households, and a change in the labor force (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005). But are the changes accurately portrayed in this media that has consumed so much of our nation? This paper looks at the portrayals of males in magazine advertisements to determine the accuracy of these images that seemingly become the perceived reality. With the significant changes in society, this paper seeks to research and compare some specific cultural changes and depictions in magazine advertisements with regards to male depictions. This research is designed to analyze magazine advertisements to determine if advertising depictions accurately represent the culture, or the changes in the culture, with regards to the depiction of males and their roles in our culture.
The fact that McRee and Denham (2006) speak specifically to male imagery is significant. The imbalance of research on male images as compared to images of females is a statistical basis for choosing to study images of males. Kolbee and Albanese (1997) point out that more studies are needed on male images in order to fully understand issues that are specific to men. McRee and Denham (2006) agree that there needs to be additional research conducted on male images in order to better “examine gendered issues in print advertising” in order to comprehend norms and expectations in society, as well as to create a more accurate and balanced understanding of advertising (p. 19).

In determining the scope and breadth of this study, several statistical indices were reviewed in order to qualify characteristics of the study that would return the most significant results. Johnson and Shipp (1997) studied trends in inequality. In designing their study, Johnson and Shipp (1997) addressed several issues significant in measuring inequality in society. One of the three variables Johnson and Shipp (1997) sought to identify was which time period was most significant to study in identifying inequalities in society. Johnson and Shipp’s (1997) studies showed a constant indication of inequalities present in the 1960s and the 1970s, but identified a significant change during the 1980s and again during the 1990s. Since there was such a significant fluctuation in the time periods identified, the 1980s were included in this study as a representation of the changes from 1960 through 1980. The 1990s and 2000s were chosen as a representation of the continued changes that were significantly different from the previous years. Reports on census trend comparisons were also used in determining an appropriate time period for the study. Those areas with significant change were identified and (it just so
happened) correspond to the 1980 to 2000 time period. The 2000 through 2010 period was included to keep the study relevant.

This decision to analyze male images evolved from previous research on female images. Since the liberation of women, much attention has been given to the depiction of women in advertising images, and how those images have changed over time. As the focus on female images grew, male images became overshadowed and received minimal attention by comparison.

**Occupation**

Cox conducted a study in 1969 of blacks in magazine advertisements. Colfax and Sternberg (1972) followed Cox (1969) in studying blacks in magazine advertisements, using Cox’s (1969) findings as an initial point of reference. Cox (1969) concluded an increase in the percentage of blacks portrayed in occupations that were “ranked above skilled laborer” (Colfax & Sternberg, 1972, p. 8). In their study of four mass circulation magazines from 1965 to 1970, Colfax and Sternberg (1972) state that their “review suggests that the depiction of blacks in contemporary magazine advertising may be contributing to the perpetuation and reinforcement of racial stereotypes, rather than their eradication” (p. 9). In addition, the U.S. Census Bureau (2007) shows a steady decrease in the percentage of the total American labor force that is made of males. Research question 1 addresses the issue of the portrayal of males in occupational roles in magazine advertisements. Coders used the coding scale used by Schneider and Schneider, (1979); Gilly, (1988); and Sharpe, (2000) to identify if a male character is working. And, the six occupational categories from the U.S. Census Bureau (2010) were used to identify the occupation of the employed characters. Two additional categories were added to make
sure that the coding scheme was exhaustive; the “electronics and/or computer” category was added because it was an occupation on the rise; and the “other” category was added so as any occupation that did not fit into the previous categories would have a category to be counted in, making the category exhaustive.

*Family Roles*

Changes in American family households were also identified. In an effort to determine consistency, family roles of males in magazine advertisements were researched in this dissertation. The U.S. Census Bureau (2007) data identifies a 30% increase in the total number of households from 1980 to 2000, however the number of family households that contain a male householder with no spouse present has increased by 78%. This would indicate a decrease in the overall percentage of females in family settings and therefore changes in the family roles. According to Goldscheider and Waite (1991) women still dominate as the family member responsible for the majority of the homemaking and caregiving chores. Women are more often portrayed inside the home in domestic settings where they are portrayed as more involved in homemaking and childcare (Furnham & Bitar, 1993; Furnham & Mak, 1999; Stern & Mastro, 2004). Another change of notable interest is of all of the increases in households, male households had the highest percent increase from 1980 – 2000 than any other (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007). To answer research question 2, male characters in magazine advertisements were coded for their portrayed role in the advertisement using coding categories from those used in McArthur and Resko (1975), Gilly (1988), and Sharpe (2000).
Ethnicity

Another area of significant change was evident in ethnicity and the changes in the ethnicity of the American population during this same time period. Although the numbers for the population of whites remained the highest, and the numbers for the population of blacks only increased by less than 16%, other significant changes were identified (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). The number of American Indians, Eskimos and Aleuts in the population increased by 42.1% from 1980 to 1990 and 26.4% from 1990 to 2000. The number of Asians in the population increased by 112% between 1980 and 1990, and by 46.4% from 1990 to 2000. The number of those in the population identified as being of Hispanic ethnicity increased by 53.8% from 1980 to 1990 and by 57.9% from 1990 to 2000. And, the number of those classified as “other” increased by 45.8% from 1980 to 1990, and by 56.7% from 1990 to 2001 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). The ethnicity of the population from the 1980s to the year 2000 also diversified. During this period, the Hispanic population more than doubled while the Asian population increased by 112% from 1980 to 1990 and 46.4% from 1990 to 2000 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

These changes were identified and used as the basis for research question 3. Each of these address the ethnicity of male images. Coders coded each male character in the advertisement using the same categories used on the U.S. Census data sheets. The data collected from the magazine advertisement code sheets were then compared to the actual Census data to determine if the ethnic representation of males in magazine advertisements reflects the actual population demographic data from the U.S. Census for the same time period. This information was used to satisfy Research Question 3.
Product User Image

These changes have brought about a change in the typical roles in society that were once seen as gender and/or ethnically specific. Understanding these differing roles is significant because they can often dictate consumer purchasing patterns, and help to establish a basis for building relationships. As these patterns change, the target of various products and their messages should also change to reflect a relevance to the real roles enacted throughout society. This study will identify some of those roles and compare depictions of male characters to general Census data regarding age, occupation, ethnicity, and household make-up, for the years 1980 through 2010 at five-year intervals. Aside from analyzing male images for a comparison to reality, product usage will also be analyzed to compare the perceived opportunities across racial lines. Therefore, this study will also look at depictions of males in various product categories and make a comparison between magazines throughout the decades. The male in the advertisement as product user, and product category were coded using categories developed by Schneider and Schneider (1979); Gilly (1988); and Sharpe (2000) to answer Research Question 4.

Age

Gender was not the only significant demographic characteristic of interest, but the general demographic make-up of society in the United States has also undergone a change and this study offered an opportunity to look more closely at not only males, but the age of males as well. According to U.S. Census Bureau data (2005), there were significant changes in the demographic makeup of the American population beginning in the 1970 and 1980s. The 65 and older population had the highest percentage increase in the twentieth century from 1980 to 1990 with a 5.7% increase (U.S. Census Bureau,
Census data also shows a decline in the ratio of males to females until an apparent increase in the number of males to females from 1980 to the year 2000 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2005, p. 62). Additionally, there appears to be a change in the population makeup which shows an increase in the percentage of women age 16 and over in the labor force, but a decrease in the percentage of men of the same age (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). Therefore, age was studied in this dissertation by using the age categories established through the U.S. Census data (2010) questionnaire and coding males in advertisements in this study to answer Research Question 5.

Medium Selection

In deciding which medium to study, magazines and television were the two media given the most consideration because these two media targeted an overall general audience most appropriate for the study. There is a large body of studies that have been conducted on various mediums. And within each of these mediums there are different genres that have been the subject of various research. For example, prime time television, Saturday morning cartoons, and day-part soap operas are only some of the genres studied in television. Or, perhaps, television may have to be divided into parts, and the study only look at “primetime” programming in order to study the 18-54 audience. This does not look at television on a whole as a medium, but only a “part” or frequency of advertisements in each of these mediums. Likewise, magazines have also been studied categorically such as black audience magazines, news magazines, etc. The most popular magazines offered the most general audience. Both television and magazines have the potential to reach the 18-54 market. However, in general, the leading magazines have the best opportunity of reaching more members of this audience without further
segmentation. In order to reach the same general audience with television, various types of programming would have to be studied.

Different prior research was also taken into consideration in selecting the medium. Mediamark Research and Intelligence (2005) reported a growth in magazine users at a higher rate than any other media except online. According to Marketing Evolution (2006), studies that were commissioned by clients showed that when individuals were exposed to magazine advertisements, television advertisements and online advertisements about a product, consumers exposed to the magazine advertisement had a higher purchase intent by seven percentage points over that of the other mediums.

Numerous other media studies were evaluated in selecting the medium. Jupiter Research (Witteman, 2010) found that more people were led to online research and an actual purchase after a magazine/newspaper ad than any other type of advertisement. CNW Research, Inc. (Witteman, 2010), report magazine editorials and advertisements as the primary source of motivation for beginning a new home improvement project. Time, Inc. Magazine Environmental Tracking Study (Witteman, 2010) reports that magazine advertisements are more influential than television and online advertisements and that individuals are most likely to recommend a product or service seen advertised in magazines than any other medium. BIG research Simultaneous Media Usage Study (Witteman, 2010) found that magazines were most likely overall to trigger online searches than other media or communications. Roper Reports (Witteman, 2010) identifies that personal recommendations are more important now than they were in 1970 by one and one-half as much, and that magazines are the leading contributors to personal recommendations over all other medium. Jack Myers Emotional Connections Survey
(Witteman, 2010) reports that magazines enhance consumers overall media experience more than television, radio, and the internet.

Simmons’ Multi-Media Engagement Study (Experion Information Solutions, 2007) reports magazines are the number one ranked medium of engagement for all engagement dimensions studied including trustworthy, life enhancing, inspirational, and ad receptivity. When studying return on investment (ROI), media effectiveness was increased significantly when there was an increase in magazines in the media mix (Media Management Center, 2008). There was also a significant increase in media impact when brands employed a higher percent of magazines in their overall media mix (Media Management Center, 2008). Overall, the relative ROI index for magazines was considerably higher when compared to television for consumer goods (Media Management Center, 2008).

Marketing Evolution (2007) performed a return on marketing objectives analysis for Chrysler’s 2007 launch of the Sebring and found magazines were the most efficient medium for influencing brand recognition, familiarity, and purchase intent. Dynamic Logic/Millward Brown CrossMedia Research Studies (2007) conducted an analysis of studies from 2004-2007 and found that magazines had the biggest affect in media mixes for overall effects, increase in brand favorability and purchase intent. Studying an accumulation of media studies data reveled that magazines and television seemingly have the largest audience reach, based on their national distribution. However, according to Media Management Center (2008) the top 25 magazines have higher gross rating points (GRPs) than prime-time television. In the adult 18-49 market, magazines had a 236 GRP while prime-time television had a 111 GRP (Media Management Center, 2008).
Therefore, since there is a popularity among magazines, this medium has been selected to identify if consumer expenditure information from the U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012) shows any relevance to portrayed product users.

In deciding which magazines to use in the analysis, purpose of the magazine and readership were given a great deal of consideration. Fashion magazines were desired because of their position as trend-setters in society. Three different types of magazines are being utilized for this study. Women’s fashion magazines were chosen because they are typically seen as the “trend setters.” However, the fashion magazines targeted at women are often the initial outlet for the revelation of “today’s society,” or “what is to come.” *Essence*-targeted specifically to African American females, *Cosmopolitan*-targeted specifically to White females, and *GQ*-targeted specifically to White males, were each identified as leading magazines in the fashion magazine industry. They were also chosen because of their racial significance. These magazines represent some of the most popular fashion magazines from both those published gender specific, and those targeted at a specific ethnicity. They offer a snapshot of trends or a lifestyle that is reflective of what society should be, or is striving to become. General interest magazines were chosen additionally to be included in the study because they offer an overall, general target audience. *Ebony*, targeted specifically to African Americans, and *People*, targeted specifically to Whites, were also selected because of their prominence as general interest magazines, and because of their racial significance. *Sports Illustrated* was chosen because of its direct relationship and perceived significance among males. *Cosmopolitan* magazine was selected because it a leading fashion magazine which is seen as a trend setter in society. It has the highest involvement rating among readers and ranks among
the top preferred magazine in the college, women over the age of 18, educated working women and “mom” categories. Its circulation tops that of what would be a comparable market share for such top prime time shows as American Idol, Grey’s Anatomy and Desperate Housewives (Hearst Corp., 2010). Since ethnicity is also being researched, Essence was chosen as a fashion magazine with an African American readership base that parallels the demographics of the White-focused Cosmopolitan. Likewise, Ebony was chosen as the leading general interest magazine among African Americans. People was chosen because of its comparable demographic profiles and characteristics among White counterparts.

Research Questions

Much of the changes that were being noted as significant in the 1970s had more to do with the changes in women that caused an additional change in men. As women became more empowered and changes their lifestyles, it had an alternate effect on men and the stereotypical roles they filled. Casetti (1999) identifies the mid-19th and beginning 20th centuries as the first era of feminism. According to Lerner (1974), this was a time of “a different experience (for women) with respect to consciousness, depending on whether their work, their expression, their activity is male-defined or woman oriented” (p. 5).

The 1960s became known as the second era of feminism. Gillis, Howie, and Munford (2004), refer to it as “a movement which was a response to a shared exclusion from political, social, and economic life,” (p.1). In 1964 with The Civil Rights Act of 1964, discrimination based on both sex and race became legal issues and soon the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) was developed to mediate in cases of
race and gender discrimination. Additionally, the Women’s Educational Equity Act and the Equal Credit Opportunity Act were implemented to identify and alleviate discrimination in areas of hiring, personnel training, and promotion (Freedman, 2002).

The unofficial third era of feminism came about in the 1990s. Gillis, Howie, and Munford (2007), identify economics as the driving factor behind this era, saying:

The shift away from the public works philosophy of the Roosevelt years to the free market fundamentalism of the Reagan/Thatcher years clearly contextualizes the third wave tendency to focus on individual narratives and to think of feminism as a form of individual empowerment (p. 14)

The culmination of these events led to a change in how women lived, worked and the roles they experienced at home. And in effect, the roles of men – how they lived, worked, and the roles at home – subsequently would have been affected. As women began to fight for equal rights and gain reputable positions in the workforce, there brings to question how were males affected by a female’s entry into the workforce? Did the occupations of males change? And so the first research question seeks to find if the depiction of males regarding the occupations they hold have changed since 1980 in the aftermath and during such a feminist revolution. As women enter the workforce, do the portrayed occupational roles of men change with them?

RQ1: How are males portrayed in terms of occupation in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010?

RQ1a: Are males consistently portrayed in certain occupations in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010?
RQ1b: Does the portrayed occupation of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 coincide with census occupational information for the same time period?

RQ1c: Is there a difference in the portrayal of the occupation of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 between magazines?

RQ1d: Is there a difference in the portrayal of the occupation of males in magazine advertisements between decades from 1980 through 2010?

Not only did the feminist movement affect the workforce, but as the roles in the workforce changed, so did the roles at home. As the roles changed, the household composition changed. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2002) *Demographic Trends in the 20th Century*, from the 1900s to the 2000s, drastic housing changes evolved including: average household size decline by 44%; married-couple households declined 26 percentage points from 1950 to 2000; the proportion of one person households maintained by a female decreased in each census from 1970 to 2000; and the number of male family households with no wife present and having own child under age 18 rose 31% from 1950 to 2000. Therefore, the portrayal of males in family roles are significant in determining if the portrayals of males in family roles reflect reality. Research question 2 looks at the portrayal of men in family roles.

RQ2: How are males portrayed in terms of family roles in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010?

RQ2a: Are males consistently portrayed in certain family roles in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010?
RQ2b: Does the portrayed family roles of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 coincide with census household information for the same time period?

RQ2c: Is there a difference in the portrayal of the family roles of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 between magazines?

RQ2d: Are there differences in the portrayal of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 regarding family roles between decades?

Along with the changes in occupations and family roles, the diversity of the population of the United States also changed drastically. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2002), the most drastic changes in the diversity of the U.S. population included:

- Both the white population and the Black population represented a slightly smaller share of the U.S. total population in 1970 than they did in 1900;
- From 1970 to 2000, the population of races other than White or Black grew considerably and, by 2000, was comparable in size to the Black population;
- From 1980 to 2000, the Hispanic population (of any race) more than doubled; and
- The aggregated minority population (people of races other than White or of Hispanic origin) increased by 88 percent between 1980 and 2000, while the White non-Hispanic population grew by only 7.9 percent during the 20-year period. (p. 71)

Because of the drastic changes in ethnic diversity, the ethnicity of males were included in this study to determine if the ethnic portrayal of males is consistent with these
changes. Research question 3 seeks to identify if these changes are portrayed in advertisements.

*RQ3*: How are males portrayed in terms of ethnic background in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010?

*RQ3a*: Are males consistently portrayed as being of one specific ethnic background more often than any other in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010?

*RQ3b*: Does the portrayal of the ethnicity of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 coincide with census demographic information for the same time periods?

*RQ3c*: Is there a difference in the portrayal of the ethnicity of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 between magazines?

*RQ3d*: Is there a difference in the portrayal of the ethnicity of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 between decades?

These changes in population and household are likely to also affect purchasing patterns of consumers. As the object of advertising is to sell products, the fourth research question sought to identify consumer product usage patterns as advertised and if they were also subject to differences.

*RQ4*: How are males portrayed as product users in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010?

*RQ4a*: Are men portrayed more often as the dominant product user in certain product categories in non-domestic product advertisements in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010?
RQ4b: Does the category depicting males as the product users in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 coincide with consumer expenditure information for product categories for that same time period?

RQ4c: Is there a difference in the depiction of males as product users in certain product categories in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 between magazines?

RQ4d: Is there a difference in the depiction of males as product users in certain product categories in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 between decades?

Finally, the last notable change in the U.S. population of interest in this dissertation was in the age of the population. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2002), half of the population of the U.S. was younger than 22.9 years of age in 1900, but by 2000, the country had the highest median age ever with half of the population less than 35.3 years old. The final research question deals with the population age.

RQ5: How are males portrayed in terms of age in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010?

RQ5a: Are males consistently portrayed as being of one specific age group more often than any other in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010?

RQ5b: Does the portrayal of the age of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 coincide with census demographic information for the same time periods?

RQ5c: Is there a difference in the portrayal of the age of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 between magazines?
RQ5d: Is there a difference in the portrayal of the age of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 between decades?
CHAPTER IV – METHODOLOGY

The Study

Design

This study was designed as a content analysis of males in magazine advertisements with regards to occupation, age, family roles, ethnicity and product usage. Content analysis was chosen because it is, according to Plakoyiannaki and Zotos (2008), “a scientific, quantitative, and generalizable description of communications content” (p. 1420). Each full-page advertisement containing a male was coded into one of 14 product categories, and each male in the ad was coded based on the following eight categories: product user; solo; character role; character age; ethnicity; work situation; occupation; and social status. The male images in magazine advertisements were then compared to Census data to gauge the reality of the portrayals when measured to US Census data and labor statistics.

Samples

Magazines. These specific magazines were selected based on the types of magazines they are and the demographics of their target audiences. Essence is targeted towards a female African American audience whose median age is 39 and median individual income of $32,000. Among their readers, 33% are married, 45% are single and 53% have children. The demographics of Cosmopolitan are similar to that of Essence, except the readership is mainly White women. The median age of these women is 30 with an individual median income of $26,000. Among their readers, 38% are married, 45% are single and 54% have children. Ebony is a general interest magazine which targets African Americans. Their readership is 62% female and 38% male. The median age of their
readers is 39.7 and the median household income is $50,000. Like Ebony, People is also a general interest magazine, but it targets Whites. People’s readership is 69% female and 31% male. The median age of People’s readership is 41 and the average household income is $67,000.

The initial intent was to also include male fashion magazines in this study. However, research into comparable publications showed that although male fashion magazines such as GQ which targets a White male audience, could be identified and included, there were no magazines that remained in existence, which could be identified as specifically targeted to African-American males, for the specified time period for this study. GQ’s readership is 73% male and 27% female with a median age of 34. The median household income for their readers is $72,000 and 63% are single while 37% are married. In an effort to include equal coverage of men’s magazines, despite the availability of one targeted to African-American males, Sports Illustrated was also selected. Sports Illustrated has a 77% male readership with a median age of 39 and a median household income of $74,000. In order to gain information for a more “longitudinal study,” this study is limited to the above mentioned publications. In addition, male images were selected because males appear to be the gender least studied in recent years, and because of the changes in society noted by the U.S. Census Bureau in decennial census data for the years 1980 to 2010.

Samples. The sample set included advertisements from Cosmopolitan, Ebony, Essence, GQ, Sports Illustrated and People magazine from the April and September issues for each fifth year from 1980 to the year 2010 inclusively. The April and
September issues were selected randomly to represent the first half and second half of a year’s publication.

The narrowing criterion to be included in the sample was that an ad had to be full page, but should not be more than one full page. Only full-page advertisements were coded because those are the advertisements that are most often noticed. Advertisements that spread across two pages as a unit were not included because the research is inconclusive as to whether or not readers see ads that spread beyond one page as a single ad, and they generally are not seen in one “view” as a whole. It was also observed in older issues of *GQ* that advertisements for clothing companies would span for five or six pages without changing any element except the clothing being worn by the model. Including such ads would result in an unfair skew of the results. Any advertisements directly linked to editorial content were also not included. The advertisement also could not be a cartoon, graphic or digitized image. The unit of analysis was the single male, either solo or within a group. Each male in the full-page advertisement was coded.

*Data Set.* The total data set was compiled of 2,146 full-page advertisements. This was a compilation of all the full-page advertisements that were not a cartoon, line-drawing or digitized image that had at least one male in the advertisement. Each male in the advertisement was coded individually, therefore the total advertisement data set consisted of 2,669 samples. *GQ* had the highest number of ads meeting the criteria with about 40% of the data set coming from it. Second was *Sports Illustrated* contributing about 18% of the data set. Third was *Ebony* with a contribution of about 14% of the data set. Fourth was *People* contributing a little more than 11%; fifth was Cosmopolitan contributing not quite 10%; and sixth was *Essence* contributing not quite 7%.
Table 1

**Total Sample Population**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Magazine</th>
<th>Number of Advertisements</th>
<th>% of Total Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>GQ</em></td>
<td>1,068</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Sports Illustrated</em></td>
<td>480</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ebony</em></td>
<td>374</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>People</em></td>
<td>293</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Cosmopolitan</em></td>
<td>267</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Essence</em></td>
<td>187</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample Population</td>
<td></td>
<td>2,669</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Procedure**

There were two coders. Each coder had a subset from each magazine that was labeled consecutively so that each coder coded half of each magazine's advertisement to keep one coder from coding a specific magazine in its totality. However, each magazine had its own colored tab that was applied to each of its advertisements so that comparisons could be made between magazines.

Coders coded each advertisement for the presence of a male character and identification of characters in each ad as they are relative to the male character. This was used to determine the role of the male character(s) in advertisements. In addition, coders coded for the presence and identification of not only the role of the male, but the occupation and ethnicity of the character(s). Product category was also identified. Each of
the categories used for coding are the same as those identified in U.S. Census and Labor Statistic data (2010).

*Intercoder Reliability*

The sample set coded to determine intercoder reliability was 11% of the total data set. There were 300 advertisements from the total data set selected for initial coding to determine intercoder reliability. The advertisements were selected from each of the six magazines proportionate to the percentage of each contributed by each specific magazine. Therefore, 40% were randomly selected from *GQ*; 18% were randomly selected from *Sports Illustrated*; 14% were randomly selected from *Ebony*; 11% were randomly selected from *People*; 10% were randomly selected from *Cosmopolitan*; and 7% were randomly selected from *Essence*.

Table 2

*Pre-Test Intercoder Reliability*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Magazine</th>
<th>Number of Advertisements</th>
<th>% of Pretest Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>GQ</em></td>
<td>120</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Sports Illustrated</em></td>
<td>54</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ebony</em></td>
<td>42</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>People</em></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Cosmopolitan</em></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Essence</em></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Ads all Magazines</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Coders were given descriptive books that identified each variable and their operational definitions. In the operational definitions, descriptive examples were given and several identifiers were listed. A pre-sample set of 25 advertisements were used as a training for coders. These 25 advertisements were openly reviewed and coded as part of the training. When the two coders reached a 98% agreement on the pre-sample subset, they began to code the 300 advertisements to determine intercoder reliability. The class, grade, ad item number and page number information on the coding sheet was used for identifying purposes only and therefore was not included in determining intercoder reliability. Questions two through ten were used to determine intercoder reliability in the initial subset and calculated by Holsti’s (1969) method. Intercoder reliability was recorded at 88.1%, exceeding Krippendorf’s (2004) acceptable level of 80%.

Table 3

**Percentage of Coder Agreement by Coding Category**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question – Coding sheet question</th>
<th>Product Category</th>
<th>Product User</th>
<th>Solo or Group</th>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Work Status</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Social Status</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% CA</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>88.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Question – Coding sheet question

**%CA - % Intercoder reliability per question

**Measure**

The measures that have been chosen for this research are based on those that are relevant and have been successfully used in previous studies.

*Magazine.* Each advertisement was given a “class” designation that was representative of each individual magazine in the study. These were identified as A, B, C, and D, E and F. Each magazine had its own class designation such as: A represented all advertisements from Essence; B represented all advertisements from Cosmopolitan; C
represented all advertisements from *Ebony*; D represented all advertisements from *GQ*; E represented all advertisements from *Sports Illustrated*; and F represented all advertisements from *People*. Letters were used so that the researcher would be able to reconcile data with the correct magazine, but still keep the magazines identity anonymous from the coders.

Issue numbers also had a corresponding “grade” designation so the decade can be identified for reconciliation, but remain anonymous to coders. It is important to note that two five-year interval dates were combined to represent the decade. Using an additional interval contributed a larger population to the sample size in an effort to get a more accurate depiction of the units analyzed. The April and September issues were used for the years mentioned to gain the sample advertisements from. These two months were selected because they equally represent half of the year and two different seasons. Both the April editions and the September editions were coded as the grade of the year they were published. Advertisements from the year 1980 and the year 1985 were coded as grade W and the results were combined to represent the 1980s decade as the data set for that decade; advertisements from the year 1990 and the year 1995 were coded as grade X and the results were combined to represent the 1990s decade as the data set for that decade; advertisements from the year 2000 and the year 2005 were coded as grade Y and the results were combined to represent the 2000s decade as the data set for that decade; and advertisements from the year 2010 were coded as grade Z.

*Number*. Each male was coded as being a “solo” male (indicated by 1) in which they are alone; or in a “group” as in depicted with at least one other person. However,
each male in the advertisement was coded individually. Intercoder reliability was 100% as determined using Holsti’s (1969) method.

**Occupation.** Coders measured occupation based on occupation categories as developed by the U.S. Census Bureau (1990) in an effort to be able to compare this data to census data. These categories are self-explanatory and include: management, professional and related occupation; service occupation; sales and office occupations; farming, fishing and forestry; construction, extraction and maintenance; and production, transportation and material moving. These are identified through clothing and the environment the male is surrounded in within the advertisement. Intercoder reliability was 85% as determined using Holsti’s (1969) method.

**Role.** The role of the character was coded based on the coding scale used by McArthur and Resko (1975); Gilly (1988); and Sharpe (2000). The character was coded based on the role the character is primarily portrayed in and includes: spouse/boyfriend; friend; parent; grandparent; homemaker; caregiver; worker; and other. These too were self-explanatory and were identified by their position to others in the advertisement and the environment they were depicted in. Intercoder reliability was 84% as determined using Holsti’s (1969) method.

**Ethnicity.** The ethnicity of the characters were also coded based on a categorization scale used by the U.S. Census Bureau (1990). These categories include: White; Black or African American; American Indian or Alaskan Native; Asian; Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander; Hispanic or Latino; and Other. Again, these categories are necessary to make comparisons to U.S. Census data, and were self-explanatory. Intercoder reliability was 90% as determined using Holsti’s (1969) method.
*Product User.* Coders identified if the male character was or was not the user of the product. “Product user” was the individual that actually used the product. If a male was advertising female perfume, for instance, he would not be the user. If the product in the advertisement was cologne for men and the male depicted was holding the cologne, he would then be considered the user. Intercoder reliability was 100% as determined using Holsti’s (1969) method.

*Products.* Product categories have been developed based on the coding used by Schneider and Schneider (1979); Gilly (1988); and Sharpe (2000). Coders identified the product category as being from one of 13 categories, or as “other.” These included: food, snacks, soda; automobile and accessories; drugs and medicines; restaurants and retail snacks, and soda; automobile and accessories; drugs and medicines; institutional/public service; pet food and related products; clothing; computers and/or electronics; personal and beauty care; restaurants and retail outlets; household appliances/furnishings; alcoholic beverages; household cleaning agents; finance and real estate. The “other” category was used to categorize all products that did not fit in any of the other 13 categories to make sure the coding categories were mutually exclusive as well as exhaustive. These categories were self-descriptive. Intercoder reliability was 81% as determined using Holstí’s (1969) method.

*Age.* The age of the character was coded based on the categories developed by the U.S. Census Bureau (1990). These categories identify individuals as being: under 18; 19 - 24 years of age; 25 – 44 years of age; 45 – 59 years of age; 60 and older. This categorization is necessary in order to be able to make the appropriate comparisons to the census data. Intercoder reliability was 86% as determined using Holstí’s (1969) method.
This study, therefore, identifies “perception,” as consumer reality—the images presented in advertisements—and will make a comparison of these images in an effort to identify a gap between reality and a socially constructed perception created through magazine advertisements. The research conducted in this study, therefore, focuses more specifically on this “visual reality” seen in magazine advertisements. The intent is to document the visual presence of specific images within the late twentieth century, not to interpret effect.
CHAPTER V – RESULTS

Analysis

Coding was completed on individual code sheets. The results of each coding sheet were entered into an Excel data workbook to extract specific data sets relevant to individual research questions.

Occupational Role

The first area of analysis examined the portrayal of males and how they were depicted in regards to occupational roles in the various magazines and through the decades 1980 – 2010. The computations of the coding results were compared to the statistics in the U.S. Census data between decades and a comparative was done between magazines. Overall, males were most often depicted in the “other” category consistently across the various decades and magazines included in this study. Celebrities and actors were in the other category, as well as individuals who had no identifying characteristics of any occupation. For instance, if a male was in a clothing advertisement (such as those in GQ), then he was usually pictured alone and in an outfit or clothing that was more “stylish” or “trendy,” as opposed to indicative of an occupation. The significance of this will be discussed in the conclusion and discussion section. In addition, the second highest percentages for both the decades and the magazines were for males depicted as “management, professionals and related occupations.” Depictions of males in the remaining classifications were consistent and there were no males depicted in the “electronic and/or computers” occupations.

Depictions of males relative to occupations were first looked at on the larger scale, looking at the totality of the advertisements.
Table 4

Results of Occupation for all Sample Ads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation Category</th>
<th>Mgt/Prof Related</th>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Sales &amp; Office</th>
<th>Farm/Fish &amp; Forest</th>
<th>Const/Extrac &amp; Mainten.</th>
<th>Prod/Trans &amp; Mat.Mo</th>
<th>Electronics/Computers</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of Ads</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1708</td>
<td>2669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% All</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Occupation Category – Occupation category number. 1 – Management, professional, and related occupation; 2 – Service; 3 – Sales and office; 4 – Farming, fishing and forestry; 5 – Construction, extraction and maintenance; 6 – Production, transportation and material moving; 7 – Electronics and/or computers; 8 – Other.

**No. of Ads – Number of total ads coded as belonging in each category.

***% All - % of advertisements in coded as belonging in each category compared to the total population of advertisements.

****Percentages have been rounded up to the whole number.

The cumulative of the data set shows that males are portrayed in relatively the same occupation category in all magazines in this study throughout all of the decades and issues in this study. The occupation category with the highest percentage of depictions was the “other” category. The cumulative totals of all ads coded show that males are depicted most often in an occupation other than those classification categories listed in the U.S. Census Bureau (2010) data set. Males were depicted in an occupation other than those identified in the U.S Census Bureau (2010) data set in a total of 64% of the total ads. It is notable to mention that *Sports Illustrated, People* and *Ebony* specifically had a relatively high number of celebrities-male celebrities specifically. The occupation categories could have been expanded to include celebrities, however, there would be no census data for comparison. It would though, account for a large percentage of the “other” occupation category and perhaps added more specificity to the results.

Second to the “other” category, males were depicted in “management and professional and related occupations” in 24% of the total ads. Depictions of males in “service” occupations accounted for 5% of the total ads. Depictions of males in “sales...
and office occupation” accounted for 3% of the total ads. Depictions of males in “farming, fishing and forestry” occupations accounted for 2% of the total ads. Depictions of males in “construction, extraction and maintenance” occupations account for 1% of the total ads as do the depictions of males in “production, transportation and material moving.” There were no depictions of males in the occupation of “electronics and/or computers.” Males were depicted in occupations not listed in the U.S. Census Bureau (2010) 40% more than any other category. (See Table 4.)

*Occupation Comparison with Census.* After looking at the data as an overall cumulative result set, the results for the portrayal of males in occupational roles were examined in segments. The first segmentation was to look at the results per decade, and compare those to the data for occupations for each decade according to the U.S. Census Bureau data (2010) for the years 1980 through 2010.

The highest percentage of occupation category noted in magazine advertisements for the advertisements in this study was in the “other” category. However, the census occupation categories collapsed all occupations for the years in this study into six categories that they deemed all-inclusive as there was not an “other” category to gain census data from for the comparison.

**Table 5**

*Coding Results for Occupations by Decade and Census Data*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mgt/Prof Related</th>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Sales &amp; Office</th>
<th>Farm/Fish &amp; Forest</th>
<th>Const/Extrac &amp; Maint</th>
<th>Prod/Trans &amp; Mat Mo</th>
<th>Electronics/ Computers</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1980 # of ads coded</strong></td>
<td>238</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>% 1980</strong></td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1980 Cen</strong></td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of # of ads coded</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 1990</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990 Cen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 # of ads coded</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 2000</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 Cen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010 # of ads coded</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 2010</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010 Cen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Occupation category number. 1 – Management, professional, and related occupation; 2 – Service; 3 – Sales and office; 4 – Farming, fishing and forestry; 5 – Construction, extraction and maintenance; 6 – Production, transportation and material moving; 7 – Electronics and/or computers; 8 – Other.

**1980 # ads coded. – Number of total ads published in 1980 sample set coded as belonging in each category for 1980.

***1980 - % of total ads in 1980.

****1980 Census - % in category in U.S. Census data (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010) for 1980.

******1990 # ads coded. – Number of total ads published in 1990 sample set coded as belonging in each category for 1990.

*******1990 - % of total ads in 1990.

********1990 Census - % in category in U.S. Census data (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010) for 1990.

*********2000 # ads coded. – Number of total ads published in 2000 sample set coded as belonging in each category for 2000.

**********2000 - % of total ads in 2000.


************2010 # ads coded. – Number of total ads published in 2010 sample set coded as belonging in each category for 2010.

*************2010 - % of total ads in 2010.

**************2010 Census - % in category in U.S. Census data (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010) for 2010.

***************Percentages have been rounded up to the whole number.

The category with the second highest percentages for the occupations of males in the advertisements in this study was the “management, professional and related occupations.” For all decades in the study, this group had the highest percentage with the
exception of the “other” category. The decades 1980 and 1990 were similar to each other
in that for the category “management, professional and related occupations,” 24% of the
advertisements were coded as showing males in this occupation. The U.S. Census data
shows that 32% of the males in the workforce were employed in an occupation in this
category in 1980 and 34% were employed in an occupation in this category in 1990. The
year 2000 showed a high percentage of advertisements in the “other” category with the
second highest percentage at 19% of the males in the advertisements studied depicted as
“management, professional and related occupations.” This category had the highest
percentage in the Census data with 30% of the males in the workforce employed in
“management, professional and related occupations” category. The year 2010 was an
exact match for both magazine depictions and Census data regarding “management,
professional and related occupations,” with 35% in both the coding results and the
Census data.

For the remaining six occupation categories, across the four time periods studied,
the data comparison between the coding result percentages and the census data
percentages were somewhat discrepant. Although there were one or two occupation
categories that showed similarity between the coding result and Census data, for the most
part, the coding results remained similar with each other across the time periods studied,
and the Census data remained similar between the decades. However, there was a great
difference between the two data sets.

“Service occupations” followed with the next highest percentages when looking at
coding results. “Production, transportation and material moving” fell next in percentages
for the Census (2010) data in 1990 and was tied with “sales” in 2010. For all decades
there was less than 1% of the males in advertisements coded in the occupation of “production, transportation and material moving” yet the Census (2010) data showed 20% of males in the workforce were employed in this class in 1980; 27% in 1990; 19% in 2000; and 18% in 2010.

In the “service occupation” category for 1980 and 1990 there was little disparity between magazine portrayals and Census (2010) data with 8% of the males in advertisements in 1980 depicted in this category and 9% of males in the workforce employed in this class. In 1990 both the depictions of males in advertisements in the “service occupation” category and the percentage of males employed in the same category equaled 4% each respectively. However, 2000 and 2010 had a great disparity between the portrayals of males in this occupation and those employed. Males depicted in a “service occupation” accounted for 2% in 2000 but there were 12% reported by the U.S. Census Bureau (2010) employed in this class in the same year. In the year 2010 there were 4% of the males in advertisements portrayed in this occupation class and 16% of males in the workforce reported by the U.S. Census (2010) data as being employed in this occupation category.

“Construction, extraction and maintenance” and “sales and office occupations” also had a great disparity between the depictions of males in advertisements in these occupations and the U.S. Census data. “Sales and office occupations” garnered 6% of males depicted in these occupations in the advertisements in 1980, yet 9% listed in the same category for the same time period in the U.S. Census (2010) data; 2% in magazine advertisements in 1990 but 15% in the occupation according to the U.S. Census (2010) data; 2% in magazine advertisements in 2000 but 23% in the occupation according to the
U.S. Census (2010) data; and 3% of males depicted in magazine advertisements in 2010, but 18% in the occupation category according to the U.S. Census (2010) data.

The “construction, extraction and maintenance” category had similar disparity with only 1% of the males in magazine advertisements in this study depicted in an occupation in this category in 1980, yet the U.S. Census (2010) data showed 28% of the males in the workforce employed in this occupation category: 1% of males depicted in magazine advertisements in 1990 depicted in this category, but 15% employed in this occupation field according to the U.S. Census (2010) data for the same time period. The decade 2000 had the exact figures as did the previous decade for this same category with only 1% of males in advertisements depicted in this category, yet the U.S. Census (2010) data recorded 15% of the males in the workforce employed in this occupation category. The year 2010 was similar and also had a disparity with 1% of males in magazine advertisements coded as being in this occupation category but 12% of the males in the workforce were employed in this occupation according to the U.S. Census (2010) data.

The “farming, fishing and forestry” category had some of the least disparity across the decades in this study. In 1980 both the images of males in advertisements and the U. S Census (2010) data recorded 2% in this occupation category. In 2000 the percentages also matched with 1% documented for each of this category both in magazine depictions and in U.S Census (2010) data for percentage of males in the workforce in this occupation. The year 2010 was very close in percentages with 2% of the males depicted in magazines falling into this occupation and only 1% documented as being employed in this occupation according to the U.S. Census (2010) data. It was the 1990s that had the greatest disparity in the “farming, fishing and forestry” occupation
category with 1% of the males in magazines for this decade depicted as being employed in this occupation category while the U.S. Census (2010) data recorded 5% of the males in the workforce employed in this occupation. There were no males in the advertisements in this study that were depicted in the “electronics and/or computers” category, nor was there a category for the same or for the “other” category in the U.S. Census data categories. However, the percentages for magazine advertisement depictions for these two categories are represented in the table above (Table 5).

*Occupations by Magazines.* The second segmentation was to look at the portrayal of the occupation of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 and 2010 between magazines. The coding of males in the magazine advertisements in this study revealed that all of these magazines portray occupation of males consistently. A Chi-Square cross tabulation of the results of males depicted in the six magazines in this study, when combining: women’s interest magazine results; and then men’s interest magazine results; and general interest magazine results for comparison; $x^2 (2,699) =144, p = 00$. Overall, there were little notable differences between magazines, when combining magazines by interest, in each of the occupation categories, with one exception. The only real significant difference was in the men’s magazines “other” category with a minimum of 27% more depictions than in any other category.

In reviewing an overall comparison between magazines, the following table exhibits coding results of males in advertisements in this study grouped by magazine type. Magazine group 1 consists of magazines in this study intended for predominantly male audiences (*Sports Illustrated & GQ*). Magazine group 2 consists of magazines in this study intended for predominantly female audiences (*Cosmopolitan & Essence*).
Magazine group 3 consists of magazines in this study intended for general audiences

*People* & *Ebony*).

### Table 6

**Depictions of Males in Occupations by Magazine Interest**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Mgt/Prof Related</th>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Sales &amp; Office</th>
<th>Farm/Fish &amp; Forest</th>
<th>Const/Extrac &amp; Maint</th>
<th>Prod/Trans &amp; Mat Mo</th>
<th>Electronics/ Computers</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male Magazines</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women Magazines</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen Int Magazines</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>670</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Occupation category number. 1 – Management, professional, and related occupation; 2 – Service; 3 – Sales and office; 4 – Farming, fishing and forestry; 5 – Construction, extraction and maintenance; 6 – Production, transportation and material moving; 7 – Electronics and/or computers; 8 – Other.

**Male Magazines** – All advertisements in the sample for *GQ* and *Sports Illustrated* magazines for all decades in the study (1980-2010). Percentages are of total advertisements in the study.

**Female Magazines** – All advertisements in the sample for *Cosmopolitan* and *Essence* magazines for all decades in the study (1980-2010). Percentages are of total advertisements in the study.

**General Interest Magazines** – All advertisements in the sample for *People* and *Ebony* magazines for all decades in the study (1980-2010). Percentages are of total advertisements in the study.

**********Percentages have been rounded up to the whole number.

The occupation with the highest percentage of the portrayal of males is the “other” category across all magazines studied. The magazine with the highest percentage of males depicted in the “other” occupation category was *GQ*. For the decades studied, *GQ* had a composite percentage of 78% of the ads depicted males in an occupation classified as “other.” Second was the “management, professional and related occupation” category with a composite of 16% - almost an 80% difference between the two categories. There was little difference between the remaining categories as “service occupation” category had a composite of 3%; “sales and office occupations,” “farming,
fishing and forestry,” and “construction, extraction and maintenance” categories all had a composite percentage of 1% each; and there were no males depicted in the occupation categories of both “production, transportation and material moving,” and “electronics and/or computers.”

The magazine with the second highest percentage of males depicted in the “other” occupation category was *Ebony*. For the decades studied, *Ebony* had a composite percentage of 66% of the ads depicted males in an occupation classified as “other.” Second was the “management, professional and related occupation” category with a composite of 27%-not quite the disparity between the two categories as was found in *GQ*. There was little difference between the remaining categories as “service occupation” category had a composite of 3%; “sales and office occupations” had a composite of 2%; “farming, fishing and forestry,” and “construction, extraction and maintenance” categories both had a composite percentage of 1% each; and there were no males depicted in the occupation categories of both “production, transportation and material moving,” and “electronics and/or computers.”

Following *Ebony*, for the decades studied, *Essence* had a composite percentage of 62% of the ads depicted males in an occupation classified as “other.” Second was the “management, professional and related occupation” category with a composite of 26%-about the same disparity between the two categories as was found in *Ebony*. There was a somewhat greater difference between the category “service occupation” and the remaining categories. The “service occupation” category had a composite of 10%; “sales and office occupations” and “farming, fishing and forestry” had a composite of 1%; and there were no males depicted in the occupation categories of “construction, extraction
and maintenance,” “production, transportation and material moving,” and “electronics and/or computers.”

*Sports Illustrated* for the decades studied, was next with a composite percentage of 54% of the ads depicted males in an occupation classified as “other.” Second was the “management, professional and related occupation” category with a composite of 32%. There was little difference between the remaining categories as “sales and office occupations” category, “service occupation” and “farming, fishing and forestry” categories all had a composite percentage of 4% each; “construction, extraction and maintenance” and “production, transportation and material moving” categories both had a composite percentage of 1% each; and there were no males depicted in the occupation category of “electronics and/or computers.”

*People* followed with a much less disparity between categories. For occupational depictions of males, 46% of the depictions fell in the “other” category, with “management, professional and related occupation” a close second with a composite of 34%. “Service occupation” was depicted in 12% of the total ads in *People* followed by depictions in the “sales and office occupation” category with a composite of 7%. Only 2% of the depictions of males in occupations fell in the “farming, fishing and forestry” category, and there were no males depicted in the occupation categories of either “production, transportation and material moving,” or “construction, extraction and maintenance.”

Lastly, *Cosmopolitan* exhibited the least amount of disparity between occupational categories. Males were depicted in the occupational category of “other” in 40% of the ads in *Cosmopolitan.* Second was the “management, professional and related
occupation” category with a composite of 36%. “Sales and office occupations” category had a 13% composite, and “service occupation” followed a close second with 11% composite. The “farming, fishing and forestry” category had a composite percentage of 2%; the “construction, extraction and maintenance” category had a composite of 1%; and there were no males depicted in the occupation categories of either “production, transportation and material moving” or “electronics and/or computers.”

*Occupation by Decade.* The final segmentation used to analyze how males were portrayed in occupations in magazine advertisements in this study was to compare these depictions between decades from 1980 through 2010. Overall, all magazines for all decades had the highest percentage of depictions of males in occupations identified as “other,” which accounted for those occupations not listed by the U.S. Census Bureau.

A Chi-square cross tabulation was conducted of the results of males depicted in the six magazines in this study, when comparing decades, $x^2 (2,699) = 102, p = 00.$ Overall, there were little notable differences in between magazines in each of the occupation categories between decades. The 1980s had a significant higher number of advertisements compared to the other decades. Overall, with the exception of the “other” category, there were no largely significant differences in the various occupations between decades.

Table 7

*Depictions of Males in Occupations by Decade*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation Decade</th>
<th>Mgt/Prof</th>
<th>Service</th>
<th>Sales/Office</th>
<th>Farm/Fish/Forestry</th>
<th>Const/Extract &amp; Mainten.</th>
<th>Prod/Transp &amp; Mat. Mov.</th>
<th>Elect/Comp</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>574</td>
<td>990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The category with the highest percent of depictions for occupations of males was still the “other” category in 1980. However, the 21% of males in the 1980s depicted in “other” occupations was only one percentage point higher than that of the 1990s, but six percentage points higher than 2000 and 15 percentage points higher than 2010.

Remaining consistent with other decades and the results of individual magazines, the “management, professional and related occupation” was the second most popular with 9% of the total ad population of the depictions for 1980. Following was the “service occupation” at 3% of the total ad population of the depictions; “sales and office occupations” at 2%; and “farming, fishing and forestry,” “construction, extraction and maintenance” and “production, transportation and material moving” categories each accounted for 1% of the total ad population depictions for 1980. There were no depictions for the category of “electronics and/or computers” for the 1980s.

The highest percentage in 1990 was the “other” category which accounted for 20% of the total population of ad depictions. The “management, professional and related occupation” was second most popular in 1990 with 7% of depictions of the total population of ads in this category. Of the remaining categories for 1990, five of them were equal in their depictions with only 1% depictions of the ads in the total ad population. There were no depictions for the “electronics and/or computers” categories.
The year 2010 held the lowest percentage for males depicted in occupations identified as “other” with 6% of the males from the total ad population depicted in this category, although this classification still held the highest percentage of any other for 2010. Following, and consistent with other decades and each magazine, “management, professional and related occupations” had the second highest percentage with 4% of the males in the total ad population. “Service occupation,” “sales and office occupations,” “farming, fishing and forestry,” “construction, extraction and maintenance,” as well as “production, transportation and material moving” all had 1% of the depictions of males in the total population. There were no depictions for the category of “electronics and/or computers” for the year 2010.

**Family Roles**

The second area of research interest was how males were portrayed in terms of family roles in the magazine advertisements in this study between 1980 through 2010. Overall, males were portrayed more often in the “other” category regarding family roles, than in any other category. The “other” category served to identify the depictions of males that were not consistent with being either: spouse or boyfriend; parent; homemaker; worker; friend; grandparent; or caregiver. This “other” category was also inclusive of males depicted in some other relation than those listed or could not be identified as having any inferred relationship.
Table 8

Depictions of Family Roles in Magazines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Role</th>
<th>Magazine</th>
<th>Spouse/Boyfriend</th>
<th>Parent</th>
<th>Homemaker</th>
<th>Worker</th>
<th>Friend</th>
<th>Grand-parent</th>
<th>Caregiver</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sports Illustrated</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GQ</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>759</td>
<td>1068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ebony</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
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<td>4%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cosmopolitan</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>267</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>3%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Essence</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1339</td>
<td>2669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage and represents a percentage of the total number of ads.

**Family Roles and Census Data.** In order to answer research question two, the portrayed family roles of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 were compared to census household information for the same time period.

The U.S. Census Bureau *Statistical Abstract of the U.S.* (2012) identified 74% of the total households in 1980 as family households and 26% as non-family households. They also identified 61% were married; 2% were led by a male householder; and 11% were led by a female householder. Contrary to the U.S. Census data information 50% of the depictions of males were in the “other” category which indicates that for the males depicted in the magazines in this study, 50% of the depictions were in roles “other” than
a family role. There were limited depictions of males with children or young adults, or with elderly individuals. Again, many of the depictions were of males alone and therefore there was no inference of a family role. Of the advertisements in the study from only the 1980s, 24% of the males in advertisements were depicted in the role of a spouse or boyfriend; only 8% were depicted in the role of a parent; only 6% were depicted in the role of a homemaker; less than 1% were depicted as a grandparent or a friend; and there were no depictions of males as caregivers.

There was little change from the 1980s to the 1990s. Males in advertisements for only the 1990s in magazines in this study were depicted in roles identified as “other” 55% of the time; as a spouse/boyfriend 17% of the time; as a friend 6% of the time; as a parent 5% of the time; as a homemaker or a grandparent only 1% of the time respectively; and there were no depictions of males as caregivers. These depictions are somewhat contradictory to the U.S. Census Bureau *Statistical Abstract of the U.S.* (2012) data that shows 71% of total households were family households; 56% of total households were married with 6% of total households led by males and 12% of total household led by females.

The U.S. Census Bureau *Statistical Abstract of the U.S.* (2012) recorded an overall decline for total family households in 2000 down to 69%, and again in 2010 down to 67%. The total married households also showed a decline in 2000 down to 53% and again in 2010 down to 50% (U.S. Census Bureau 2012). The total households led by males also declined in 2000 to only 4% but rose slightly in 2010 to 5% of total households (U.S. Census Bureau 2012). The total households led by females remained constant at 12% in 2000 but rose to 13% in 2010 (U.S. Census Bureau 2012).
The depiction of males in family roles in the magazine advertisements in this study, when looking at the total data set, showed the biggest change in the “other” category with a six-percentage point decrease from 2000 to 2010. The identification of males in “spouse/boyfriend” family roles in the magazines in this study showed a decrease by six percentage points from 1980 to 1990; a three percentage point decrease from 2000 to 2010; and only one percentage point increase which occurred from 1990 to 2000.

*Family Roles and Magazines.* An additional component of research question two sought to identify if there was a difference between magazines in the portrayal of the family roles of males depicted in the magazine advertisements in this study from 1980 through 2010. The findings showed the portrayal of males is more inconsistent regarding the roles they are depicted in between magazines.

A Chi-square calculation was conducted of the depictions of males in family roles using combined data for men’s interest magazines (*Sports Illustrated* & *GQ*), women’s interest magazines (*Essence* & *Cosmopolitan*), and general interest magazines (*Ebony* & *People*). \( x^2 (2,699) = 393, p = 0.00 \). There were several categories with great disparity. When combined, there is a great difference in the percentage of males depicted in the “other” category in male interest magazines with 37% of the total amount of ads (2669) portraying males in family roles identified as “other.” This almost equals the number of males portrayed in all categories for women’s interest magazines, general interest magazines, and is 28% more than any other category.

There were at least three ways to evaluate males depicted in family roles in magazines. First, the percentages of the males depicted in family roles within the
population of the individual magazine could be examined. Second, depictions of males in family roles as a percentage of the total population of ads could be examined. And, third, the results could be combined for magazines of the same interest (men’s interest vs. women’s interest vs. general interest) and then evaluated.

*GQ* had the highest percentage of males depicted in what was considered the “other” category with 28% of males depicted in this category for all ads in this study—more than half of the depictions of males in the “other” category for the total population of all advertisements in this study. This high percentage could be attributed to the fact that many of the advertisements in *GQ* are of a solo male therefore there is no role depicted. Of the males depicted in advertisements in *GQ*, in 4% of the advertisements containing at least one male in *GQ* the male was depicted as a “spouse or boyfriend.” Males in the *GQ* ads for all decades as a percentage of the total population of all ads in this study were depicted 3% of the time as a “friend”; 2% as a “worker”; 1% as a “parent”; 1% as a “homemaker”; and 1% as a “grandparent.” There were no depictions in *GQ* of males in the role of a caregiver.

*Sports Illustrated* had a significantly less percentage of depictions identified in the “other” category with only 8% of the depictions of males in *Sports Illustrated* as a percentage of the total population of all ads in this study falling into the “other” category. The second highest percentage was 4% in the “worker” category; followed by 2% in the “spouse/boyfriend” category; and 1% each category for the “parent,” “homemaker,” “friend” and “grandparent” category for those males depicted in ads in *Sports Illustrated* as a percentage of the total population of ads in this study. There were no depictions of
males as “caregiver” in any of the depictions of males in advertisements in *Sports Illustrated*.

*People* had the third highest percentage of males depicted in “other” family roles with 4% of the total advertisement depictions, and was tied with *Ebony* for the same. Second highest in *People* with 3% of the males depicted in advertisements was those being depicted in the role of “spouse/boyfriend.” Following the “spouse/boyfriend” category, males were depicted as a “worker” in 2% of the advertisements featuring a male in total advertisements in this study. For the males depicted in advertisements in *People*, there was an equal split of depictions in the roles of “parent,” “friend,” “grandparent” with 1% in each category respectively. There were no males depicted in *People* in either the role of “homemaker” or the role of a “caregiver.”

*Ebony* had similar results to *People* with only two slight differences. There were 4% of the males in advertisements identified as being in an “other” family role; 4% of males in advertisements identified in the role of a “spouse/boyfriend”; 2% were depicted as a “worker”; 2% as a “parent”; 1% as a “friend”; and 1% were depicted as a “grandparent.” There were no males depicted in the role of “homemaker” or “caregiver” in any of the advertisements in any of the issues of *Ebony* in the study.

Males in advertisements in *Cosmopolitan* were most often depicted as “spouse/boyfriend” and in the “other” category with 3% of the depictions of the total data set from *Cosmopolitan* falling in this category. Following was the “worker” category with 2% of the depictions; as a “friend” and as a “parent” the same percentage at 1% each respectively. There were no depictions of males as either “homemaker,” “grandparent” or
“caregiver” in any of the depictions of males in any of the *Cosmopolitan* magazine issues in this study.

*Essence*, like *Ebony*, had the highest percentage of males depicted in the role of “spouse/boyfriend” with 4% of the total population of the males in advertisements depicted as such. There were 2% depicted in the role identified as “other”; 1% depicted as a “parent”; 1% as a “friend”; and 1% as a “worker.” There were no depictions of males in roles of either “homemaker,” “grandparent,” or “caregiver” in any of the depictions of males in advertisements in any of the issues of *Essence* included in this study.

Table 9

*Depictions of Males in Family Roles by Magazine Interest*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Role Magazine</th>
<th>Spouse Boyfriend</th>
<th>Parent</th>
<th>Homemaker</th>
<th>Worker</th>
<th>Friend</th>
<th>Grandparent</th>
<th>Caregiver</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men’s Interest</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>979</td>
<td>1548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s Interest</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Interest</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1339</td>
<td>2669</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage and represents a percentage of the total number of ads.*

When evaluating the depictions of males in family roles in magazine advertisements by looking at the magazine interest as a combined total, when combined, men’s interest magazines retained the highest percentage category of any other with 37% of all depictions of males in magazines in the “other” category in men’s interest magazines (*Sports Illustrated* & *GQ*). The “other” category had a high popularity overall. The “other” category was inclusive of those males who were either depicted alone, or there was no clear inference to any relationship with any other model in the advertisement. This 37% was twenty-eight percentage points higher than any other
category for any of the magazine interest combinations which was the general interest magazines (*Ebony* and *People*) with only 9%, and women’s interest magazines (*Cosmopolitan* and *Essence*) had only 6% in the same category. Women’s interest magazines led the depictions of males as “spouse/boyfriend” with 8%, but was followed closely by a tie of men’s interest magazines and general interest magazines with 7% each respectively in the same category. The “worker” category, although not as significant in identifying a “family role” had the next highest percentage with 7% in this category for men’s interest magazines; 5% for general interest magazines; and 2% in women’s interest magazines. In the “friend” category, there were 5% of the depictions in this category from men’s interest magazines; 2% in this category from general interest magazines; and 1% in this category from women’s interest magazines. In the “parent” category, there were 3% in this category from general interest magazines; and 2% from each the men’s interest and women’s interest magazines respectively in the same category. There was only 1% depictions of “homemaker” and that was in the men’s interest magazines. And both men’s interest and general interest magazines were the only magazines to depict males in the role of “grandparent,” and that was for 1% each in this category.

*Family Roles and Decades.* The last part of research question two seeks to identify if there are differences between decades in the portrayal of males in the magazine advertisements in this study from 1980 through 2010.
Table 10

*Depictions of Males in Family Roles by Decades*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Role</th>
<th>Spouse</th>
<th>Boyfriend</th>
<th>Parent</th>
<th>Homemaker</th>
<th>Worker</th>
<th>Friend</th>
<th>Grandparent</th>
<th>Caregiver</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>1463</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage and represents a percentage of the total number of ads.

A Chi-square calculation was performed for the difference in males depicted in family roles between decades, \( \chi^2 (2,699) = 258, p = 0.0 \). There were no drastic differences between decades except the 1980s had the highest percentage of 21% in the “other” category and was five percentage points higher than the next highest category which was the “other” category in 1990. The portrayal of males in magazine advertisements regarding family roles were much more consistent between decades. There was less disparity between the percentages when comparing decades. The categorical percentages were more parallel and reflective of each other across the decades when percentages were calculated as a percentage of the total data population. However, the “other” category had significantly higher percentages for all decades and a total of 55% of all males depicted in magazines advertisements in this study depicted in the role “other.”

The 1980s had the highest portrayal in the “other” category with 21% of the 37% total of advertisements that made up the 1980s decade, depicting a male in a family role identified as “other.” When looking at the total ad population, the 1980s accounted for 37% of the total ad population, and second to the “other” category was the...
“spouse/boyfriend” role with 9%; “parent” was third with 3%; “homemaker” was fourth with 2%; and “worker,” “friend,” and “grandparent” each had 1% respectively. In the 1980s there were no depictions of males as “caregiver.”

The 1990s had similar results with 16% of the 29% total of advertisements that made up the 1990s decade, depicting a male in a family role identified as “other.” When looking at the total ad population, the 1990s accounted for 29% of the total ad population, and second to the “other” category was the “spouse/boyfriend” role with 5%; “worker” was third with 4%; “friend” was fourth with 2%; and “parent,” “homemaker,” and “grandparent” each had 1% respectively. In the 1990s there were no depictions of males as “caregiver.”

In the 2000 decade, the portrayals were distributed consistently with the 1990s. In the 2000s, 12% of the 22% total of advertisements that made up the 2000s decade, depicted a male in an advertisement in a family role identified as “other.” When looking at the total ad population, the 2000s accounted for 22% of the total ad population, and second to the “other” category was the “spouse/boyfriend” role with 4%; “worker” was third with 3%; “friend” was fourth with 2%; and “parent,” and “grandparent” each had 1% respectively. In the 2000s there were no depictions of males as “caregiver” or “homemaker.”

The year 2010 stayed relatively consistent with the previous two decades with 6% of the 11% total of advertisements that made up the 2010s decade, depicting a male in a family role identified as “other.” When looking at the total ad population, the 2010s accounted for 11% of the total ad population, and second to the “other” category was the “spouse/boyfriend” role tied with the “worker” role with 2%; “friend,” “parent,” and
“homemaker” each had 1% respectively. In 2010 there were no depictions of males as “caregiver” or as “grandparent.”

All total, there were 55% of the portrayal of males in family roles where males were depicted in the category of “other”; 20% were depicted as “spouse/boyfriend”; 10% as a “worker”; 7% as a “parent”; 5% as a “friend”; and 3% as a “homemaker”; and 1% as a “grandparent.” There were no males depicted in the family role of a “caregiver.”

**Ethnicity**

The third research question sought to determine how males were portrayed in terms of ethnic background in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010.

Table 11

*Depictions of Males by Ethnicity and Magazines*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sports Illustrated</strong></td>
<td>407</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>15%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>2%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>18%</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GQ</strong></td>
<td>960</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>36%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>2%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>40%</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ebony</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td>374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>14%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>14%</em></td>
<td><em>14%</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>People</strong></td>
<td>274</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td>293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>10%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>11%</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cosmopolitan</strong></td>
<td>235</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>9%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>10%</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Essence</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>6%</em></td>
<td><em>0%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>7%</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1876</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>692</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>35</td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td>2669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>70%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>26%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>1%</em></td>
<td><em>100%</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage and represents a percentage of the total number of ads.*
The majority of the males portrayed in the magazines *GQ*, *Sports Illustrated* and *People*, (which all each have a typically White readership), are White by a wide percentage margin. For those magazines such as *Ebony* and *Essence*, which typically have an African American readership, the depictions of males in advertisements are of African American, by a wide percentage margin. Therefore, the portrayal of males in regards to ethnicity is consistent with the demographic ethnicity of the readership for each magazine studied. However, research question three also looked more in-depth at the portrayals of males in regards to ethnicity.

*Ethnicity and Census Data.* In evaluating if the portrayal of the ethnicity of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 coincide with census demographic information for the same time periods, there are two ways to calculate the percentages of the males as they are depicted regarding ethnicity: comparisons to total population and/or comparisons to total males in the population.

**Table 12**

*Depictions of Males by Ethnicity Census Data by Decades*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>White White</th>
<th>American Indian or Alaskan N</th>
<th>Native Hawaiian or Pac Isl.</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Black or African American</th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Hispanic or Latino</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980 # of ads coded</td>
<td>774</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 1980</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total Ads</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980 Cen</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>Combined into &quot;other&quot; category</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990 # of ads coded</td>
<td>607</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 1990</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total Ads</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Because this study used only the portrayal of males in the magazine advertisements, it was more valid to compare the findings in the depictions of males in magazine advertisements compared to the data for the male population as opposed to the total population. Also, the U.S. Census data did not have an individual count “Other,” nor did they for “Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.” In addition, the U.S. Census data makes the notation that “Hispanic” is an ethnicity and can be a combination of several
races or racial backgrounds so the calculation of “Hispanic” is independent of other ethnic backgrounds or races. When coding the males in magazine advertisements for ethnicity, coders did, however, select the ethnic category that MOST reflected the character in the advertisement.

In 1980 the U.S. Census data showed the population breakdown of males as: white males were 39% of the total population; American Indian or Alaskan Native males were 1% of the total population; Black males were 6% of the total population; Asian males were 1% of the total population; and males of Hispanic origin were 3% of the total population. When calculating these categorical breakdowns as a percentage of ONLY the total male population, or the population of only males in each category, the breakdown changed to describe the male population as: 86% white; 1% American Indian or Alaskan Native; 11% Black; 2% Asian; and 7% of Hispanic origin. For the purpose of this study, since the ad population was only depictions of males, and in order for an ad to be included it had to portray at least one male, only the percentages of the male population will be used from the U.S. Census data.

In comparing the images of males in advertisements for the time period and magazines in this study, and in using the comparative of only the males in the civilian population according to the U.S. Census Bureau (2010) data, there was a not that great a disparity between the Census data and the frequency of male images as identified with each race/ethnic category for the 1980s. The U.S. Census Bureau report (2010) of 86% of the male population noted as white was only eight percentage points higher than the 78% of males depicted in advertisements for this study classified as white in all of the ads in 1980. Only 1% of the males in the magazine advertisements were identified as
American Indian or Alaskan Native, and the U.S. Census (2010) data shows this category as only 1% of the male population. Not as significantly different as that of the White category, 17% of the males in magazine advertisements were identified as Black, compared to the Census report of 11% of the male population identified as Black. The images of males in magazine data showed 1% as Asian, only one percentage point different than the U.S. Census (2010) data record of 1% of males as Asian. Although the U.S. Census (2010) data showed 6% of the total male population as being of Hispanic origin, less than 1% of the males in magazine advertisements for this study in the 1980s were identified as Hispanic.

The next two decades studied identified a change in the depiction of males in magazine advertisements regarding race/ethnicity, as well as a change in population demographics. The 2000 U.S. Census data recorded 82% of the total male population as being White while 57% of the males depicted in advertisements for the same time were White males. Only 1% of the total male population registered as American Indian or Alaskan Native in the U.S. Census data for 2000, which was consistent with the 1% of the males depicted in advertisements noted as being of this race. The U.S. Census (2010) data identified 13% of the total male population in 2000 as Black while 38% of males in advertisements for this period were identified as Black; and 4% of the total male population as Asian while only 1% of males in advertisements for this period were identified in the Asian category. Although there were only 2% males in advertisements for this time period identified as Hispanic, the U.S. Census (2010) data recorded 13% of the total male population were of Hispanic origin.
The results from 2010 were somewhat similar to those of 2000. The U.S Census (2010) data identified 81% of the total male population as White while 51% of the males in advertisements in magazines in this study for 2010 were identified as White and zero males in these magazines were identified as American Indian or Alaskan Native compared to 1% in the U.S. Census (2010) data. For the first time there was a 1% record for coding males in advertisements as Native Hawaiian and 1% as Other, although neither race were identified in the U.S. Census data (2010). The U.S. Census data (2010) identified 13% of the males in the 2010 as Black, yet 45% of the males depicted in advertisements for 2010 were identified as Black. There were 1% males in advertisements identified as Asian although the U.S. Census (2010) data recorded 5% of the total male population as Asian: and only 1% of the males depicted in advertisements were identified as Hispanic although the U.S. Census (2010) data recorded 17% of the total male population as being of Hispanic origin.

Ethnicity and Magazines. In order to make a more in-depth evaluation of how males are portrayed in advertisements, a comparison was done of the difference in the portrayal of the ethnicity of males in magazine advertisements between magazines between 1980 through 2010.

A Chi-square computation was completed for the depiction of the ethnicity of males portrayed in magazine advertisements for the magazines in this study for the same time period, however, the Chi-square tabulation was conducted after combining coding results from male interest magazines (Sports Illustrated & GQ); women’s interest magazines (Cosmopolitan & Essence); and general interest magazines (People & Ebony); $\chi^2 (2,699) = 787, p = 0.0$. The biggest significance was that males were depicted as white
70% of the time overall. Men’s interest magazines depicted males in advertisements 51% of the time which was 41 percentage points higher than any other category or magazine interest grouping. Males were depicted as black 25% of the time overall and had the highest percentage in women’s interest magazines at 14%.

Table 13

*Depictions of Males by Ethnicity and Magazine Interest Type*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men’s Interest</td>
<td>1367</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s Interest</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Interest</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>383</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1876</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>692</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage and represents a percentage of the total number of ads.

In looking at the portrayal of the ethnicity of males in this study, there were a total of 2,669 advertisements in the total population, and 70% of those portrayed males as White; 26% portrayed males as Black; and less than 1% each were portrayed as American Indian or Alaskan Native, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Asian, Hispanic and Other respectively. The findings reported from the coding of the advertisements regarding ethnicity are reported as a percentage of the total population of all advertisements – not as a percentage of only those in the specific magazine.

*GQ* had the highest percentage in one ethnic category with 36% of the total 70% of the males in this study depicted as White. Blacks accounted for only 4% of the total depictions; and Asians, American Indians or Alaskan Natives, Native Hawaiians or
Pacific Islanders, Hispanics or Latinos were only depicted in 1% of the advertisements. There were no depictions of males as, or any depicted as some ethnicity described as “Other” than these listed.

*Sports Illustrated* also had a high disparity among the ethnicity of the males portrayed. The portrayal of White males was dominant also throughout *Sports Illustrated*, but not as much as *GQ*. *Sports Illustrated* accounted for 15% of the males in advertisements of White ethnicity. Only 2% of the males portrayed were African American and the remainder of the advertisements were equally distributed with 1% representation of the remaining ethnic classes including “Other.”

Somewhat similar to *GQ*, *Cosmopolitan* had a dominant percentage of the males in this publication depicted as White. *Cosmopolitan* accounted for 10% of the total ad population, and of that 10%, there were 9% of the males depicted as white; 1% African American; 1% depicted as American Indian or Alaskan Native; and only 1% depicted as Hispanic or Latino. There were no other ethnic representations in the *Cosmopolitan* magazines used in this study.

*People* had similar depictions as *Cosmopolitan*; almost exact results. Advertisements in *People* accounted for 11% of the total ads in the total population, and of that 10% of the 11% identified males depicted as White. There were 1% of the males that were African American; 1% were Hispanic; and there were no other ethnicities represented in any of the advertisements depicting males in *People*.

*Ebony* and *Essence*, both with traditionally African American readership, had similar results regarding the ethnicity of the portrayal of males, accounting for a combined 20% of the males depicted as blacks in advertisements, out of the 26%
depictions of such in the total population. In *Ebony*, 14% of the males in advertisements were Black; 1% were Asian; and 1% were American Indian or Alaskan Native. There were no depictions of any other race or ethnicity in any of the magazine advertisement depiction of males in *Ebony*. Similar, however with a lower number of advertisements in the population, in *Essence* there were 6% of the males in advertisement depictions portrayed as Black; 1% were Hispanic or Latino; but unlike *Ebony*, there were no males portrayed as Asian or American Indian or Alaskan Native. However, neither *Ebony* nor *Essence* had any portrayals of males as either Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, or were classified as “Other.”

*Ethnicity and Decades.* After comparing the difference in the portrayal of the ethnicity of males in magazine advertisements between magazines from 1980 through 2010, a comparison was also done for the difference in the portrayal of the ethnicity of males in magazine advertisements between decades between 1980 through 2010.

Table 14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity Decade</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Amer. Ind</th>
<th>Nat Haw Pac Isl</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Black Af. Am.</th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Hispanic or Latino</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>774</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>990</td>
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<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>607</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1876</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>692</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2669</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage and represents a percentage of the total number of ads.

A cross tabulation Chi-square was run on the depiction of males in magazine advertisements by ethnicity between decades for 1980 through 2010; $\chi^2 (2,699) = 243$, p = 0.0. The results still showed 70% of the depictions were of white males but the
distribution was more evenly with six percentage points difference from 1980 to 1990; ten percentage points difference from 1990 to 2000; and only seven percentage point difference from 2000 to 2010.

In looking at the ethnicity of the males portrayed in advertisements in this study between decades, again, percentages were calculated based on the total advertisement population and therefore each percentage expressed below is a percentage of the total advertisements in this study (2,669) in all six magazines from 1980 through 2010.

In 1980, males depicted as White accounted for 29% of the total study population; Blacks 6%; and each of the other categories were equally represented with 1% respectively, with the exception of the “Other” category. In the following decades, the percentage of the depictions of white males depicted in the advertisements in this study continued to decline while the percentage of all other minorities stayed approximately the same with the exception of Blacks. In the 1990s the percentage of whites dropped six percentage points to 23% and blacks dropped 5 percentage points to 1%. In the 2000s, whites dropped another ten percentage points to 13% while blacks rose seven percentage points to 8%. In 2010, whites dropped another seven percentage points to 6% for a total decrease of 23 percentage points over the four decades. Blacks dropped three percentage points in 2010 to 5% for an overall decrease across the four decades of only one percentage point.

Product User

Research question number four looked at how males were portrayed as product users in magazine advertisements in the six magazines in this study from 1980 through 2010. The results showed that males in the advertisements in this study were depicted as
the actual product user in the advertisement in 96% of the advertisements. More importantly, research question number four sought to find if men were portrayed more often as the dominant product user in certain product categories in product advertisements in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010.

The advertisements in this study depicted the male as the product user in 96% of the advertisements. There were 14 product categories used for coding advertisements. These categories were derived from Schneider and Schneider 1979; Gilly 1988; Sharpe 2000. Of the 14 categories, those classified as “domestic” for the purpose of this study are: food, snacks, and soda; drugs and medicine; pet food and related products; clothing; personal and beauty care; household appliances/furnishings; and household cleaning agents. Those classified as “non-domestic” for the purpose of this study would be: automobile and accessories; institutional/public service; computers and/or electronics; restaurants and retail outlets; alcoholic beverages; finance and real estate; and other. Overall, of all of the advertisements identified and used for this study, the male was the product user in 96% of all of the advertisements included in this study. People and Cosmopolitan were the only two magazines in which males in advertisements were shown as the product user less than 96% of the time. When all decades were combined, males in advertisements in People were depicted as the product user 93% of the time and only 84% of the time in Cosmopolitan.

Table 15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Depictions of Males as Product Users all Magazines all Decades</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Advertisements for non-domestic products accounted for 44% of all advertisements in this study and advertisements for domestic products accounted for 56% of all advertisements in this study. Although males were dominant as product users in the advertisements in this study, the “personal and beauty care products” category and the “other” category were the only two categories that had any significant (though small) percentage of depictions of females as the product user. These two categories alone accounted for 2% of the 4% of the advertisements in this study which did not depict the male as the product user.

*Product User and Consumer Expenditure*

The next component of research question four evaluated whether or not the categories depicting males as the product users in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 coincide with consumer expenditure information for product categories for that same time period.

For the combined four time periods included in this study (1980, 1990, 2000, 2010), the four highest average annual consumer expenditure, according to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012) was finance and real estate with 20% of the average annual consumer expenditures in this category. Second to finance and real estate was “other” expenditures at 17%; followed by food at 15%; and automobile and accessories at 14%.

The depictions of males in the magazines in this study, when combined over the same time period for the study, were depicted more often as product users of clothing 38% of the time; as users of products in the “other” category 24% of the time; personal and beauty care 10% of the time; and alcoholic beverages for 5% of the time.
Overall, the average annual consumer expenditures were consistently similar, as were the depictions of males as product users. However, there was little correlation between the two. The 1980s, as reported in the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012), there was an equal percentage of average annual consumer expenditures at 20% for both finance and real estate, and the “other” category. Trailing by only three percentage points, the food, snacks and soda average annual consumer expenditure was 16% with the next closest category being institutional/public service at 11%. Different from the U.S. Bureau of Labor statistics, males in magazines advertisements in the 1980s were depicted 38% of the times as clothing product user; 24% of the time in the “other” product user category; 10% of the time as personal and beauty care product user; and 5% of the time as users of alcoholic products. There was a consistent division of the remaining 23% depictions among the remaining 10 categories.

Neither the annual average consumer expenditures, nor the depictions of males as product users changed much from 1980 through 2010. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2012), the highest percentage of average annual consumer expenditures was between 20% and 22% in finance and real estate for all four decades. Second highest expenditure was between 18% and 20% for the “other” category, with the exception of 2000 when food claimed the second highest percentage of annual average consumer expenditures at 20%. Although food, snacks and soda were the third highest in 1980, automobile and accessories was the third largest percentage of annual average consumer expenditures at 16% to 14% consistently from the 1990s through 2010. Holding a consistent fourth in average annual consumer expenditures were institutional/public service and food, snacks and soda. Institutional/public service expenditures were
recorded fourth in the 1980s at 11% and again in 2000 at 9%. Food, snacks and soda expenditures claimed the fourth spot in the 1990s at 15% and again in 2010 with 12%.

In comparison, males were depicted in the magazines in this study as product users of clothing most often in 1980 at 45% of the time; 42% of the time in 1990; and second most for the following two years at 22% in 2000 and 19% in 2010. The “other” category was second most popular as males depicted as product users for 20% of the depictions in 1980; 22% of depictions in 1990; and most popular in 2000 at 30% of the depictions and 34% in 2010. From 1980 through 2010 males were consistently depicted third most often using personal and beauty care products for 10% of all depictions in 1980; 9% in 1990; 14% in 2000; and 13% in 2010. The remaining advertisements were split among the remaining categories with no more than a 6% of the depictions of males as product users in any category for any decade.

*Product User in Product Categories by Ethnicity and Magazines.* Additionally, research question four also looked at whether or not there was a difference in the depiction of males as product users in certain product categories in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 between magazines.

*Sports Illustrated* had the highest percentage of males depicted in the “other” category with 32%. The second highest category was the 17% percentage points less with 15% in the “clothing” category. At four percentage points less, the “automotive and accessories” category and the “alcohol” category were tied with 11%. The remaining categories were minimal with less than 5% of the depictions in each category with the exception of the “pet food and related products” and the “household cleaning supplies” categories which each had no depictions in either category.
GQ had the highest percentage of males depicted in the “clothing” category with more than two-thirds of all of the depictions in this category. The second highest category was the “other” category with only 12%; the “personal and beauty care products” had 9%; and the remaining depictions were split among the remaining product categories with no more than 2% in each category except the “pet food and related products” category which had no depictions.

Cosmopolitan had similar percentages of depictions in the “food, snacks, or soda” category, the “clothing” category, the “personal and beauty care,” and the “other” category with 78% of the total depictions in Cosmopolitan almost equally split between these four categories. “Restaurants and retail outlets” had the next highest percentage with 6%, leaving the remaining depictions in Cosmopolitan equally split between the remaining categories with the exception of the following categories: pet food and related products; household appliances and furnishings; household cleaning agents; and finance and real estate for which there were no depictions of males as product users in any of those categories.

Essence had very similar results as Cosmopolitan with more than 80% of the depictions falling equally into the “clothing,” “personal and beauty care,” and “other” categories. “drugs and medicines” and “institutions and public service” had the second highest, but only 6% of the depictions in each category. The remaining categories were equally split with minimal remaining depictions with the exception of “household cleaning supplies.”

People had almost half of the males depicted almost equally in the “other” and the “personal care and beauty products” categories. Second was the “alcohol” and “food,
snacks and soda” categories with about 20% of the depictions and the remaining depictions were similarly split between the remaining categories with the exception of “pet food and related products,” “restaurant and retail outlets,” and “household cleaning supplies” categories.

*Ebony* had the highest depictions in the “other,” “clothing” and “personal and beauty care products” categories accounting for approximately two-thirds of all depictions. “Food, snacks and soda,” and “automotive and accessories” had equal representation with not quite one-fifth of the depictions, leaving the remaining depictions equally split between the remaining categories almost equally with the exception of “pet food and related products.”

As an added component, not only were the portrayals of males sorted by the various products they were depicted using, but as an added extra, the ethnic breakdown is also noted.

The males depicted in *Sports Illustrated* were White 85% of the time. Of the White males depicted in advertisements in *Sports Illustrated*, 30% of the depictions were of White males using products in the “other” category; 15% were depicted as product users of clothing; 13% were depicted as automobile and accessory product users; 11% were depicted using alcohol; and the remaining 31% were equally split among the remaining seven categories with the exception of: pet food and related products; household appliances and furnishings; and household cleaning agents for which there were no depictions of any white males as users for any of these categories.

About 1% of the males depicted in *Sports Illustrated* were American Indian and of these 60% were as restaurant and retail outlet users and 40% were using personal and
beauty care products. Native Hawaiians and Pacific Islanders also accounted for an approximate 2% combined of the males depicted as product users in *Sports Illustrated* and these depictions were equally split between users of alcohol and products in the “other” category.

The portrayals of Black males in *Sports Illustrated* accounted for 10% of all the depictions of males in this magazine with 30% of Black males depicted as using products in the “other category; 28% were depicted as using clothing products; 11% were depicted as food, snacks and soda users; and the remaining 31% were relatively equally split among the remaining seven product categories in this study with the exception of: pet food and related products; restaurants and retail outlets; household appliances and furnishings; and household cleaning agents for which there were no depictions of Black males as product users in any of these categories.

There was about 1% of the males in advertisements that were depicted as Asians with 50% of those depicted as institutional/public service users; 25% depicted as alcohol users; and 25% as computer and/or electronics users. Hispanics also accounted for about 1% of the males depicted in magazine advertisements in *Sports Illustrated* with 50% of the Hispanics depicted as computer and/or electronic users; 25% depicted as users of a financial product or real estate; and 25% as product users of products in the “other” category. There was also about 1% of the males depicted in *Sports Illustrated* that were depicted as of the ethnic background identified as “other,” and all of these were depicted as users of products in the “other” category.

*GQ* had the second highest percentage of White males depicted in magazine advertisements in this study with 90% of all of the males in advertisements in this
magazine being White. Of the White males depicted in *GQ*, 73% of them were depicted as users of clothing products; 9% were depicted as personal care and beauty care product users; 8% were depicted as users of products in the “other” category; and 6% were depicted as restaurant and retail outlet users. The depictions of the remaining 4% were equally split as product users in the remaining seven categories with the exception of food, snacks and soda; pet food and related products; and household cleaning agents for which there were no depictions of white males as product users for these categories.

Approximately 1% of the males depicted in *GQ* were American Indian and of these 80% were depicted as clothing product users and 20% as users of food, snacks and soda products. Native Hawaiians or Pacific Islanders also accounted for about 1% of the males depicted in *GQ* with 75% of them depicted as users of clothing products and 25% as alcohol product users. Black males accounted for 6% of all of the males depicted in *GQ* advertisements in this study. Of the Black males depicted in these advertisements, 32% were depicted as using clothing products; 23% were depicted as users of products in the “other” category; 18% were depicted as users of computer and/or electronic products; 14% were depicted as users of personal and beauty care products; and the remaining 16% were equally split as product users in the remaining four categories with the exception of the following product categories: food, snacks, and soda; institutional/public service; pet food and related products; household appliances/furnishings; household cleaning agents; and finance and real estate for which there were no depictions of Black males as product users in any of these categories in the advertisements in *GQ* for this study. For the remaining males in advertisements in *GQ*, about 1% were Asian with 70% of the Asian
males depicted as clothing users; and about 1% were of Hispanic origin with all of the males of Hispanic ethnicity being depicted as alcohol product users.

*Ebony* had a very different depiction of males in advertisements from both *Sports Illustrated* and *GQ*. There were no males in the advertisements in this study in *Ebony* that were depicted as either White, Native Hawaiian or Alaskan Native, Hispanic or Other. Approximately 1% of the total males depicted in advertisements in *Ebony* were American Indian or Alaskan Native or Asian, and all of them were depicted as product users of products considered in the “other” category. The majority of males depicted in advertisements in this study in *Ebony* were Black. As a matter of fact, 98% of the males depicted in advertisements in this study in *Ebony* were Black. The most popular product category for Black male product users was the “other” product category with 26% of the black Males depicted as users of products in this category. Clothing was the next most popular with 20% of males in the advertisements in *Ebony* in this study depicted as users of clothing products. In addition, 13% were depicted as personal and beauty care product users; 8% were depicted as food, snacks and soda product users; and 8% were depicted as automobile and accessory product users. The remaining Black males depicted in advertisements in this study in *Ebony* were equally split as product users in the remaining eight product categories, with the exception of the pet food and related products category for which there were no depictions of males as product users.

*People* was more in line with the depictions of males in advertisements in *Sports Illustrated* and *GQ*. Of all of the males depicted in advertisements in *People* for this study, 94% of them were White. Of the White males depicted in these advertisements, 37% of them were depicted as product users of products in the “other” category; 15%
were depicted as personal and beauty care product users; 11% were depicted as food, snacks and soda product users; and the remaining depictions of White males depicted in People in the advertisements for this study were equally split among the remaining 10 product categories with the exception of pet food and related products for which there were no White males depicted as product users.

There were no depictions of American Indian or Alaskan Natives, Native Hawaiians or Pacific Islanders, Hispanics or the “Other” ethnic category in People. There were only 6% of the males depicted in advertisements in People that were Black and 60% of those were depicted as product users for products in the “other” category; 27% were depicted as financial and real estate product users; and 13% were depicted as automobile and accessories product users. In addition, less than 1% of all the depictions of males in advertisements in People were Asian and they were all depicted as personal and beauty care product users.

The majority of the depictions of males in advertisements in Cosmopolitan were of White males. White males accounted for 88% of the males depicted in advertisements in Cosmopolitan. Of all of the depictions of White males in Cosmopolitan, 23% of the males were depicted as product users of products in the “other” category; 21% were depicted using personal and beauty care products; 17% were depicted using clothing products; and tied with clothing, 17% were depicted as food, snacks and soda users. The remaining 22% of the White males depicted in Cosmopolitan were equally split among the remaining six product categories with the exception of the following categories: pet food and related products; household appliances and furnishings; household cleaning
agents; and finance and real estate for which there were no depictions of males as product users in any of those categories.

The depiction of male minorities in *Cosmopolitan* were few with less than 1% of the total ads in *Cosmopolitan* depicting American Indian or Alaskan Native males and all of these were depicted as food, snacks, and soda users. Hispanics accounted for 3% of the males depicted in advertisements in *Cosmopolitan* for this study, and they were all depicted as restaurant and retail outlet users. There were no depictions of males as Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Asian, or the “Other” ethnicity category.

However, there were 8% of the total depictions of males in advertisements *Cosmopolitan* for this study that were Black or African American. The majority of these were depicted as using products from the “other” product category with 44% of the males depicted falling into this product user category; 19% were depicted as personal and beauty care product users; 19% as clothing product users; 12% were depicted using food, snacks or soda; and 6% were depicted using drugs and medicines.

*Essence* had the highest depiction of minority men in magazine advertisements with 94% of all males in the advertisements in this study depicting Black or African American males. Of the males depicted in *Essence*: 37% were depicted using products in the “other” category; 34% were depicted using personal and beauty care products; 6% were depicted using drug and medicine products; and the remaining 23% of the males depicted in advertisements in *Essence* were depicted in equal distribution as product users of the remaining nine categories with the exception of pet food and related products and household cleaning agents for which there were no depictions of Black or African American males as product users in either of these categories.
The only other ethnicity of males depicted in advertisements in *Essence* were of Hispanics which accounted for 6% of all the males depicted in magazine advertisements in *Essence*, and 67% were depicted as personal and beauty care product users and 33% were depicted as users of products in the “other” category. There were no depictions of males as White, American Indian or Alaskan Native, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, or Asian.

Table 16

**Depictions of Males as Product User by Magazine Interest Type**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fd Snk</th>
<th>Aut</th>
<th>Drgs</th>
<th>Meds</th>
<th>Inst P Ser</th>
<th>Pet Fd</th>
<th>Clot</th>
<th>Comp Elec</th>
<th>Pers Bty</th>
<th>Rest Retail</th>
<th>House Appl</th>
<th>Alc</th>
<th>Hshld Clean</th>
<th>Fin Rest</th>
<th>Othr</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men Int</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Winn Int</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen Int</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>87</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1023</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage and represents a percentage of the total number of ads.

Additionally, the results of males depicted as product users were grouped according to interest magazines. Overall, males depicted as product users were evenly distributed throughout all categories with the exception of “clothing” and the “other” category for each of the three interest magazines. A Chi-square cross tabulation was performed, $x^2 (2,699) = 355, p = 0.0$.

As shown in Table 16, the “clothing” product category had the highest percentage of depictions of males overall, and had the highest percentage of any other category for men’s interest magazines (*Sports Illustrated* and *GQ*) with 35% of the total ad population. The “other” category had the second highest percentage overall with 23% of the total ad population depicting males as product users in this category, and the second highest percentage in the men’s interest magazines (*Sports Illustrated* and *GQ*) with 11%;
the highest category in women’s interest magazines (Cosmopolitan and Essence) with 4%; and the highest category in the general interest magazines (Ebony and People) with 7%.

Product Users and Decades. The last segment of research question four looked at the difference in the depiction of males as product users in certain product categories in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 between decades.

Table 17

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fd Snk</th>
<th>Auto</th>
<th>Drugs</th>
<th>Meds</th>
<th>Instit. P Ser</th>
<th>Pet Fd</th>
<th>Cloth</th>
<th>Comp Elec</th>
<th>Pers Bty</th>
<th>Rest Retail</th>
<th>House Appl</th>
<th>Alc</th>
<th>Hshld Clean</th>
<th>Fin ReSt</th>
<th>Oth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>449</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>1990</td>
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<td>36</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>29</td>
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<td>381</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1023</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>619</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage and represents a percentage of the total number of ads.

The majority of all of the males depicted in advertisements in this study were White across all of the decades in this study, when comparing the depictions of the decade to the total advertisement population. In looking at depictions as a percentage of the individual decades, in 1980, 78% of all the males depicted in the six magazines in this study were White males. Of the White males depicted, 51% were depicted as clothing product users; 18% were depicted as users of products in the “other” category; and the remaining were depicted less than 6% of the time in the remaining ten categories with the exception of household cleaning agents and pet food and related products for which there were no white males depicted as product users in these categories.
The second highest depiction of males in the six magazines in this study for 1980 with regard to ethnicity were of Blacks or African Americans. Of all the advertisements in the six magazines in this study for the 1980s, 17% of the males depicted in advertisements in the six magazines were of Black or African American males with 38% of these depicted as using products in the “other” product category and 24% of these depicted using personal and beauty care products. The remaining depictions of males in these advertisements were: 1% American Indian, of which 33% were users of clothing products; 1% were depicted as Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, of which 66% were depicted as alcoholic beverage users; less than 1% were Asian and of those 67% were shown as users of institutional/public service products; and less than 1% were Hispanic and were shown using personal and beauty care products.

In the 1990s, 78% of all males depicted in magazine advertisements in the six magazines in this study were White. Of the White males depicted in advertisements in the six magazines in this study for the 1990s: 54% were depicting using clothing products; 14% were depicted using products in the “other” category; 9% were depicted as personal and beauty care product users; and there were less than 6% depicted as users in all other product categories with the exception of pet food and related products and alcoholic beverages for which there were no depictions of white males as product users.

In addition, similar to the 1980s, 19% of the males depicted in the six magazines in the study were Black or African American. Of the 19% Black males depicted in the six magazines in this study for the 1990s: 25% were depicted as users of products in the “other” category; 22% were depicted as personal and beauty care users; 14% were depicted as clothing product users; 8% were depicted using automobile and accessory
products; and the remaining depictions of Black males were 6% or less in each of the remaining product categories. American Indians or Alaskan Natives accounted for 1% of the depictions of males in the six magazines in the study for the 1990s. Asians accounted for 2% of the males depicted in advertisements in the six magazines in this study for the 1990s and 1% of the males depicted in advertisements in these magazines in the 1990s were Hispanic or Latino.

The depictions of males in the six magazines for this study shifted a great deal regarding ethnicity in the 2000s. Depictions of White males in magazine advertisements in the six magazines for this study only accounted for 57% of the total males depicted in these magazines for the 2000s. Of these: 24% were depicted using products in the “other” category; 18% were depicted using clothing products; 14% were depicted using personal and beauty care products; and there were no users in the pet food and related product category.

The percentage of Black or African American males depicted in the six magazines in this study in the 2000s rose to 38%. Of these depictions of Black or African American males: 22% were depicted as using products in the “other” product category; 17% were depicted as personal and beauty care product users; and 13% were depicted using clothing products. The remainder of the Black or African American males depicted in the 2000s for the six magazines in this study were equally distributed among the remaining nine product categories with the exception of household appliances/furnishings and pet food and related products for which there were no Black or African American males in this decade depicted as product users.
In the magazines advertisements in the 2000s, less than 1% of the males depicted were American Indian or Alaskan Native; less than 1% were Asian; less than 2% were Hispanic or Latino; and there were no males depicted as Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander in the advertisements in the six magazines in this study for the 2000s.

The trend of ethnic male depictions continued through 2010. The number of white males depicted in advertisements in the six magazines in this study for 2010 dropped to 51% of the total males depicted in these advertisements. Of this 51%, white males in these advertisements in 2010 were depicted: 28% were depicted as users of products in the “other” category; 21% were depicted as clothing product users; 8% were depicted as users of restaurants and retail outlets; and the remaining were equally distributed as product users in the remaining eight categories with the exception of pet food and related products, household appliances/furnishings, and household cleaning agents for which there were no depictions of white males as product users in any of these categories.

The number of Black or African American males depicted in magazine advertisements in the six magazines in this study increased for 2010 to 45%. Of these: 32% were depicted as users of products in the “other” product category; 38% were depicted as clothing product users; and the remaining were depicted as product users less than 5% of the time in the remaining nine product categories with the exception of pet food and related products, computers and/or electronics, and household cleaning agents for which there were no depictions of Black or African American males as product users. There were no depictions of American Indian or Alaskan Native males in advertisements in the six magazines in this study for 2010, and those males depicted as Native Hawaiian
or Pacific Islander, Asian, Hispanic or other combined to make up less than 1% of the males depicted in advertisements in these six magazines in 2010.

Age

The last research question sought to determine how males were portrayed in terms of age in magazine advertisements for the six magazines in this study between 1980 through 2010.

Table 18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Depictions of Males by Age by Magazines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage and represents a percentage of the total number of ads.

Males in the magazine advertisements in this study were between the ages of 25 and 44 years of age in more than 50% of the depictions in these advertisements. In answering research question number five, the data shows that males are portrayed in the
25-44 year-old age category more often than in any other age category. Of all the males coded in all of the advertisements for this study, 52% of the males in the advertisements were between the age of 25 and 44 years-old; 24% were between the age of 45 and 59 years-old; 21% were between the age of 18 and 24 years-old; 2% were 60 years of age or older; and 1% were less than 18 years of age.

Age and Census Data. The second part of research question number five looked at the portrayal of the age of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 to determine if they coincided with census demographic information for the same time periods.

The Census data from 1980 shows that 49% of the total population in 1980 were males. Males under 18 years of age accounted for 15% of the total population. Males between the ages of 18 and 24 years of age accounted for 7% of the total population. Males aged 25 to 44 accounted for 14% of the total population. Males ages 45 to 59 years-old accounted for 8% of the total population, and males aged 60 years-old and over accounted for 7% of the total population.

According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2012) with regards to only the male population: 15% of the males are under the age of 18 years-old; 7% were between the ages of 18 and 24 years of age; 14% were between the ages of 25 and 44 years-old; 8% were between the ages of 45 and 59 years-old; and 7% were age 60 and older.

The 1990s revealed a huge discrepancy between the Census data and the magazine depictions in two of the five the age categories: the under 18 category showed a 1% portrayal in magazines, yet the U.S. Census (2012) revealed 14% of the male population in this category for the 1990s; and magazines depictions recorded 1% of
males in the 60 + category, yet the U.S. Census (2012) showed a six percentage point discrepancy with 7% of the male population in this category for 1990. The remaining age categories were somewhat similar: the 25 – 41 year-old age category showed 15% for males in magazines depicted in this category and 16% for males in the Census (2012); the 18-24 year-old age group showed 6% for both male depictions in magazines in this study and the 1990 U.S. Census (2012) data; and the 45-54 year old age group had only 1% discrepancy with 7% in male depictions in magazines and 8% in the U.S. Census (2012) data.

The year 2000 had discrepancies in more of the categories: 13% of males were recorded under 18 years-of age in the U.S. Census (2012), yet there was only a 1% depiction of males in this age group in magazines in this study; 16% were recorded in the U.S. Census (2012) data for the 25-41 year-old category, yet only 10% were identified in this age group in the magazine depictions of males in this study; 7% were recorded by the U.S. Census (2012) in the 60 + age group, yet only 1% were identified in magazine depictions in this study for 2000; the 18-24 category showed 5% for the U.S. Census (2012) data, yet 6% depictions of males in magazines fell in this category; and there was a four percentage point difference between the 9% noted in the U.S. Census (2012) data population in 2000, and the 5% identified in magazines in this study for that age group.

In 2010 there was a greater disparity between the U.S. Census data and the depictions of males in magazines. Males were recorded at 13% in the U.S. Census (2012) data for the under 18 age group, yet there was only 1% of the males depicted in this category; 14% were recorded in the U.S. Census (2012) for the 25-41 age group, yet only 5% of the depictions of males in magazines in this study fell in this category; 9% were
recorded by the U.S. Census (2012) in the 60+ age group, yet only 1% of the males in magazines in this study were depicted in this category; 6% were recorded in the Census (2010) for the 18-24 age group, yet only 2% were identified in this group of the depictions of males in magazines in this study; and 11% were recorded by the Census (2012) data in the 45-59 age group, while only 3% were identified in this age group in the depictions of males in magazines in this study.

In comparing the actual Census data with the age depictions of males in advertisements in the magazines in this study, there was consistent discrepancy between the Census data and the magazine depictions in the under 18 year-old category, and the 60+ year-old age group. The remaining categories had similar differences in comparison throughout decades in each category.

*Age and Magazines.* The third component of research question number five sought to determine if there is a difference in the portrayal of the age of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 between magazines. (See Table 18.) A Chi-square computation was calculated on the depictions of males combining magazine by interest type and yielded \( \chi^2 (2,699) = 79.2, \ p = 00. \)

Table 19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Depictions of Males by Age and Magazines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Men’s Interest</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

117
People and Essence had the most consistent depictions of males in magazines with regard to age and percentages in each category. However, People had the highest percentage of depiction of males in the 25 to 44 year-old age group with 57% of the males in advertisements depicted in this age group. The 45 to 59 year-old category was second most popular with 19% of the males depicted falling in this category. Third was the 18 to 24 year-old category with 17% of the males depicted falling into this category. Following was the 60 years of age and older category with 6% of the males depicted falling in this category. The least popular category was less than 18 years old category with only 1% of the depictions.

Cosmopolitan followed with 55% of the males depicted being between 25 and 44 years of age. The 45 to 59 year-old category followed with 27% of the males depicted in this age group. Following was the 18 to 24 year-old age group with 15% of the males depicted as such. The least two categories were the less than 18 year-old category with only 2% and the 60 years of age and older category barely with 1%.

Sports Illustrated, Essence and Ebony were somewhat parallel. Sports Illustrated had 54% of the males depicted as between the ages of 25 and 44. The 45 to 59 year-old age category was second most popular in Sports Illustrated with 31% of the males depicted in this category. The 18 to 24 year-old category was third most popular with
12% of the males depicted falling in this category. The least popular categories were the
60 and over category with only 2% of the males depicted falling in this category and only
1% of the males were depicted as being less than 18 years-old.

Similar to Sports Illustrated, Essence was also closely reflective of the overall
magazine percentages with 54% of the males depicted as between the ages of 25 and 44
years-old. The 45 to 59 year-old category was second most popular with 25% of the
males depicted as such. The 18 to 24 year-old category was third most popular with 18%
of the males depicted falling in this category. There were only 3% of the males depicted
as being 60 years of age and older, and there were no depictions of males under the age
of 18 years-old.

Ebony was somewhat similar with 53% of the males depicted as between the ages
of 25 and 44 years of age. The second most popular age category for the males depicted
in advertisements was the 45 to 59 year-old age group with 31% of the males depicted as
such. There were 9% males in these advertisements depicted between the age of 18 and
24; 6% age 60 and older; and only 1% were depicted as being less than 18 years-old.

GQ had the greatest inconsistency with the overall percentages. Lower than any
other magazine, GQ had only 48% of the males in advertisements in this study depicted
as males ages 25 to 44 years-old. There were 30% of the males in the advertisements
depicted in GQ as part of this study that were between the ages of 18 to 24 years-old.
Unlike any other magazine, the third most populated age group for the depiction of men
in advertisements in GQ was the 45 to 59 year-old age group with 19%. The two least
popular age groups were the less than 18 year-old age group with only a 2% population
and the 60 years-old and older age group with only a 1% population.
Age and Decades. The final research question in this study was designed to determine if there was a difference in the portrayal of the age of males in magazine advertisements between 1980 through 2010 between decades.

A Chi-square computation was conducted on depictions of males by age and decade, $x^2 (2,699) = 71.9, p = 0.0$.

The 25 to 44 year-old age group was most popular for the age of the males depicted in advertisements in this study across all decades in this study. It was most popular in the 1980s with 58% of the males depicted in this age group. Second was the 1990s with 53%; followed by the decade of 2000 with 46% and 2010 with 45%.

Table 20

Depictions of Males by Age and Decades

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>18-24</th>
<th>25-44</th>
<th>45-59</th>
<th>60+</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>574</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1%</td>
<td></td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1%</td>
<td></td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1%</td>
<td></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1%</td>
<td></td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1397</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>557</td>
<td>613</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage and represents a percentage of the total number of ads.

Consistent with the statistical percentages in magazines in this study, the popularity of the 45 to 59 year-old age group was second in every decade except 2000. In the 1980s, males depicted in the magazines in this study were depicted in the 45 to 59 age
group category in 21% of the depictions. In the 1990s they were still second with 23% of the males in advertisements falling into the 45 to 59 year-old age group. The 2000 decade was different in that the popularity of the 45 to 59 year-old age group was third with 23%-a disparity of five percentage points less in popularity than the second most popular category. The 45 to 59 year-old age group regained its popularity in 2010 and was second with 29% of the males depicted in advertisements in this study depicted in this age group.

The 18 to 24 year-old age group had its greatest popularity in the 2000s with 28% of the males depicted in the advertisements in this study reflective of this age group. Second in this age group in popularity was the 1990 decade with 22% of the males depicted in advertisements in this study in this age group. There were 20% of the males in advertisements in this study during 2010 that were depicted in the 18 to 24 year old age group. This age group, the 18 to 24 year-olds, were least popular in the 1980s with only 16% of the males depicted in advertisements in this study being depicted in this age category.

The 60 year-old and above age group was most popular in the 1990 decade but only had a 4% representation. The year 2010 was even lower in representation of this age group with only 3% of the males depicted in advertisements in this study depicted as age 60 or older. The 2000s had only 2% of the males depicted in advertisements in this study depicted as age 60 or older and even less was the depiction of males age 60 and older in the 1980s at 1%.

The category with the least popularity in each decade was the depiction of males in advertisements in this study as being younger than 18 years-old. In 2010 it was the highest at 3% but was only 1% in each of the decades 2000, 1990, and 1980 respectively.
CHAPTER VI – CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Conclusion

This study set out to compare male images depicted in six popular magazines against the actual population data, and between magazines and between decades. The preface behind the idea of this study is that the population itself and the behavior, habits, and lifestyles of the population have changed significantly since the 1970s. As the culture, demographics and lifestyles of society have evolved, the questions are raised as to whether or not the media is promulgated these changes or has the media continued to frame the stereotypical images that have withstood changes over time and through the various mediums.

Males were selected because there is a disparity in the studies of males as compared to females. Eisend (2010) looked at a meta-analysis of gender roles in advertising and noted, “the degree of gender stereotyping in advertising, possible changes of gender stereotyping over the years, and the nature of the relationship between gender stereotyping in advertising and role changing developments in society have not yet been studied in previous research” (p. 418). In reviewing previous research, it was evident that not only were females more dominantly the focus of most of the research, but sexuality and body image were of the greatest focus.

Because framing of images in the media is so salient this study aimed to expand not only the research on males, but to expand the various categories researched with regards to depictions of males. Entman (1993) said that through framing, gatekeepers of the media “select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal
interpretation, moral evaluation, and/or treatment recommendation for the item described,” (p. 52). This has such an effect on so many aspects of reality that several areas were chosen to identify if the framing through advertisements were a realistic portrayal or a mediated one and what the significance of such was. Is the media reflecting societal norms as Frith and Mueller (2010) claim or are they creating them as Holden (2004) claims and teaching values and roles of society (Pollay, 1986)?

Knoll et al. (2011) concede that advertising acts to establish heuristic cues which serve to pre-empt society. Espinosa (2010) claims stereotypes shape behavior and affects perception of reality. Stern (2003) says gender stereotypes construct how males and females see their place in society. Coltrane and Messineo (2000) establish that stereotypes regarding ethnicity create prejudice. All of these create a foundation that supports images in advertising and stereotypes in advertising have a great influence on how individuals perceive the world and create a reality based on these images. The fact that there is found a discrepancy found in this study between depictions of males in advertising and Census data information, can be interpreted that advertising that does not reflect reality (as this study has shown is the case), creates an unrealistic idea of the world individuals live in and can lead to unrealistic beliefs, behaviors and expectations.

*Occupation*

The first research question sought to determine how males were portrayed in terms of occupation: was the portrayal of males consistent; did it coincide with census data; and was there a difference in these portrayals between magazines and decades. The findings were that the depictions of males in regard to occupation were consistent throughout the magazine advertisements as they were most often depicted as being in an
occupation identified as an occupation “other” than the six occupational categories identified by the U.S. Census Bureau. The U.S. Census data (2010), although showing a decline of males 16 years of age and older in the workforce from 1940 to 2010 by 13%, they noted a steady increase for the same time period in percent of employed people in the services industry and suggested the service industry as the fastest growing employment industry in the U.S. The images of males depicted in the early decades in this study initially seemed relevant to the U.S. Census (2010) data if the males depicted in magazines in occupations classified as “other” were removed from the tally. However, consistent among all magazines was the absence of males portrayed in the occupations of “production, transportation and materials moving” comparable to the U.S. Census (2010) data employment information. Therefore, the depictions of males in advertisements in the magazines and for the time period in this study were relatively consistent between magazines but were not reflective overall of the actual U.S. Census (2010) occupation data for the same time period. Eisend’s (2010) meta-analysis showed a high magnitude of stereotyping for occupational categories. Interestingly enough, the category with the highest numbers in terms of depictions in occupation categories was the “other” category. The significance of this is first, those individuals who were not depicted in one of the categories for occupation defined by the U.S. Census data were categorized as “other.” Also, those males that were not clearly depicted in a specific occupation were also categorized as “other.” In this study, many of the males depicted were either solo, with no indication of occupation or simply with no indication of occupation. One inference for this can be made that the male is no longer driven by the 8 to 5 career or occupation and that in more recent times, occupations are of less significance than previously.
Overall, the results showed that male depictions in the six magazines in this study for the decades 1980 through 2010 were not a mirror of the U.S. Census (2012) data. The 1980s were not so discrepant regarding occupation, with the exception of the difference in blue collar labor depictions. Construction, extraction and maintenance, along with production, transportation and material moving occupations were grossly underrepresented in magazines depictions when compared to U.S. Census (2012) data.

Magazine depictions when evaluated by interest magazines, had the same results as were found in the decade comparison-males were more often depicted in all three groups as professional, service and sales. This could quite possibly be a reflection of a time when industry was on the decline compared to the Industrial boom, and the framing of males in professional, service and sales occupation were used as a depiction of the future of the workforce. These images were framed in such a way as to set a trend as to what the future workforce could possibly look like and create the culture and depiction of socializing readers to the forecast of the future. It is significant to note that there were high percentages in the “other” category when looking at occupations. This can be attributed to the fact that many of the advertisements employed celebrities, or there was no indication of occupation. The frequent appearance of celebrities is an indication of a society that holds celebrities in high esteem – such that they are ever-present in the media because of some perceived significance. Or, perhaps, the media is framing celebrity status as being of significance by constantly exhibiting it.

The fact that there were also depictions with no indication of occupation so that the “other” category had such significantly high numbers, could also be an indication that the framing of such indicates a society that is not work-oriented and again, the media
leads the perception that occupation is not significant enough to be identified predominantly in a majority of the media. All of these have some indication as to what society perceives or what it is the media has framed the message to be.

Leiss, Kline, and Jhally (1986) have referred to advertisements as “one of the greatest vehicles of social communication, a vast system with ‘unsurpassed communicative powers’” (p. 7). Rudman and Borgida (1995) concluded that based on gender stereotyping studies, advertising has a great deal of influence on how people see each other and relate to one another. Williamson (1978) describes advertisements as being one of the most influential cultural factors on society. Since the research shows advertising as having such a powerful influence, it is important to understand whether advertising is reflecting reality or perpetrating it. In this study, the media is perpetrating the popularity of certain occupations. The question is whether the intention is to encourage males to strive for those occupations that are more prevalent by framing individuals in these types of occupations or are they strictly depicting the stereotype of what “ought to be” or “is evident?” It should also be noted that most of the readership for the magazines in the study were of affluent status, therefore occupation may not be a topic of interest or one that is used to attract attention for the readership.

In terms of media as a gatekeeper, or the amount of effective framing that the media controls, it is significant that “occupation” appears somewhat irrelevant when the comparison between number of depictions and depictions in specific occupations are made. The relevance is that occupations, industries, and certain sectors of occupations could make a significant impression on society through a saturated advertisement implementation of males in a certain occupation or work force so as to dominate
depictions of males in such occupations to gain interest to or awareness of a specific occupation. The body of research should note that there is an absence of a dominant occupation depiction of males.

*Family Roles*

The second research question sought to find if males were depicted in roles similar to or reflective of how males are identified regarding households and household makeup in the U.S. Census. The true foundation was to identify if the depictions of males in various roles in magazine advertisements reflected the changes identified by the U.S. Census data. According to the U.S. Census (2010) data, the percentage of family households continues to drop, showing a 24% drop from 1940 to 2010. The U.S. Census (2010) also shows a 2% increase in the percent of males never married; a 9% decrease in married males; and a 9% increase in divorced males from 1940 to 2010. The U.S. Census (2010) data also notes that “female maintained other family households declined as a proportion of all other households” which they also suggest “implies that male-maintained other family households increased” (p.158). The rise in the male householder in family households rose 66% from 1980 to 1990; 40% from 1990 to 2000; and 39% from 2000 to 2010 according to the U.S. Census Bureau, statistical Abstract of the U.S. (2012, p. 54). If advertisers were consistent to the Census data population information, there would be a decline in males depicted in family roles such as spouse, and an increase in depictions of males in roles such as parent or homemaker. However, males were consistently depicted in the role identified as “other” in the advertisements in the magazines and time frame for this study. Overall males in advertisements in this study were depicted as a parent less than 13% of the time with the percentage of males depicted
as a parent decreasing over the decades more so than increasing. On the other hand, somewhat consistent with the U.S. Census (2010) data, the depictions of males as spouse or boyfriend also decreased overall as the decades passed.

Although the depictions of males in advertisements did not overwhelmingly show males in roles of homemaker or parent, the depictions had similar reflection to the trends of the Census data regarding the decrease in males being married and the increase in males never married and divorced. Herein arises the question that becomes even more significant in that do we know or understand the power of the perceptions gained as a result of media framing? It is of interest to have a conversation about the significance of such information from the standpoint of is the media, by framing images, creating a society that devalues the family unit and thereby as a result we begin to see a decline in the family unit? Although the data does show a decline in the family unit, is it the media’s responsibility to frame images in such a way as to perpetrate a more responsible society or to mirror the breakdown of the family unit?

It is again significant to point out that the readership of the magazines in the study were middle to affluent class; overall, majority percentage were single; and around the median age of 39 (for the most part) which would indicate they are new to parenting perhaps and not yet settled or old enough to have aging parents. This would, therefore, run consistent with the depictions of males in the “other” category.

Anderson and Hamilton (2005) in studying stereotyping of parents concluded:

A risk of stereotypical portrayals is that they may socialize children and parents at important periods in their development, when parents identify their role in the
spectrum from affectionate caregiver to deadbeat absentee, and when children form their expectations of their parents. (p. 150)

The significance here is as the dynamic of the American household changes (as established by the U.S. Census data), is advertising perpetrating expectations that no longer exist? If the Census shows a change in families and households, then it is significant that the findings show that males depicted in advertisements in family roles is not parallel to reality. This leads to an unrealistic expectation of family and home and can lend to a magnitude of challenges associated with failed expectations. Future studies should be conducted on a longitudinal basis to replicate the same in another 20 years to see if in fact, advertisements have completed abandoned the reality of family roles. In addition, the study should be expanded to a different category of magazines or a comparative of various categories of magazines such as parenting magazines versus women’s magazines or even teen magazines.

Additionally, understanding the portrayal of males in family roles also lends insight to how marketers view male roles and the dynamics of the family. Vavrus (2002) documents the onset of “Mr. Mom” as the increase in the numbers of dad that stay home since the 1980s, changing the male’s role in the family. This is also the time of the beginning of the emergence of male-led single parent households. As Kaufman (1999) noted, “commercials may act as a socializing agent for parents, especially fathers. In a time when men’s roles are changing, real men need a point of comparison” (p.456). Marketers could use this time as an initiation to socialize these males to use their products by being some of the first to introduce males to the success in using their products. The fact that there is little to no consistent depictions of males in family roles,
there is an open market that could be considered ground breaking to employ the reality of the new roles of males in advertisements. To deny the image of supportive fathers and caregivers, or the changing roles of males could only enlarge the role inequality and disempower those males who have taken on their new roles in society. As previously stated in the literature review, both Bandura (1961) and Heath and Bryant (2000) explain that individuals model what they observe, especially in the mass media. The family roles in advertisements should reflect reality so as to teach society how to interact in the real world. Otherwise, society is learning to model behavior that is impractical with the evolving change in circumstance.

Here, future research could be conducted by interviewing single dads and exposing them to depictions of males in various roles in advertisements to gauge if in fact they would be more appreciative and influenced by advertisements that are more reflective of society.

*Ethnicity*

Plous and Neptune (1997) pointed out that content analysis of stereotypes regarding race have “rarely distinguished between male and female portrayals” (p. 629). Since males have been studied less in how they are depicted compared to females, this study undertook looking at males and the portrayal of males in advertisements with regards to some of the variables with the most significant population change. One of these happened to be the ethnicity of the population.

The third research question compared ethnicity of males depicted in the magazine advertisements in this study to the actual Census population data. “Stereotypical depictions of men and women and of ethnic minority groups in advertisements is
problematic because studies have shown that repeated exposure to selective portrayals of particular groups can lead to viewers adopting distorted beliefs about those groups’ (Rubie-Davies, Christine, Liu, & Lee, 2013, p. 175). Additionally, Mastro, Behm-Morawitz, and Ortiz (2007) point out that “the effects of … distorted images can be influential, particularly in relation to ethnic minorities when viewers have limited contact with certain groups” (p. 348). Dana and O’Sullivan (2007) and Mastro et al. (2007) also claim that the portrayal of ethnic minorities in stereotypical roles can influence how these individuals view themselves and how they are viewed by others. These perpetuate attitudes and such about ethnic classes that can often be incorrect and irresponsible. This could also perpetuate racism that is not blatant and obvious, but exists none the less and is perpetrated through advertisements. Even Coltrane and Messineo (2000) have argued that imagery that is subtly racial has withstood long before blatant racism in various advertisements.

Throughout the various categories, it is important to determine if, in fact, there is subtle racism through the inclusion or exclusion of certain ethnic representations and how they compare to Census data. Unfortunately, the readership of the magazine had a greater influence over the ethnicity of the male images than did the reality of the population. Typically, those magazines with a majority White readership had a majority of the males depicted also as being white (such as Cosmopolitan and GQ) and the same for the publications with a majority Black readership having a majority of the males depicted also as being Black (such as Ebony and Essence). It is understandable that images in magazines will tend to reflect the readership of that magazine. However, the largest disparity between the Census population data and the ethnicity of males depicted in
advertisements for this study was among the Hispanic population. The Hispanic population was grossly underrepresented in both between magazines and between decades. The U.S. census population shows an increase in minority populations, yet the depictions noted in the magazines in this study were more loyal to the ethnicity of the readership of the magazine than they were to the population results. It is unrealistic for a population to segment by race or ethnicity and each of those function within its own independent segment. Therefore, by the framing of advertisements regarding race or ethnicity in each magazine, the depictions become an unrealistic presentation of the world and thereby lead to unrealistic expectations. On the other hand, it is also a reflection of society perhaps, that each race or ethnicity is so consumed with their own race or ethnicity that the reality is there is no real interest in another’s. However, statistically there is such a huge migration towards a more integrated population and household, that framing a society in advertisements that does not breach the lines of change creates a false perception of reality.

Product User

The fourth research question sought to identify the portrayal of men as product users to determine if as the Census data shows the household and roles of men have changed, have their purchasing patterns or patterns of product usage changed to reflect such? Sirgy (1982) claims user imagery is essentially a stereotyped perception of the generalized user of a particular brand (p. 291). Pack, Nelson, and Vilela (2011) also believe that it is important to examine gender roles for the success of product brands. Belk (1988) states that what someone possess creates their identity in that meaning is associated with product choices, just as Schroeder and Zwick (2004) claim that identity is
associated with consumption. The ideas expressed above can be used as a foundation to conclude that much can be learned about product users or the association between gender and product user. The users of certain product categories can indicate what is important to a specific class or gender, and certain associations can be made. For instance, a female’s consistent portrayal with beauty care shows the importance placed on beauty in society and perhaps what that might indicate about how society views women.

Initially, the majority of the males depicted in advertisements in this study were depicted as product users. However, it is not unexpected to find 96% of the males depicted as product user since the study was limited to advertisements depicting males. The depictions of males as product users in the magazine advertisements in this study remained relatively consistent throughout both decades and magazines studied. Males depicted as users of clothing products was most consistent and the categories ran parallel throughout. However, the Bureau of Labor (2010) Consumer Expenditure Survey noted that “the shares of average annual expenditures allocated to food and to apparel and services declined over the 1984-2008 period” (p. 1) although personal consumption expenditures grew rapidly since 1980 (Toosi, 2002). The depictions of males in advertisements for this study were mostly of males using products associated with clothing or those considered in the “other” category, which was not consistent with consumer expenditure data. There was little difference in these depictions across magazines and decades. Again, the results of such depict a society of well-clothed, predominantly middle-class and above population that can expect to or perceive that they must be “best-dressed,” or that physical appearance is highly valued. These depictions could also be contributed to, again, the affluent readership of the selected magazines. As
the readership of the selected magazines are affluent, middle-aged and mostly single, the products they are most depicted in would reflect a lifestyle that coincides. On the other hand, this creates an unrealistic perception which some individuals may not be able to ever realize and therefore can lend to a population of individuals whom may never find fulfillment of the unrealistic perception constantly framed in the media.

Future research should include a regrouping of magazines. For instance, all women’s magazines should be compared to identify if product user is consistent throughout for various product categories. Same with male interest magazines. There can also be a comparison of trade magazines or travel magazines respectively.

Age

The fifth and final research question dealt with identifying the age of males depicted in the magazine advertisements in this study comparative to the Census data. The depictions of males regarding age remained consistent throughout each of the magazines when compared to each other and between decades, but were not consistent with U.S. Census data. The under 18 population was significantly under-represented in magazine advertisements, but that should be attributed to the fact that that age group is not the desirable age group for most advertisers because they have little expendable income. However, it has been noted that the consumerism of children has supported several product categories and companies and should be considered as a productive market to pursue. The 60+ age group was also somewhat discrepant, but it should also be noted that this group has been identified with disposable income and would serve beneficial to pursue. Age depiction, however, much like several of the other categories
researched here, was more reflective of the readership of each magazine, as opposed to the Census data.

Overall, in seeking to find if magazine advertisements in this study reflected the population data for the same time period, this study showed that they did not. It is evident that stereotypical images still exist with little change and generally do not reflect the economic and domestic changes identified by the population. It became overly evident that framing serves as a significant practice in magazines. This study identified several areas where the depictions of males in magazines were framed as to not reflect the actual societal population. This is significant in that theoretical implications from a sociological standpoint can be developed as to the result of framing and what affect it has. And, from a consumerism standpoint, there is a large population that has been missed in targeting as shown by a growing minority population that is not depicted in advertisements.

Advertising’s goal is to sell. Visual cues we find in advertisements are linked with status, societal views, rewards, emotions and feelings. Magazines provide an image “frozen” in a medium that is more easily accessible in society, and that has withstood time. The images sought are those that reinforce ego and self-esteem. Therefore, there is much that individuals and corporations can learn from such a study. The deficiencies identified in the relationship between the image and the population can be capitalized upon to develop brand relationships and increase sales.

Limitations

Although every effort was made to keep the integrity and validity of all data and data sets in this study, there are some obvious limitations. The first of these is that the population data can only be gathered from several sources. Unfortunately, most of the
limitations deal with those of the U.S. Census data, which was a major source of comparable.

Census data is collected through a “self-reporting” process whereby individuals complete the questionnaires and provide information. Therefore, as detailed as the instructions may be for completing such data forms, there is always room for human error. And, within a household, answers may also differ based on the individual who completes the questionnaire. Additionally, there were some limitations in the availability of the data. For example, it wasn’t until the late 1990s and 2000 that the ethnic or race question was expanded on Census questionnaires. Individuals were asked to pick that which “most” described their ethnicity. Hispanic was considered an ethnicity, not a race, so individuals could be multi-ethnic, thereby skewing the validity of the data.

There was also some limitations in the reporting of the occupation category. There was little change in the availability of expanded occupation categories in Census data therefore many depictions of occupations in magazines were classified as “other” because there was little expansion in the availability of occupation. The same can be said with consumer expenditure survey data. The categories had only been expanded slightly in 1990 and have not been expanded again to match consumer product purchasing categories as in-depth as magazines depict users in advertisements. Other categories that could have been expanded were the product user category that could have included tobacco products. The occupation category could have also been expanded to include celebrity or actors.

Another limitation is the magazines selected for use. Only six magazines is a small sample set. There could be a broader base of magazines selected. Additionally,
although several 30 year studies used the same time frame, for the 1980, 1990 and 2000, the sample was selected at five-year intervals (1980, 1985, 1990, 1995, 2000, 2005) whereas 2010 did not include the five-year interval (2015) because of the timing of this study. Therefore, the decade 2010 was only one-half the sample as the other decades.

One last limitation is that there was an overwhelming disparity in the number of advertisements from *GQ* as compared to the other three magazines. *GQ* is a publication with a high number of pages, and a high percentage consists of single males in clothing ads. Added into the whole population, this can tend to skew the results somewhat when looking at results in any other breakdown except the magazine.

All of these issues were taken into account and were adjusted for as best as possible. Any adjustments made were consistent so as not to interfere with the integrity of the data or the validity of the results.

*Future Research*

The question has risen as to what the significance of this research is? What did it accomplish? Were the results not expected and what could come from “expected results?” In committee, it was posited that the media will not change as long as it continues to be in the hands of the ownership it has always been in so what really is the point?

Initially it is important to address that concern by saying ownership of the media and its various outlets may never change, but that does not mean that research and scrutiny of these outlets should halt because ownership remains consistent. There is a significant change in the demographics of society and in the characteristics by which members of society define themselves. If the media continues to ignore such changes,
they will perpetrate an unhealthy image of society that should be identified and either
negated or countered privately so that generations do not grow up with this distorted view
of “the real world.” It is also important to identify that there are consequences to a
continued cultivation of unrealistic expectations through an inaccurate portrayal of
society in the media. At some point there needs to be some accountability. At some point
the “status quo” of the media should no longer be accepted and the consequences of the
inaccurate portrayals which possibly create inaccurate expectations need to be addressed.
It is significant that the media is perpetrating a reality that counters that which exists.

Secondly, most things remain the same until there are some challenges or research
that brings to light the need for change. The expectations in this study were that
depictions would more closely reflect society. The reality is that society has changed
more than most are willing to acknowledge and the media has not at all represented such.
It could be noted as a market share lost; or it could be noted as perpetration of an
unrealistic expectation and image of society. It is research that is necessary to support
what is thought to be known for it’s the only way to affect change.

This research and findings can be used in several ways to better target advertising
for consumer target populations. First it can be combined with research that identifies
how individuals react to stereotypes – are they more accepting of traditional stereotypes
or nontraditional. This study shows that stereotypes are standard in the magazines in this
study and therefore can determine if, in fact, there should be a change in depictions.

This study could also be used as a basis for cultivation research. In knowing much
of the advertisements are not consistent with Census data, the images can be used to
establish a viewing forum and question and answer to panels of participants to see if
indeed readers see the world as depicted in the magazines (cultivated by advertisements), or if they see a discrepancy in the images and therefore see the world as being more consistent with Census information.

This study could also be a basis to be expanded upon in the next 10 years. The population demographic changes began to be significant 35 years ago, but are expected to change exponentially in the next 10 to 15 years. A longitudinal study that carries through and examines the same components could have greater significance if determining if advertising reflects society; or does society strive to mirror advertising.
APPENDIX A – Coding Sheet

CODING SHEET

Class: A B C D Grade: X Y Z Ad item # _____________

1. What page number is the item on (ex.09): _____________

2. What is the product category being advertised: _____________

   1. Food, snacks, soda
   2. Automobile and accessories
   3. Drugs and medicines
   4. Institutional/public service
   5. Pet food and related products
   6. Clothing
   7. Computers and/or electronics
   8. Personal and beauty care
   9. Restaurants and retail outlets
  10. Household appliances/furnishings
  11. Alcoholic beverages
  12. Household cleaning agents
  13. Finance and real estate
  14. Other

3. Is the male the product user? Yes No

4. Is the male in this ad shown as a solo male, or in a group? Solo 1 Group 2

5. In what role is the character primarily portrayed?

   1. Spouse/boyfriend
   2. Parent
   3. Homemaker
   4. Worker
   5. Friend
   6. Grandparent
   7. Caregiver
   8. Other

6. What is the approximate age of the male character?

   1. Under 18
   2. 25 – 44 years of age
   3. 60 and older
   4. 18 – 24 years of age
   5. 45 – 59 years of age
7. What is the ethnicity of the male character?

1. White  
2. American Indian or Alaskan Native  
3. Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander  
4. Other  
5. Black or African American  
6. Asian  
7. Hispanic or Latino  

8. The character is portrayed

   In a work situation 1
   In a nonwork situation but appears to be employed 2
   Without indication of employment 3

9. If employed (If the answer to question number 9 above is 1 or 2), the portrayed occupation is

   Management, professional and related occupation 1
   Service occupation 2
   Sales and office occupations 3
   Farming, fishing and forestry 4
   Construction, extraction and maintenance 5
   Production, transportation and material moving 6
   Other 7

10. The male character appears to be of which social class status: ___________________
Social Class Status Reference

**Affluent**

Black-tie tuxedo/gown
International
Mansion, estate, private yacht/jet, private beach
Exclusive
Paris/Rome
Fur coats/stoles
Upswept hair
Conservative suits (blazer-style; knee-length skirts)
Tennis/racquetball, golf course, sailing/marina
Opera/theater, restaurants (linen/crystal/marble)
Conservative colors (navy, beige, burgundy, gray, gold/pearls)
Bayside tables
Pumps/oxfords
Executive suite
Savoir faire
Taste

**Trendy**

High fashion (asymmetrical/layered/glitter/fringe/studs leather/fur, double-breasted oversized suits, short skirts)
Modern
Unique
Dancing/aerobics (bungee-jumping, skate-boarding, dating/flirting)
Spike heels/high boots
Rapping
Colors (fluorescent fuschia/yellow/teal/orange)
Houseboats
Jewelry excessive/metallic
Apartments
Fresh
Beards/facial hair
Today
Cutting edge
Dance concerts
Everyday

Casual clothes: sweats/jeans/flannels/polos/sweaters/bathrobes

Honesty
Sand castles
biking/picnics
Sneakers
Families, weddings, recitals/sports
Nostalgia
Plain jeans/white T-shirt
Kitchen/backyard
Studio apartment, balcony/patio
Blue-collar/pink-collar (plain jeans; white T-shirts; ill-fitting clothes; no jewelry; plain shoes; plastic shoes, accessories)
Salt of the Earth
Construction site
Repair garage

Reliability
Snowball fights,
Dependability
Blue collar
Just like .Neighbors…Family
Station wagons, graduations
Front porch
Common concerns/worries
Unaffected/unpretentious real
Typing pool
Local bar/pool hall
APPENDIX B – Coding Sheet Instructions

The following conditions must be met for the information to be included in this study:

Must be present in either *Ebony, GQ, Essence, Cosmopolitan, Sports Illustrated* or *People* magazine for the months of April or September for the years 1980, 1985, 1990, 1995, 2000, 2005 and 2010 inclusive.

Must be a full page advertisement, not connected to an editorial.

Must be an image (no cartoons, graphics, or digital images).

Must contain a recognizable image of at least one male.

A numeric code will be assigned to each item to represent a numerical sequence of the advertisements.

An alpha code (A, B, C, D) will be assigned to each ad. This code will represent the magazine without giving the coder the knowledge of which magazine the ad is from, in an effort to alleviate pre-disposition.

A second alpha code (X, Y, Z) will be assigned to each ad to represent the decade of the publication the ad is from without giving the coder the knowledge of the actual year the publication is from, in an effort to alleviate pre-disposition.
Variables Used in Content Analysis

VARIABLES CODED FOR EACH ADVERTISEMENT:

1. PRODUCT CATEGORY: (Schneider & Schneider 1979; Gilly 1988; Sharpe 2000)
   What is the product category being advertised:
   1. Food, snacks, soda – food or snack items including non alcoholic beverages but NOT including dining out or restaurant dining
   2. Automobile and accessories – any automobiles or items associated with accessorizing an automobile or automotive accessories
   3. Drugs and medicine – any drug, medication, including over the counter healing aids but NOT including personal care products such as feminine hygiene or healthcare products
   4. Institutional/public service- Includes any type of Institution such as University, Health Care, or public service such as utilities and such
   5. Pet food and related products – any pet food or pet care or related products.
   6. Clothing – this includes all clothing and items associated with clothing such as hangers, hampers, shoes, ties, socks, coats, jackets, etc.
   7. Computers and/or electronics – Any electronic item such as radio, television, GPS, cellular device, touch pad, or computer item or accessory.
   8. Personal and beauty care – all personal hygiene products and products associated with beauty and care of face or body
   9. Restaurants and retail outlets – Any restaurant or shopping outlet.
   10. Household appliances/furnishings – Any household item that is considered an appliance in that it has a function or serves as furnishings or decorations of a household
   11. Alcoholic beverages – Any and all alcoholic beverages including beer, wine and liquor products
   12. Household cleaning agents – Any product used in cleaning or sanitizing or maintaining a clean household.
   13. Finance and real estate – Banks, financial matters, financial companies, housing, and real estate ventures
   14. Other – Any product which does not fit in one of the preceding 13 categories

PRODUCT USER: (Silverstein and Silverstein, 1974; Gilly, 1988; Sharpe 2000)

Is the male the product user?
Is the male character the actual user of the product? Is he wearing, consuming; using; displaying the product?
AGE: (U.S. Census Bureau, 1990)
What is the approximate age of the character?
Under 18 18 - 24 years of age 25 – 44 years of age
45 – 59 years of age 60 and older

ETHNICITY: (U.S. Census Bureau, 1990)
What is the ethnicity of the character?
White
Black or African American
American Indian or Alaskan Native
Asian
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
Hispanic or Latino
Other

EMPLOYMENT: (Schneider & Schneider 1979; Gilly 1988; Sharpe 2000)
The character is portrayed
In a work situation – attire or environment designate work situation.
In a nonwork situation but appears to be employed – no designation of work but
attire or environment appears to be coming to or leaving from
employment
Without indication of employment

OCCUPATION: (U.S. Census Bureau, 1990)
(These were established in the initial training)
If employed, the portrayed occupation is
Management, professional and related occupation
Service occupation
Sales and office occupations
Farming, fishing and forestry
Construction, extraction and maintenance
Production, transportation and material moving
ROLE: (McArthur & Resko 1975; Gilly 1988; Sharpe 2000)
(These were established in the initial training)

In what role is the character primarily portrayed
Spouse/boyfriend
Friend
Parent
Grandparent
Homemaker
Caregiver
Worker
Other

SOLO character is a character that appears in the advertisement by himself, with no other human character.

Characters should be identified by placement in an advertisement.
Character 1 would be the predominant character as determined by being the character at the uppermost foreground of the ad.
Each additional character will be ranked based on their spatial relationship to the foreground and character 1.
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